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Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions Associated with Perceptions of Global
Education Initiatives by U.S. College Professors

by

Emmanuel Jean Francois

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
Department of Adult, Career and Higher Education
College of Education
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internationalization, higher education.

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Dedication

This study is dedicated to God, my beautiful wife Pierrette, my adorable daughters Emmarald and Maellie-Jade, and my handsome son Pierremael who are the inspiration of my doctoral journey. It is dedicated to my father Lherisson, my mother Marie-Lourdes, and my brothers and sisters, Eliezaire, Urielle, Timothe, Samuel, Edeline, and Cassandra who live in Haiti. It is also dedicated to my sister Mireille, my brothers Ernst and Lesly, and my nephew Steve who died from the earthquake that hit Haiti, in January 12, 2010. Finally, this study is a special dedication to those Haitians who did not survive the earthquake and those who are still struggling to survive, using their resilience. Such resilience has given me strength to keep going!

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Table of Contents

List of Tables	v
List of Figures	ix
Abstract	x
Chapter One - Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	8
Purpose of the Study	11
Research Questions	12
Significance of the Study	13
Assumptions	15
Delimitation of the Study	15
Limitations of the Study	16
Operational Definitions	17
Ethical Considerations	18
Organization of the Proposal	19
Chapter Two - Review of Literature	21
Introduction	21
Current Trends Related to U.S. College Professors	22
Individual Factors	22
Age	22
Gender	24
Race/ethnicity	25
Academic Factors	26
Types of institutions	26
Academic rank	28
Motivation	30
What is Motivation?	30
Motivation Theories	32
Content Theories	32
Maslow's Need Hierarchy Theory	32
The Herzberg's Two-factor Theory	34
Alderfer's existence relatedness growth theory	36
Process Theories	37
Expectancy Theory	37

Goal Theory	38
Equity Theory	38
Research on Faculty Motivational Factors in Higher Education	39
Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Factors of U.S. College Professors' Behavior	42
Motivational Factors and Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives by U.S. College Professors	45
Summary	46
Worldview	46
Philosophical-based Worldview Theories	48
Socio-cultural-based Worldview Theories	51
Personality-based Worldview Theories	54
Worldview and Behavior	57
Worldview, Ethnocentrism, and Global-mindedness	58
Worldview and Perception of Global Education Initiatives by U.S. College Professors	60
Summary	61
Global Education Initiatives	62
Globalism	62
Globalization	65
Globalization and Global Competence	68
International Education and Internationalizing in Higher Education	70
Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives	75
Conceptual Framework	83
Summary	86
Chapter Three - Methods	87
Introduction	87
Research Design	87
Research Questions	89
Definition of Research Variables	90
Population and Sample	92
Instrumentation	96
Data Collection	102
Pilot Study	103
Data Analysis	104
Summary	110
Chapter Four - Results	112
Introduction	112

Sample	113
Characteristics of the Research Participants	114
Personal Characteristics	114
Academic Characteristics	116
Results from Data Analysis	119
Treatment of the Data	119
Findings for Research Question One: Motivational Factors, Dominant Worldview Dimensions, and Perceptions Of Global Education Initiatives	124
Findings for Research Question Two: ANOVA Motivational Factors, Worldview Dimensions, and Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives	136
Findings for Research Question Three: Correlations between Motivational Factors and Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives	141
Finding for Research Question Four: Correlations between Worldview Dimensions and Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives	146
Findings for Research Question Five: Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions Associated with Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives	151
Findings for Research Question Six: Individual Factors, Academic Factors, Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions Associated with Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives	158
Summary	168
Chapter Five - Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations	170
Introduction	170
Summary of Study and Findings	170
Summary of Research Design	172
Summary of Findings	175
Implications	185
Recommendations	200
Recommendations for Practices	200
Recommendations for Future Research	205
References	207
Appendices	255
Appendix A Faculty Motivational Factors	256

Appendix B	Global Mindedness Scale	263
Appendix C	Global Education Initiatives	266
Appendix D	Demographic Questionnaire	271
Appendix E	Survey Cover Letter Email	274
Appendix F	Follow-up Email Reminder	277
Appendix G	Letters of Request and Authorization	279

About the Author

End Page

List of Tables

Table 1	Approaches and Strategies for Internationalizing at Institutional Level	4
Table 2	Average Age and Percentage Distribution of Full-Time and Part-Time Instructional Faculty and Staff, by Institution Type, Fall 2003	23
Table 3	Full-Time Instructional Staff at Title IV Four-Year Degree-Granting Institutions, by Type of Institution, and Gender: United States, Academic Year 2008-09	24
Table 4	Full-Time Instructional Staff at Title IV Four-Year Degree-Granting Institutions, by Academic Rank and Gender: United States. Academic Year 2008-09	25
Table 5	Full-Time Instructional Faculty in Degree-Granting Institutions, by Academic Rank: Fall 2005	92
Table 6	Number of Regionally Accredited Four-Year Colleges and Universities in U.S. by Types of Institutions, as Categorized by U.S. News and World Report	93
Table 7	Mean Scores and Standard Deviation by Group of Faculty Perceived Levels of Importance Global Education Initiatives	101
Table 8	Research Questions, Variables, and Analytic Procedures	106
Table 9	Survey Responses by Response Waves	114
Table 10	Demographic Information on Study Participants	117
Table 11	Cronbach Coefficient Alpha Values for Study Variables	119
Table 12	Descriptive Summary of Demographic Variables	120
Table 13	Test of Normality for Demographic Variables	122

Table 14	Test of Homogeneity of Variances	123
Table 15	Summary of Participants' Responses to Motivational Factors' Survey	125
Table 16	Summary of Participants' Responses to Global Mindedness Survey	128
Table 17	Summary of Participants' Responses to Global Education Initiatives Survey	132
Table 18	Mean Scores and Standard Deviation of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Factors of U.S. College Professors by Academic Rank	138
Table 19	Mean Scores and Standard Deviation on Worldview Dimensions of U.S. College Professors by Academic Rank	140
Table 20	Mean Scores and Standard Deviation on Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives of U.S. College Professors by Academic Rank	142
Table 21	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors	142
Table 22	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Internationalizing the Curriculum through Motivational Factors	143
Table 23	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Motivational Factors	144
Table 24	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of International Experiences and Cooperation Through Motivational Factors	146
Table 25	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Institutional Support through	

	Motivational Factors	147
Table 26	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Internationalizing Curriculum through Motivational Factors	149
Table 27	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Motivational Factors	150
Table 28	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of International Experiences and Cooperation through Worldview Dimensions	151
Table 29	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions	153
Table 30	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Internationalizing Curriculum through Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions	154
Table 31	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Campus and Community Activities through Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions	156
Table 32	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of International Experiences and Cooperation through Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions	157
Table 33	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Individual, Academic, Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions	160
Table 34	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Internationalizing Curriculum through Individual, Academic, Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions	162
Table 35	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors'	

	Perception of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Individual, Academic and Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions	165
Table 36	Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of International Experiences through Individual, Academic and Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions	167

List of Figures

Figure 1	Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	33
Figure 2	Herzberg Two-Factor Theory Adapted from Castillo and Cano	35
Figure 3	Conceptual Framework	85
Figure 4	Conceptual Model Representing Relationship among Motivational Factors, Worldview Dimensions, and Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives by U.S. College Professors	89

Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions Associated with Perceptions of Global
Education Initiatives by U.S. College Professors

Emmanuel Jean Francois

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States. The concept of “perceptions of global education initiatives” is used in this study to refer to attitudes toward institutional support for global education, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation. The term college professor in this study is used to designate full-time assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors teaching at a regionally accredited private or public four - year college or university in the United States.

The sample included 418 U.S. college professors at U.S. accredited colleges and universities. Data were collected using four measures: (a) the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES), (b) the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), (c) the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005), and (d) a Demographic Questionnaire (DQ).

The findings of this research suggest that more than two-third of participants have at least experienced another culture in addition to that of the United States. This multicultural frame of reference is favorable to a global mindedness oriented worldview. Also, the study identified U.S. faculty dominant intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors that can influence their participation in internationalizing the curriculum, their dominant worldview dimensions, and their perceptions of global education initiatives. Analysis of variance revealed there are significant differences in intrinsic motivation of assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors. There were no significant differences in extrinsic motivation, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives (except for internationalizing curriculum), among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors. Multiple regressions were run and suggested that motivational factors and worldview dimensions are significant predictors of the perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.

This study can help policy makers and college and university administrators adopt policies, which can create an environment that fosters global education engagement required to promote cross-cultural understanding, produce global competent graduates on the global market, and meet the challenges of a globally interdependent world.

Chapter One

Introduction

Globalization has reached a point where most industrialized countries in the world cannot remain competitive if their college educated workforce lacks strong international, intercultural, or global knowledge and skills. In United States, the challenge is not only to remain competitive in the global market, but also to ensure political leadership and strengthen national security in a world that has become more fragile than one could imagine after the terrible terrorist attacks in New York, on September 11, 2001. The Association of International Educators (NAFSA) indicated in 2003 that

The challenges of the new millennium are unquestionably global in nature. This reality imposes a new and urgent demand on Americans, one this country has been all too quick to ignore: international knowledge and skills are imperative for the future security and competitiveness of the United States. [...]. Strong leadership and a coherent policy are still lacking, and the cost of inaction grows even greater (NAFSA, 2003, p.7).

Higher education is at the heart of a strategy to instill the values, skills, and knowledge that helps strengthen economic, cultural, and even political ties with countries across the globe (Lovett, 2008). In this sense, higher education impacts more than just

national education policy; it also and especially impacts international and/or global education policy.

Experts in public policy believe that the U.S should reposition its leadership and competitiveness in the world through the definition of a new international or global education policy (Treverton & Bikson, 2003). The American Council on Education proposed a blueprint for global education focused on producing international experts and knowledge to address national strategic needs, strengthening the ability of the United States to face global challenges, and developing a global competent citizenry and workforce (ACE, 2002). By the same account, the Association of International Educators (NAFSA) noticed that

The United States effectively lack a coherent, clearly articulated, proactive policy for imparting effective global literacy to our people as an integral part of their education and for reaching out to our future foreign leaders through education and exchange (NAFSA, 2003, p.7).

Simandiraki (2006) asserts that an education that lacks information about the global world and does not help develop the skills to interact in the interconnected world is simply deficient. Many scholars have underscored the need for a better understanding of globalization with respect to its implications for the global economy and the opportunity offered by international education (Green, 2002; Vandamme, 2002). Political and educational leaders have also called for greater internationalization of higher education in the United States (Hamrick, 1999). The President's Commission on Foreign

Languages and International Studies (1979), the Association of American Colleges (1985), the Council on International Educational Exchange (1988), the Association of International Education Administrators (NAFSA, 1995), the American Council on Education (1998), the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC, 2000) have all called for internationalization of higher education in the United States. Bremer and Van der Wende (1995) believe that internationalization is particularly essential to improve the quality of a higher education institution. Horn, Hendel, and Fry (2007) noticed that top U.S. globalized universities are among the best universities in the world. Higher education institutions are not immune from global changes and must react and restructure to meet the needs of the global demands in order to remain competitive. Leibold (1997) claims that the lack of internationalization of U.S. higher education institutions can put the United States at a competitive disadvantage in the global economy, given the increasing interdependent nature of the world.

Global education or internationalizing in higher education implies the integration of international, intercultural or global dimensions in curriculum, instruction, research, and service functions in colleges and universities (Knight, 2004). According to de Wit (2002), global education in higher education may (a) contribute to mutual understanding among people, nations, and cultures, (b) help meet challenges of competitiveness and economic growth, (c) foster greater student development and learning, (d) and facilitate exchange of national cultural values.

Knight (2004) suggests that institutions of higher education should incorporate global education initiatives not only through internationalized mission statement,

strategic plan, human resources, policies and administrative systems, but also through the use of approaches related to academic programs, research and scholarly collaboration, external relations, and extra-curricular activities as illustrated in table 1.

Table 1

Approaches and Strategies for Internationalizing at Institutional Level

Approach	Strategies
Academic programs	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student exchange programs • Foreign language study • Internationalized curricula • Area or thematic studies • Work/study abroad • International students • Teaching/learning process • Joint and double degree programs • Cross-cultural training • Faculty/staff mobility programs • Visiting lecturers and scholars • Link between academic programs and other strategies
Research and scholarly collaboration	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Areas and centers • Joint research projects • International conferences and seminars • Published articles and papers • International research agreements • Research exchange programs
External relations: Domestic and cross-border	<p>Domestic:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Community-based partnership and projects with nongovernment groups or public/private sector groups • Community-services and intercultural project work <p>Cross-border:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • International development assistance projects • Cross-border delivery of education programs (commercial and non-commercial) • International linkages, partnerships, and networks

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contract-based training and research programs and services • Alumni-abroad programs
Extra-curricular activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Student clubs and associations • International and intercultural campus events • Liaison with community-based cultural and ethnic groups • Peer support groups and programs

Source: Knight, 2004, pp.14-15

Research shows there is a growing interest in U.S. institutions of higher education to implement global education initiatives (de Wit, 1995; Siaya & Hayward, 2003). This interest comes not only from a desire to produce globally competent graduates (Bortell, 2003; Ninnes & Hellsten, 2005), but also from the opportunity for more international student enrollment. As Siaya and Hayward (2003) indicated, “the importance given to international learning opportunities by both students and the public suggests that institutions with robust international offerings will have advantage in attracting future students” (p.3). However, Fisher (2008) noticed in a study using a sample of 1,070 U.S. colleges and universities that internationalization has not been recognized as a priority among most U.S. institutions of higher education. The study revealed that despite significant increases in support for faculty to study and research abroad, less than 10% of U.S. colleges and universities take into account international work or experience in their tenure process (Fisher, 2008). In fact, Siaya and Hayward (2003) have already found in a study that the lack of consideration for international work and experience in tenure process has impacted the willingness of faculty members to participate in

internationalization efforts even when the institutions offer other types of campus incentives.

Global education initiatives or internationalization in higher education requires not only the commitment of senior leadership to define institutional vision and strategic plans, but also faculty acceptance and engagement for the implementation of global learning goals in curriculum, teaching, research, and service functions of institutions of higher education (Olson, Green, & Hill, 2006). Many studies have concentrated on trends, definition, rationale, and approaches to internationalize higher education in the United States (Harari, 1989; Arum & Van de Water, 1992; Hayward, 2000; Cummings, 2001; Deardoff, 2004; Bashir, 2007). Other studies have investigated promising patterns of participation and perception of U.S. students about international education in terms of its contributions to (a) improving the quality of higher education institutions to respond to the demand for global competence skills (Etling, 2001), (b) enhancing national economic competitiveness (Hamrick, 1999; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998), (c) increasing global understanding and intercultural sensitivity (Kauffmann, Martin, Weaver, & Weaver, 1992; Steglitz, 1993; Riskedahl, 1997), (d) and ultimately making the world a better place to live (Acker, 1999; Etling, 2001). Several empirical and practitioner studies suggest that institutions of higher education should proactively encourage and reward faculty to participate in implementing global education initiatives (Engberg & Green, 2002; Green & Olson, 2003). Internationalization in higher education requires the internationalization of the curriculum (Halliday, 1999; Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998), which, in turn,

requires the acceptance and engagement of faculty as part of a holistic institutional commitment (Shetty & Rudell, 2000).

Although some research suggest that many U.S. college or university professors with international experiences or international backgrounds are more likely to accept or commit to implementing global learning goals (Haas, 1996; Samaan & Karmouch, 2005), other studies have underscored resistance from college professors about global education initiatives (Green, 2002; Bond, 2003). Their resistance is related either to the fact that they do not have global skills (Green & Olson, 2003) or because global education involvement is not taken into account in tenure promotion decisions (Siaya & Hayward, 2003). In addition, professors in some U.S. colleges and universities are dealing with other institutional issues such as lack of financial resources (Bond, 2003; Engberg & Green, 2002), job satisfaction (Moses, 1986; Manger & Eikeland, 1990), and other personal issues such as global mindedness, intercultural sensitivity, or world view (Cleveland-Jones, Emes, & Ellard, 2001), which may affect their perceptions of global education. Siaya and Hayward (2003) indicate that the inclusion of international work and experience into the tenure process can be an extrinsic motivational factor associated with favorable perception of global education initiative. They also found that some faculty members are intrinsically motivated toward global education initiatives regardless of institutional policies and practices. Therefore, the question is to what extent are college professor intrinsic or extrinsic motivational factors correlated or associated with their perceptions of global education initiatives? Furthermore, Siaya and Hayward (2003) noted that a substantial number of U.S. faculty believe “the more time spent teaching

students about other countries, cultures, and global issues, the less time is available for teaching the basics” (p.10). Thus, instructional faculty worldview may be related to their perceptions of global education initiatives. All in all consideration, to what extent are intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors as well as dimensions of their worldview correlated or associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Statement of the Problem

Most scholars agree that the implementation of global education initiatives contributes to foster greater student development for productive careers (Knight & de Wit, 1999; ACE, 2002), increase quality in higher education (de Wit, 2002, Etlin, 2001), and enhance national economic competitiveness (Hamrick, 1999). They also believe that internationalization of the curriculum is a key component toward the achievement of a globalized college or university (ACE, 2002; Fortin, 2001). As such, the engagement of instructional faculty members is essential for integrating global dimensions in curriculum and instruction (Ellingboe, 1997; Etlin, 2001). There are motivational factors and worldview dimensions that affect the participation of individual instructional faculty member in internationalizing the curriculum. However, few studies have been done to examine the perceptions of faculty regarding global education initiatives and the motivational factors and worldview dimensions that are associated with those perceptions. In fact, Hayward (2000) indicated that “...there are no data at all as is the case of college student and faculty attitudes about international education” (p.29).

Existing studies concentrate mostly on specific groups of faculty such as professors in study abroad programs (Altbach & Lewis, 1998), faculty of agricultural extension programs (Navarro, 2004), or faculty in community college (Genelin, 2005). No study has addressed whether motivational factors and /or worldview dimensions are related to or associated with favorable or unfavorable perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.

Some studies have been done on either faculty perception of global education (Welsh, 1997), or faculty motivational factors (Lackritz, 2004; Lacy & Sheehan, 1997), or faculty world view (Cleveland-Jones, Emes, & Ellard, 2001). However, no empirical research has addressed the relationship of motivational factors, world view dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States, with respect to their perceptions of institutional support for global education initiatives, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation. Haari (1981) argued that “the degree of internationalization of a campus is not a function of size, location, or overall budget.... It is a function of faculty competence and commitment and institutional leadership” (p.29). It is important to underline that faculty commitment is a key factor without which no change concerning global dimensions can be made or implemented in curriculum and instruction. The American Council on Education (ACE) acknowledges that

Internationalizing the curriculum is the most important strategy institutions can use to ensure that all students acquire the knowledge and skills they will need in a globalized world (Green & Shoenberg, 2006, p.22).

The challenge is that instructional faculty members are instrumental in internationalizing the curriculum. Their favorable or unfavorable orientation toward global education initiatives might significantly affect their engagement to internationalizing the curriculum. Morris (1996) said,

It is a hopeless task to add international content to the university curriculum without major increases in faculty involvement in international work...

Internationalization of the faculty is the key to changes in the curriculum....

(Morris, 1996, p.1)

Peterson (2002) made a similar argument, indicating that faculty members are “the key to constructing a curriculum and a set of educational experiences that stand at the core of our aspiration to be more globally oriented institutions...” (p.2)

In fact, most recent studies of globalizing or internationalizing higher education agree that instructional faculty members are critical to the incorporation of global dimensions in curriculum, teaching, and research (Engberg & Green, 2002; Green & Olson, 2003; Peterson, 2002). Hayward (2000) noticed that faculty attitudes and beliefs about global education are poorly documented. Green and Olson (2003) found that the lack of faculty participation in internationalizing the curriculum or the resistance toward internationalization efforts might constitute a serious issue for U.S. colleges and

universities. Stohl (2007) argues that internationalization of institutions of higher education cannot deliver learning, discovery, and opportunities sought through globalism without the engagement of instructional faculty members. Therefore, investigating the perceptions of the U.S. college professor about global education initiatives is important for planning and implementation of internationalization efforts in institutions of higher education. Understanding the perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors is very critical because such perceptions can influence their willingness to incorporate global dimensions into their curriculum, teaching, research, and service projects (Knight, 2004).

This study helped determine whether relationships exist among U.S. college professor motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives. It also examined whether patterns emerged that can be used to describe or predict U.S. college professors' perceptions of global education initiatives. Data collected about U.S. college professors' worldview dimensions, motivational factors, and perceptions of global education initiatives add to the existing literature on these topics and provide clues about some motivational factors and dimensions of worldview that are more likely associated with a favorable orientation toward global education initiatives.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college

professors in the United States. The concept “perceptions of global education initiatives” was used in this study to refer to attitudes toward institutional support for global education, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities intended to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation. More specifically, this study:

- Identified the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.
- Examined the relationship among motivational factors, dimensions of world view, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.
- Analyzed the potential motivational barriers or opportunities for implementing global education initiatives in U.S. higher education institutions.

Research Questions

To investigate the motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States, this study addressed the following questions:

- Q. 1. What are the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?
- Q.2. What differences exist in the motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors of U.S. colleges and universities?
- Q. 3. What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college

professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?

Q. 4. What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?

Q. 5. What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Q. 6. What combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Significance of the Study

Wallerstein (2004) stressed that the world had witnessed long-term changes in the capitalist economy, which brought not only a global division of labor, but also a dominant world culture. The notion of world culture is not to be confused with cultural imperialism, but translates the reality of a “global turn” that makes world societies highly interdependent (Lechner, 2008). The increase of international migration for various political and economic reasons as well as international education programs and scholarships have reshaped the map of human capital in the new world order that emerged as primarily a global economy. American colleges and universities need to take the initiative to educate students to think outside of the box or think outside of their

nationality. U.S. students not only need to know their specific discipline, but also to graduate with intercultural competence as well. Navarro (2004) suggests that students who graduate from U.S. higher education institutions without a basic understanding of global issues and the ability to interact effectively with people from other countries and cultures might not be prepared to position themselves at a competitive standpoint in the global market.

The U.S. Department of Education has rightfully acknowledged that faculty is critical to the success of colleges and universities, given their direct involvement in the quality of the teaching and learning processes, especially in terms of determining curricular contents and student performance standards. Therefore, understanding their level of acceptance of global education initiatives is essential, particularly in internationalizing the curriculum (U.S., 2000). Theoretically, determination of correlation and association among variables of motivational factors, world view dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives of U.S. college professors will help design conceptual frameworks for future research, particularly in global education initiatives in higher education. Understanding the relationships of motivational factors, world view dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors will provide higher education administrators with insight as they develop programs and strategies to improve U.S. instructional faculty engagement in implementing global education goals. This study can help policy makers and college and university administrators adopt policies, which can create an environment that fosters such global education engagement much needed to promote cross-cultural understanding, produce

global competent graduates on the global market, and meet the challenges of a globally interdependent world. Finally, this study adds to the existing literature on extrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors of U.S. college professors, dimensions of their worldview, and their perceptions of global education initiatives.

Assumptions

The research was conducted based on the following assumptions:

- The researcher assumed that global education initiatives, including internationalizing the curriculum, is an asset for U.S. colleges and universities.
- It was also assumed that U.S. college professors would be willing to participate in the study and answer the questions in the survey questionnaires.
- The credibility of the literature sources cited in this study was verified. It was assumed that the information upon which they were based were accurate.
- It was assumed that the findings from this study will contribute to the existing literature on motivational factors of U.S. college professors, dimensions of their worldview, and their perceptions of global education initiatives.

Delimitation of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States. The term college professor in this study is used to designate full-time assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors teaching

at a regionally accredited private or public four - year college or university in the United States. Therefore, some specific delimitations should be kept in mind:

- Faculty teaching at non-regionally accredited colleges or universities was not concerned by this study.

- Faculty teaching at community college was not a concern in this study.

- Instructors and lecturers were not considered in this study.

- Adjunct faculty or adjunct professor was not considered in the study.

- Non-instructional faculty was not a concern in this study.

Limitations of the study

As previously indicated, this research study concerns professors at U.S. four-year colleges or universities. As a result, the findings are not generalizable to two-year post-secondary institutions. Also, it is possible that participants in this research study differ from non-participants. For example, more than two-third of the participants of this study have traveled outside of the U.S. Their responses may differ from individuals who never traveled overseas. Therefore, this may compromise the interpretation and generalization of the findings. Also, the study does not include cross-sectional analyses regarding the fields of study of the participants and types of institutions where they are employed. Furthermore, the measures of motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives were limited to the nature of the instruments used.

Operational Definitions

Motivational factors: Factors that motivate faculty members at higher education

institutions to participate in global education initiatives. These include perceived intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

Worldview: One's perspective of understanding the world. Worldview will be analyzed

with respect to the extent of one's global-mindedness through the following five dimensions: responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness (Hett, 1993).

Global-mindedness: Refers to a worldview through which people see themselves as

connected to a global community and feel a sense of understanding, acceptance, respect, and responsibility toward other members of the global community.

Global education initiatives: Programs and activities designed to increase global

awareness in colleges and universities as well as to prepare graduates who can successfully integrate into a multicultural and interdependent world. According to Blair, Phinney, and Phillippe (2001), such programs and activities occur by obtaining institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, providing campus and community activities designed to increase global awareness, and facilitating person-to-person international experiences and cooperation. Perceptions of global education initiatives will be measured by the Global Education Initiatives scale (Genelin, 2005).

Globalization: Phenomenon of interconnectedness and interdependence among societies,

people, states, nations, and cultures in most aspects of technological, cultural, economical, social, and political life.

Internationalization: Introduction of international and global dimensions in curriculum, research, teaching, and services functions in higher education institutions.

Global competence: Knowledge related to the interconnectedness of world events, history, and culture as well as attitudes and skills that enable one to be successful in cross-cultural settings.

College professor: Lecturer, instructor, assistant professor, associate professor, or full professor within a particular division of learning at a four-year college or university. More specifically, the concept college professor will be used in this research study to refer to full-time instructional faculty members (assistant professor, associate professor, or full professor) at U.S. four-year colleges or universities.

Ethical Considerations

The ethical issues in this research study are not different from that of other similar studies. Several steps have been taken to ensure that ethical standards were met throughout the process. Prior to collecting any data, the study was submitted to the approval of the University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). USF-IRB approval was obtained in January 5, 2010. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, the nature of their voluntary participation, and the option to withdraw from participating in this study, at any time, without questions asked. A cover letter, including implied

consent, provided contact information for the researcher and the chair of the IRB. Participants' names were stored in a password protected computer file saved on a compact disc that only the researcher could access. Participants' and institutions' names were not used in any part of the research report. Participants were informed that the data and results from the survey will be presented in aggregate form only. Demographic information was not reported by institutions so that college or university identification is not possible.

Organization of the Dissertation

Chapter 1 introduces the problem statement, purpose of the study, research objectives, significance of the study, assumptions, limitations and delimitations of the study, operational definitions, ethical considerations, dissemination plan, and organization of the dissertation.

Chapter 2 presents a review of literature related to motivation, worldview, and perceptions of global education initiatives. The literature review summarizes the current trends related to US college professors, the major theories of motivation, research on motivational theories related to faculty in higher education. Chapter 2 also includes the main theories, approaches, and models of worldview. Furthermore, it reviews the most current theories, approaches, models, and research related to globalization, globalism, international education, and global education initiatives.

Chapter 3 outlines the research design, research questions, definition of the variables, description of population and sample, instrumentation, procedures of data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4 presents the profile of the research participants and analysis of key findings related to the research questions.

Chapter 5 discusses the findings of the study, implications, and recommendations for practice and future research.

Chapter Two

Review of Literature

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States. The present chapter reviews the literature related to the research study. The review covers four topical areas: current trends related to U.S. college professors, motivation, worldview, and global education initiatives. Individual and academic factors related to U.S. college professors are outlined to underline the context of this study. The variable motivation is reviewed in the context of the major motivational theories, variables of motivation, and the implications of motivational factors for U.S. college professors with respect to world view and global education initiatives. Worldview is discussed in terms of philosophy, socio-cultural, or personality – based worldviews, worldview and behavior, ethnocentrism and global-mindedness as well as possible implications of worldview in relation to perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. The concept *global education initiative* is addressed under the following subheadings: (a) globalism, (b) globalization, (c) globalization and global competence, (d) international education and internationalizing of higher education, (e) and global education initiatives in relation to U.S. college professors.

Current Trends Related to U.S. College Professors

College professors constitute the fundamental resource from which depends the process and outcomes of institutions of higher education in the United States. They play key roles in curriculum development, instruction, research, and service functions of colleges and universities. According to Biles and Tuckman (1986), full-time faculty

- Participates in selecting, retaining, and terminating academic colleagues;
- Determines programs, courses, and course content in their department;
- Defines their own roles in unsupervised teaching and researching;
- And, participates (with some limitations) in determining their own workload, content, and hours of work.

Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) argue that some individual and environmental/institutional factors affect the motivation and perceptions of faculty in higher education institutions. Some of these factors will be outlined in the following paragraphs, under the labels individual factors and academic factors.

Individual Factors

The individual factors refer to the overall demographic characteristics of college professors that are not necessarily related to their status of faculty in higher education institutions. Individual factors selected by this research study are age, gender, and race/ethnicity.

Age. The low number of young faculty members is one of the major trends related to professors of U.S. colleges and universities. The data for 2003-2004 provided by the

National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicates that the average age of faculty was about 50 years at U.S. postsecondary institutions. The category of faculty members aged between 35- 44 includes 24.5% of full-time faculty and 22% of part-time faculty. Also, 8.2% of full-time faculties at all U.S. postsecondary institutions were under 35 years of age while 12.3% of the same age group represent part-time faculty. Table 1 presents the average age and percentage distribution of full-time and part-time instructional faculty and staff, by institution type, for fall 2003.

Table 2

Average Age and Percentage Distribution of Full-Time and Part-Time Instructional Faculty and Staff, by Institution Type, Fall 2003

Institution Type	Full-Time Faculty			Part-Time Faculty		
	Average Age	Percent Under 35	Percent Age 35-44	Average Age	Percent Under 35	Percent Age 35-44
All institutions	49.6	8.2%	24.5%	49.6	12.3%	22.0%
Public Doctoral	49.3	8.3	25.9	48.7	14.9	22.1
Private Not-For-Profit Doctoral	49.7	8.4	26.2	50.3	11.2	22.7
Public Master's	50.2	8.0	23.2	49.6	14.0	22.2
Private Not-for-Profit Masters	48.3	12.1	25.4	49.4	12.4	23.9
Private Not-For-Profit Baccalaureate	49.9	7.0	22.2	49.2	12.3	22.5
Other	49.8	6.1	23.0	50.0	10.4	21.8

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2004. National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF: 04).

Gender. As table 2 indicates, 59% of all full-time college professors at U.S. four-year institutions of higher education are men, and 41% are women. The percentage of faculty is 60% for men and 40% for women in public institutions, 59% for men and 41% for women in private not-for-profit institutions, and 57% for men and 43% for women in private for profit institutions.

Table 3

Full-Time Instructional Staff at Title IV Four-year Degree-granting Institutions, by Type of Institution, and Gender: United States, Academic Year 2008-09

Faculty	Men	Percent	Women	Percent	Total
Public	16, 4122	60%	11, 3877	40%	27, 7999
Private Not-For-Profit	97, 645	59%	68, 303	41%	165, 948
Private For Profit	6, 459	57%	4, 913	43%	11, 372
Total	268, 226	59%	187, 093	41%	455, 319

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2008-2009, Human Resources component, Salaries section.

Also, the percentages of men and women faculty differ across academic ranks. As shown in table 3, 64% of full professors in U.S. four-year degree institutions are men while 46% are women. Also, 59% of associate professors are men and 41% are women. The proportion of assistant professors is 51% for men and 49% for women. There are more women instructors (57%) than men (43%). The proportion of lecturers is higher for women (55%) than men (45%).

Table 4

Full-Time Instructional Staff at Title IV Four-year Degree-granting Institutions, by Academic Rank, and Gender: United States, Academic Year 2008-09

Academic rank	Men	Percentage	Women	Percentage	Total
Full Professor	63,586	64%	35,615	46%	99,201
Associate Professor	67,748	59%	46,451	41%	114,199
Assistant Professor	62,340	51%	59,543	49%	121,883
Instructor	17,043	43%	22,456	57%	39,499
Lecturer	12,499	45%	14,986	55%	27,485
Total	259,210		179,051		438,261

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), Winter 2008-2009, Human Resources component, Salaries section.

Race/ethnicity. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, 81.3% of tenure-line faculty at four-year institutions of higher education are white, 9.2% are Asian-Americans, 5% are African-Americans, 2.4% are Hispanics, 1.9% are from more than one race/ethnicity, and 0.3% are American-Indians.

Astin, Antonio, and Astin (1997) noticed that most African-American college professors are untenured or hold junior faculty position. Chait and Trower (2002) argue that African-American faculty members work in an inhibiting unwelcome climate characterized by unconscious and unintentional biases (Advance Center for Institutional Change, 2003). Stein (1994) explains that American-Indian faculty members face similar challenges. They feel that they have to work harder to be accepted by their colleagues in a “chilly” academic climate (Turner & Myers, 2000). Several scholars have drawn similar conclusions about the status of African-American faculty in U.S. higher education

institutions that are struggling to recruit and retain a diverse faculty (Aguirre, 2000; Luzzo & Mc Whirter, 2001; Chang, Witt, & Hakuta, 2002; Antonio, 2003; Smith, Turner, Osei-Kofi, & Richards, 2004).

Academic Factors

The academic factors include variables that are inherent to the status of college professors as faculty of higher education institutions. Variables retained for this research study are type of institution of higher education and academic rank.

Types of institutions. The most recent data published by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) indicate there are 4,570 degree-granting postsecondary institutions, including 2,826 four-year colleges and 1,744 two-year colleges (NCES, 2009). The overall classification used by NCES consists of public, private not-for-profit, and private for-profit institutions. Each category includes four-year and two-year institutions. The NCES refers to public institutions as these whose programs and activities are largely supported by public funds, and officials are either public elected or appointed. Private not-for-profit institutions designate independent not-for-profit schools and schools affiliated with religious organizations. The owners of these institutions receive no compensation. However, wages, rent, and expenses for their programs and activities are covered. On the other hand, private for-profit institutions generate compensation and other financial benefits for their owners. This classification will not be retained for this study because it focuses more on ownership and financial aspects of the institutions rather than the academic aspects of an institution of higher education. The

Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education appears to emphasize more on academic factors to classify post secondary institutions in the United States (The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 2005). The Carnegie classification categorizes institutions of higher education in:

- (a) Doctorate-granting universities (awards at least 20 doctorates per year),
- (b) Master's colleges and universities (awards at least 50 master's degrees and less than 20 doctorates per year),
- (c) Baccalaureate colleges (bachelor's degree accounts for at least 10% of all undergraduate degrees and awards less than 50 master's degrees per year)
- (d) Associate colleges (confer mostly associate degrees and bachelor degree accounts for less than 10% of degree awarded).
- (d) Special focus institutions (award degree only in special fields of study),
- (e) Tribal colleges (associated with the American Indian Higher Education Consortium),
- (e) And not classified institutions.

The Carnegie classification has been adapted to structure the college ranking of US News and World Report (Morse, 2009). The US News and World Report includes 1,400 accredited higher educations categorized into (a) national universities (doctoral/research university), (b) universities-masters (master's colleges and universities), (c) liberal arts colleges (baccalaureate colleges-arts and sciences), (d) and baccalaureate colleges (baccalaureate colleges-diverse). The US News and World Report classification will be utilized in this research study. The Carnegie classification will not

be used as it stands because it includes accredited and non-accredited institutions and does not have separate categories for the liberal arts colleges, which emphasize more on awarding undergraduate degrees in liberal arts. The research study assessed whether any significant differences in motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives exist among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors based on type of institution where they are employed.

Academic rank. Several types of classifications are used to rank faculty in U.S. higher education institutions. The most common categories are tenure status and academic rank. The Merriam-Webster Online Dictionary defines tenure as “a status quo granted after a trial period to a teacher that gives protection from summary dismissal”. Peterson argues that academic tenure in higher education started in the United States during the early 1900s with the creation of the American Association of University Professors (AAUP). The existence of academic tenure instituted a probationary peer review period that allows institutions of higher education to assess faculty progress in scholarship (or lack thereof) before they get promoted or asked to leave the University (Amacher & Meiners, 2004; Masella & Thompson, 2004). Consequently, a tenured college professor is considered as a qualified expert who can:

- Develop curriculum and standards of quality for students’ performance,
- Teach courses in various instructional settings,
- Conduct lectures, seminars, and workshops in one’s field of study,
- Perform advanced research in one’s field of expertise,
- Provide community and consulting services,

- Perform other tasks related to the functions of a higher education institution (Baugher, 2009; Peterson, 2007).

Valenzuela (2009) explains that not all institutions of higher education have tenure tracks. Valenzuela (2009) argues that college professors in non-tenure track positions tend to be instructors, visiting faculty, research track faculty, and clinical faculty. According to Valenzuela (2009), a position of assistant professor, associate professor, or full professor without any qualifier (such as visiting professor) is most likely a tenure track appointment. Valenzuela (2009) contends that classification in the tenure track is referred to as academic rank. In other word, academic rank signifies the classification of tenured or on tenure track college professor (general designation) into (a) assistant professor, (b) associate professor, (c) and full professor. Baugher (2009) explains that a faculty enters the higher education tenure track system as assistant professor for a probationary period of 3 to 7 years. Then, the assistant professor can be promoted into associate professor upon successful peer review of the scholarship records of teaching, research, publication, and service. The promotion to the status of full professor involves a formal peer review evaluation process as well. The research study will assess whether any significant differences in motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives exist across academic ranks.

Motivation

What is Motivation?

Human motivation has been at the center of studies in various disciplines, including, but are not limited to education, management, psychology, sociology, political

sciences, communications, and economy. Simply put, human motivation refers to the drives that cause people to behave the way they do. According to Campbell and Pritchard (1976), the concept of human motivation implies a set of psychological processes causing an individual to initiate, direct, intensify, and persist in a particular behavior. Robbins (1998) defines motivation as the willingness to exert extensive individual effort to satisfy one's needs through organizational goals. Hogetts (1992) equates human motivation to the psychological drive that directs people toward an objective. This definition is similar to that of Lawler (1994) who referred to motivation as a goal directed behavior. Furthermore, Denhardt and Aristigueta (2008) indicate that motivation aims to achieve or pursue a goal.

Denhardt and Aristigueta (2008) provide some key factors that enable to better operationalize the concept of motivation and distinguish it from satisfaction. First of all, they argue that “motivation is an internal state that causes people to behave in a particular way to accomplish particular goals and purposes. It is possible to observe the outward manifestations of motivation but not motivation itself” (p.147). Therefore, motivation is not directly observable. For instance a faculty member desire for flexibility might be an intrinsic motivator expressing the internal drive to meet intrinsic needs like pursue outside interests, more free time to attend professional activities, or opportunity to accommodate family life (child care, transportation, and other family needs). Denhardt and Aristigueta (2008) also argue that “motivation is not something that people do to others” (p.147), but “occurs within people's mind and hearts” (p. 147). Therefore, motivation is not directly controllable. However, the motivational process can be

influenced. In addition, Denhardt and Aristigueta (2008) assert that motivation is not always conscious, and can be influenced by unconscious repressed memories, impulses, which may be related to one's cultural background or worldview. Finally, Denhardt and Aristigueta (2008) believe that motivation is not the same as job satisfaction.

Spector (1997) defines job satisfaction in terms of "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (p.2). Chellandurai (1999) indicates that job satisfaction is an attitude that people have about their job. Preziosi and Gooden (2003) say that job satisfaction is the overall perceptions and feelings of an employee about his/her work. For Smucker and Kent (2004), the concept of job satisfaction implies the feelings that workers have about their jobs or job experiences in comparison to previous experiences, expectations, or available alternatives.

Denhardt and Aristigueta (2008) argue that "satisfaction is past oriented, whereas motivation is future oriented" (p. 147). Igalens and Roussel (1999) support this assumption, indicating that individual may be satisfied by certain factor of their jobs while not being motivated to continue doing that job.

Overall, the above definitions emphasize that motivation is more of a composite variable that include various behavioral, affective and environmental factors that drive someone toward actions. These factors are analyzed in more systematic manners by various motivation theories.

Motivation Theories

Various theories have attempted to explain motivational factors related to human behavior. Motivation theories are categorized into content and process.

Content Theories

The content theories of motivation are formulated based on the assumption that people share similar needs and they are motivated to satisfy those needs. According to the content theories, a work place provides or must provide to employees challenges, responsibilities, and opportunities for growth as means to satisfy the needs that motivate human behavior. Examples of content theories include (a) the Maslow's need hierarchy theory (Maslow, 1954; Whaba & Bridwell, 1976), (b) the Herzberg's Motivation – Hygiene theory (Herzberg, 1966), and (c) the Alderfer theory of needs (Alderfer, 1972).

Maslow's need hierarchy theory. The Maslow's need hierarchy theory states that people are motivated based on a five-tier model of human needs, arranged in ascending order of importance (physiological, safety, belonging, esteem, and self-actualization), as illustrated in figure 1.

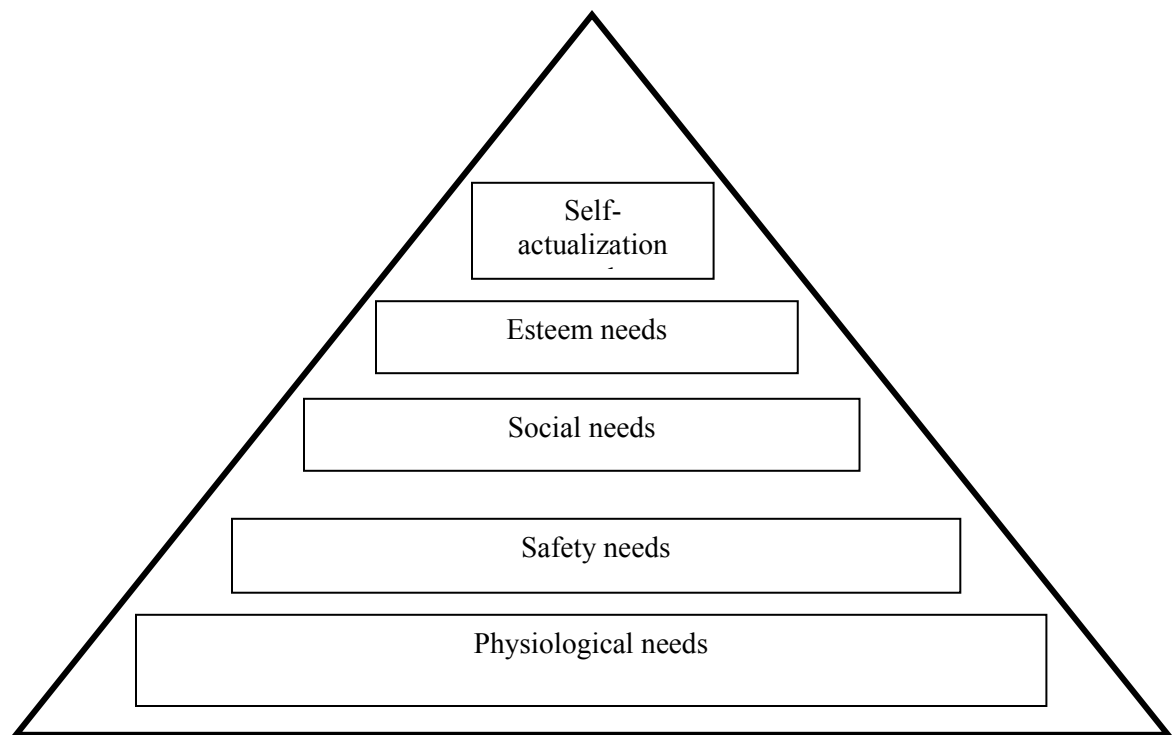


Figure 1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Maslow, 1954).

The physiological needs (food, water, shelter, sex, and other bodily needs) refer to salary and working conditions. The safety needs (security, protection from harm, and stability) are related to job security, employment benefits, and safe working conditions. The social needs (affection, acceptance, belongingness, and friendship) include interpersonal relationship with workers, supervisors, and subordinates. The esteem needs (autonomy, self-respect, and recognition) encompass titles, promotion, status, and rank. The self-actualization needs (personal growth, achievement of one's potential, advancement, and self-fulfillment) refer to career advancement and challenging work assignments.

According to Maslow (1943), the more basic needs must be satisfied in a gradually manner as translated into the hierarchy before the ultimate needs, especially self-actualization needs can be fulfilled. Whaba and Bridwell (1976) conducted a review of research about Maslow theory and found no evidence of a human hierarchy of needs. However, Maslow's work has inspired other studies in job satisfaction, such as Herzberg's two-factor theory and Alderfer's existence relatedness growth theory.

The Herzberg's two-factor theory. The two-factor theory is built on the foundations of Maslow's theory and aims to understand the factors that determine job satisfaction. Herzberg (1968) conducted a study based on the question, "What do people want from their job?", tabulated and categorized participant responses based on their good feelings and bad feelings about their job. He noticed that when people feel good about their job, they mentioned intrinsic factors such as the work itself, responsibility, recognition, advancement, and growth. However, people who felt bad about their job, cite extrinsic factors like working conditions, company policies, supervision, and interpersonal relations. According to Herzberg (1959), job satisfaction is inherent to the job itself, and is positioned in a two-continuum composed of motivator and hygiene factors. The motivators are "job satisfiers" that fulfill the psychological growth of a worker. The hygiene factors are "job satisfiers" associated with the work environment, and constitute needs that must be met to prevent dissatisfaction (Castillo and Cano, 2004). One of the major findings of Herzberg study was that satisfaction is not the opposite of dissatisfaction. The opposite of satisfaction is "no satisfaction". Likewise, the opposite of dissatisfaction is "no dissatisfaction". Therefore, removing the hygiene

factors from the job does not make it automatically satisfying. In other word, people might be satisfied, but not motivated. Herzberg (1968) suggests to emphasize on intrinsic factors such as opportunity for growth, achievement, responsibility, recognition, and the work itself.

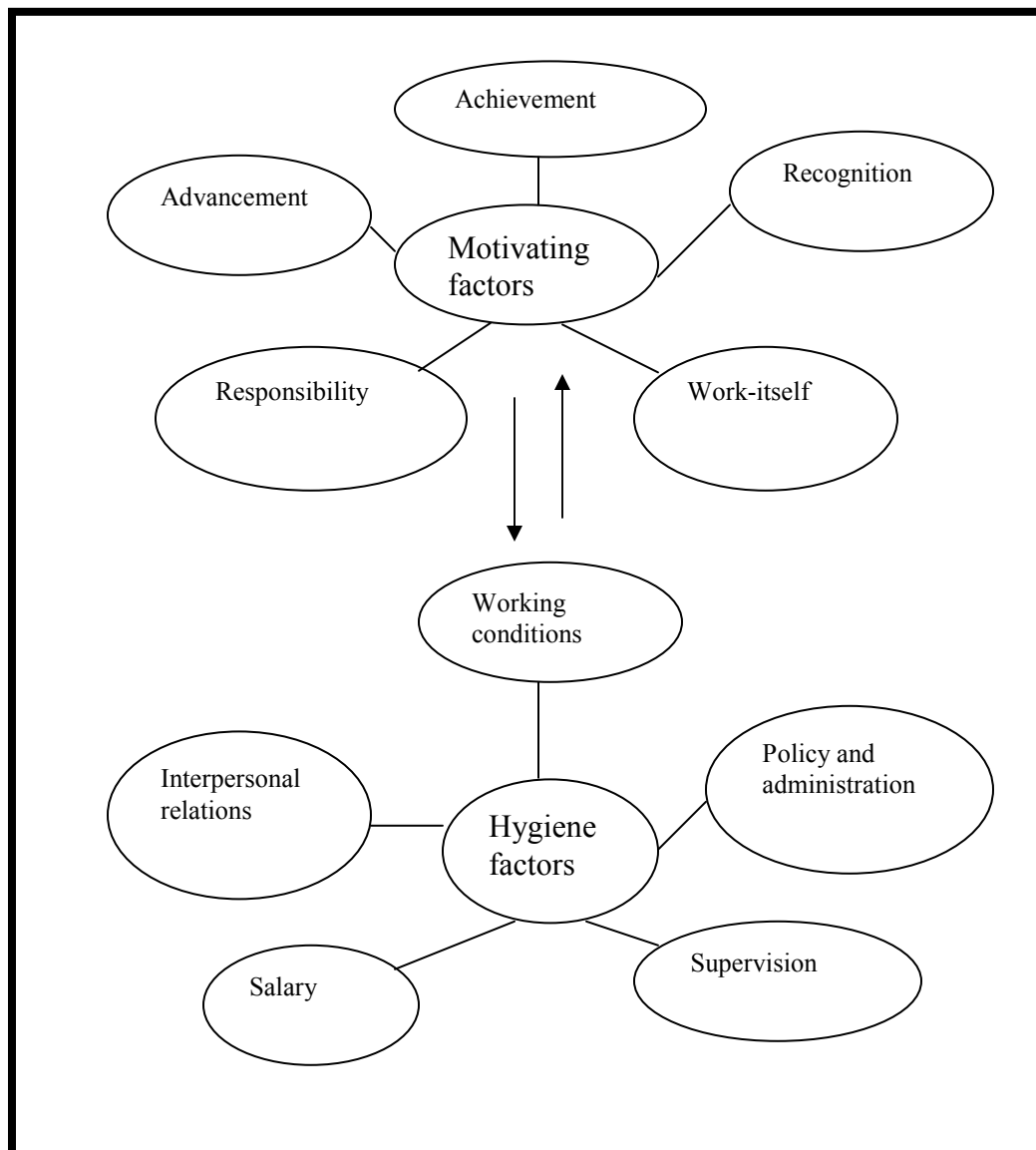


Figure 2. Herzberg Two-Factor Theory Adapted from Castillo and Cano (2004)

Herzberg's two-factor theory contributed to the advancement of research on job on motivation as well as job satisfaction. This theory has introduced the use of double scales (satisfaction/dissatisfaction) to measure job satisfaction. Basset-Jones and Llyod (2005) contend that Herzberg's theory challenges the conventional assumption that money is the principal factor of employee motivation. However, some argue that the motivation-hygiene theory is limited by its methodology (Soliman, 1970), ignores situational variables (House & Wigdor, 1967), and is based on a non-evident relationship between satisfaction and productivity (House & Wigdor, 1967).

Alderfer's existence relatedness growth theory. The Maslow's hierarchy of needs and the Herzberg two-factor theory inspired the development of the existence relatedness growth theory (Alderfer, 1969). Similar to Maslow and Hertzberg, Alderfer (1969) believes that employees do have needs that motivate them. However, he argues that these needs must be understood through a continuum of

- Existence needs: Physiological and safety needs (salary, employment benefits, job security, and work conditions);
- Relatedness needs: Social and esteem needs (interpersonal relationships with co-workers, supervisors, subordinates, family members, friends, and other people);
- Growth needs: Self-actualization needs (personal development, career advancement, and fulfillment of one's potential).

Contrary to Maslow's theory suggesting that a lower-level need must be satisfied before the next-level need in the hierarchy become operative, Alderfer (1969) claims that employee needs can be satisfied simultaneously. Also, contrary to Maslow, Alderfer

believes that a satisfied need can remain a motivator for other job satisfaction needs. Schneider and Alderfer (1973) found evidence that indicate the validity of Alderfer's theory. Wanous and Zwany (1977) conducted a cross-sectional study that supports the existence of growth, relatedness, and existence needs as classified by Alderfer. However, Wanous and Zwany (1977) also report that Alderfer's theory is not applicable to some organizations, thus has limited applications.

Process Theories

The process theories focus primarily on the cognitive process that determines the level of motivation of an employee. These theories assert that motivation can be explained through examination of variables such as value, goal, attribution, and behavior (Gruneberg, 1979; Hoy & Miskel, 1982). In fact, the expectancy theory (Vroom, 1982), the goal theory (Locke, 1969), and the equity theory (Adams, 1963) are the classical examples of process theories.

Expectancy theory. The expectancy theory also called "valence-instrumentality-expectancy (VIE)" and value theory is based on the assumptions that individual decision making process in organizations are inspired by one's ability to think, reason, and anticipate future events. Also, individual behavior is influenced by the interactions between an employee values and attitudes with the organizational climate (Vroom, 1964). The expectancy theory claims that such interaction occurs around the notions of valence, instrumentality, and expectancy. Valence refers to the perceived value that a person places on expected rewards. Instrumentality is the relationship between individual

performance and the expected rewards. Expectancy implies the individual's belief that a task will be performed at a specific level of success. In short, the expectancy theory argues that employee compensation is proportional to their level of performance, and therefore is a source of motivation. A discrepancy will lead to inhibition. Vroom (1982) suggests that an employee may decide to complete a task based on the perceived fairness of the compensation, whether such compensation is monetary or non-monetary.

Goal theory. The goal theory explains motivation by the awareness of employees that the task being completed will help achieve a goal (Locke, 1969). The assumptions of the goal theory are that specific goals are superior to general goals, and difficult goals lead to greater performance. Locke (1970) argues that goal setting leads to motivation through a series of processes that involve:

- Existents (incentives, objects, actions, and outcomes),
- Evaluation (cognition, and values),
- Emotions and desires
- Anticipated existents (incentives, objects, actions, and outcomes),
- Judged instrumentality of anticipated action and anticipated effect,
- Goal setting,
- And action.

Equity theory. The equity theory argues that people look around them to see what effort co-workers are putting in their work and how this effort is rewarded. This cognitive process serves as the drive for employee motivation in a quest for fairness and equity (Adams, 1963). According to Adams (1965), individuals are motivated to do their

job when they have evidence that their outcomes and inputs are fair and equitable in comparison to other people. Inversely, evidence of unfairness and inequity between outcomes and inputs may lead to de-motivation.

Research on Faculty Motivational Factors in Higher Education

Many studies have been conducted on faculty motivation in relation to their job satisfaction in community colleges (Grau, 1997; Kellerman, 1996; Truell, Price, & Joyner, 1998; Valadez & Anthony, 2001) and college and university faculty in the United States (Gappa, 2000; August & Waltman, 2004). Most studies conducted on the faculty of community colleges found that they are highly motivated to do their job (Truell, Price, & Joyner, 1998; Coll & Rice, 1990) and are very committed to their institution (Chieffo, 1991).

A nationwide survey “The American Faculty Poll” was conducted in 1999 by the National Opinion Research Center at the University of Chicago to investigate the level of job satisfaction of faculty in U.S. colleges and universities. According to the survey, U.S. college professors remain in their job primarily because of the nature of their intellectual challenging environment, the freedom to teach what interests them, the opportunity to spend time with their families, and the opportunity to educate students (Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000).

Overall, college professors are motivated to do their job (Comm & Mathaisel, 2003; Terpstra & Honoree, 2004; Rhode, 2004). Somers, Cofer, Austin, Inman & al. (1998) indicate that institutional type and organizational climate affect faculty

motivation. McKeachie (1979) found that faculty in higher education are mostly motivated by intrinsic factors such as freedom and autonomy, intellectual challenges, enjoyment of work, and interactions with students and colleagues. Schrodt, Cawyer, & Sanders (2003) stress that departmental ownership, clear role expectations and connectedness with colleagues are associated with faculty motivation. Miller, McCormack, and Pope (2000) found that improved communication and trust between faculty and administrators are related to faculty involvement, with respect to their organizational commitment, their teaching effectiveness, and inter-faculty community communication. Factors such as institutional context (Banta, Lund, Black, & Oblander, 1996) administrative leadership styles (Miller & al., 2000), and institutional resources, rewards (Palomba & Banta, 1999) contribute to influence faculty involvement.

Diener (1985) suggests that faculty are motivated by their participation in policy decision, student's motivation, opportunities to attend professional meetings, the status of their profession, promotional opportunities, administration responsiveness, freedom and independence of work, salary, teaching recognition, student appreciation, and appreciation for personal contributions. However, Diener (1985) found that committee work, and time for course preparation are inhibiting factors. Another study by Willie and Steck (1982) found that most college faculty experience high degree of motivation from the work itself. However, their inhibitors come from external conditions surrounding their work.

Reybold (2005) found that new faculties experience professional crisis, stress of tenure and promotion, discrimination, unbalanced workloads and tense relationships with

colleagues and administrators that affect their level of motivation. Other studies have also argued that new faculties may experience peer hostility (Boice, 1993), discrimination (Johnsrud, 1993; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000; Ropers-Huilman, 2000), or exceedingly professional demands for earning tenure (Golde & Dore, 2001), which can affect their level of motivation (Boice, 1993).

Understanding motivational factors that influence faculty engagement can help assess their level of openness or resistance to change, and thus contribute to appreciate their level of acceptance of global education initiatives. Studies show that faculty motivation affects their teaching effectiveness and research productivity (Boice, 1993; Olsen, 1993).

From the content theories (Maslow, 1954; Herzberg, 1966) to the process theories (Adams, 1963; Vroom, 1982) the motivation of employees has been a continual research interest in management, labor relations, industrial/organizational psychology (Thompson & McNamara, 1997; Judge, Bono, Thoresen, & Patton, 2001). In fact, understanding the factors that affect the motivation of employees is particularly important to the extent that such factors may affect their performance (Bruce & Blackburn, 1992), absenteeism (Locke, 1976), and high turnover (Mobely, 1982), and ultimately their commitment to organizational or institutional effectiveness (Barnes, Agago, & Coombs, 1998; Hagedorn, 2000; Rosser, 2004).

Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Factors of U.S. College Professor Behavior

Many scholars agree that motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation refers to an individual desire to participate in an activity just for a sense of self-fulfillment (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Flora and Blackburn (1996) cite a faculty member engagement in a defined research interest as an example of intrinsic motivation. On the other hand, extrinsic motivation suggests a behavior that is motivated by external rewards or expectations (Deci & Ryan, 1985). For example, providing monetary increases proportionally to faculty members' research productivity is an extrinsic motivation.

Marlon (1999) conducted a study to evaluate the effects of faculty motivation on their engagement or resistance toward distributive education at an institution of higher education. The study revealed that the majority of faculty members were motivated by personal fulfillment and opportunity to help students to learn. In a study to investigate what motivate faculty to teach distance education courses, Wolcott (1999) found that the top expected rewards were (a) personal motivation, (b) ability to reach new types of learners, (c) overall job satisfaction, (d) intellectual challenge, and (e) opportunity to develop new ideas. Rockwell, Schauer, Fritz, and Marx (1999) noticed that intrinsic factors like self-gratification and opportunities to provide innovative instruction were the primary incentives for faculty involvement in higher education. Parker (2003) found that faculty members are motivated to teach traditional courses by intrinsic rewards such as self-satisfaction and flexible scheduling.

Several studies revealed that incentives and rewards contribute to motivate faculty work in higher education (Serow, Brawner, & Demery, 1999; Tang & Chamberlain,

2003). Fox (1985) contends that institutional reward structure for promotion contributes to motivate faculty members toward research productivity. Consequently, some scholars argue that faculty research productivity peaks during the tenure period (Goodwin & Sauer, 1995; Hu & Gill, 2000). Other studies assert that tenure status, length of the tenure probationary period, course load, financial support for research, and working time allocated to research activities are among the main motivational factors that influence a college professor research productivity (Buchheil, Collins, & Collins, 2001; Chow & Harrison, 1998; Tien, 2000). In a study on a sample selected from business faculty members of ten mid-western universities, Chen, Gupta, and Hoshower (2004) found that tenure, promotion, and salary raises were the most valued rewards that motivated participants to conduct research.

Schifter (2000) compared the top five motivating and inhibiting factors related to faculty participation in distance education programs, at George Washington University. The top five motivating factors that emerged from the findings were (a) personal motivation to use technology, (b) opportunity to develop new ideas, (c) opportunity to improve teaching, (d) opportunity to diversify program offerings, and (e) greater flexibility for students. The five inhibiting factors were (a) lack of release time, (b) concern about faculty workload, (c) concern about quality of course, (d) lack of distance learning training provided by institution, and (e) lack of grant for materials/expenses. One observation one can infer from these findings is that the motivating factors were intrinsic whereas the inhibiting factors were extrinsic. This stresses the fact that both

intrinsic and extrinsic factors must be taken into consideration when analyzing factors that influence an individual motivation to behave a certain way.

There have been ongoing debates about the effects of extrinsic rewards on intrinsic motivation (Guzzo, 1979; Harackiewicz & Sansone, 2000). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation can contribute to flexibility, creativity, and spontaneity, whereas extrinsic motivation can result in anxiety and low self-esteem. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) conducted a meta-analysis of research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and found that extrinsic motivation attached to an intrinsically motivated behavior can undermine the intrinsic motivation. However, the negative effect of extrinsic reward on intrinsic motivation was observed in the context of a control-oriented extrinsic behavior. Deci, Koestner, and Ryan (1999) noticed that extrinsic rewards that align with the human need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Franken, 2002) have positively affected intrinsic motivation. Therefore, motivation cannot be simply addressed in the light of its intrinsic and extrinsic dimensions, but in a multidimensional manner. Blackburn and Lawrence (1995) indicate that the effect of incentives and rewards as motivational factors depends on individual characteristics (demographic, cognitive attitudes, non-cognitive attitudes, and values) and environmental factors (institutional norms, faculty composition, availability of resources, fiscal solvency of the institution, and structure related to faculty governance). This research study will look how combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors interplay in terms of their association with perception of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors and their potentiality to minimize the negative effects of the extrinsic factors.

Motivational Factors and Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives by U.S. College Professors

Backman (1981) indicates that one of the barriers that contribute to faculty resistance to global education initiatives is the fact that the reward system at some higher education institutions does not stress the usefulness and advantage of international experience in achieving internationalization in U.S. colleges and universities. Siaya and Hayward (2003) found more recently that international scholarship is included in tenure and promotion policies of only 4% of U.S. colleges and universities. Consequently, faculty members have less incentive to incorporate global content in curriculum and teaching as well as collaborate in international service projects. Tenure and promotion are found to be among faculty motivational factors. Restrictive tenure and promotion policies may affect not only extrinsic motivation of U.S. college professors but also their attitude toward global education initiatives. In fact, the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant College (NASULGC, 1993) found that some faculty “perceive international engagement as jeopardizing to their careers” (p.3), because international components are not included in tenure and promotion criteria of most U.S. colleges and universities. On the other hand, Siaya and Hayward (2003) found that some instructional faculty members have interests in global education that do not depend on institutional practices and policies. In other words, both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors may be associated with U.S. college professor perceptions of global education initiatives.

Summary

This first section of the literature review outlined some definitions of motivation and the major content and process theories of motivation. In addition, the review of literature on motivation stressed existing research about faculty motivational factors in U.S. higher education institutions as well as possible relationship between motivational factors and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. There are several small and large scale studies about motivation of faculty in higher education. This research will focus exclusively on instructional full-time faculty members (lecturers, instructors, assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors), given their critical and essential role in designing and revising curriculum, teaching, and performing research and service functions in U.S. higher education institutions. Therefore, this study will not only provide an opportunity to explore faculty data in light of recent survey (Sanderson, Phua, & Herda, 2000), but also will examine the assumption that facets of intrinsic or/and extrinsic motivational factors might work concurrently with dimensions of U.S. college professor worldview to affect their perceptions of global education initiatives.

Worldview

The term worldview originates from the German word “weltanschauung”, which means a perspective of the world or the universe. Mathiot (1979) defines worldview as “a general way of thinking about the world that underlies all cultural behavior” (p. 163). Cobern (1991) indicates that worldview can imply one understanding of human existence

and reality or a mental representation of the world that someone lives in. Similarly, Wolman (1973) said that the concept worldview describes an individual's outlook about life, society, and social institutions. Others like Miller and West (1993) define worldview as "a filter through which phenomena are perceived and comprehended" (p. 3). Overton (1991) argues that worldview is "a set of interrelated assumptions about the nature of the world" (p. 269).

Most of the definitions about worldview have the commonality of referring to this concept as a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions that individuals use to understand reality and interpret one's existence within such reality. Studies about worldview have been conducted across many disciplines and sub - disciplines, including, but are not limited to philosophy (Vidal, 2007), anthropology (Kluckhohn, 1950), psychology (Maslow, 1970a; Overton, 1991; Jung, 1942/1954), religion (Lovinger, 1984; Horton, 1993), sports (Kontos & Bredland-Noble, 2002), counseling (Ibrahim, 1999), psychotherapy (Jackson & Meadows, 1991), and education (Aikenhead & Jegede, 1999). As a result, worldview theories may have different orientations, which might be interconnected, but not necessarily identical. Preliminary literature search on worldview revealed three broad theoretical orientations:

- Philosophical-based worldview theories,
- Socio-cultural – based worldview theories,
- Personality-based worldview theories.

Philosophical-based Worldview Theories

The philosophical-based worldview theories attempt to understand human existence and reality through philosophical inquiry models such as ontology (What is?), explanation (Where does it all come from?), prediction (Where are we going?), axiology (What is good and what is evil?), praxeology (How should we act?), and epistemology (What is true and what is false?).

For Freud (1926/1959), worldview is a philosophical construct that individuals use to make sense of the world. Furthermore, Freud defined worldview as a package that includes art, philosophy, religion, and science. He argued that all of them concern to some extent beliefs about:

- The origin of the universe (cosmogony),
- The source of knowledge (epistemology),
- The source of well-being,
- The efficacy of magical versus direct action,
- The existence of unconscious determinants of thought and behavior,
- The issue of voluntarism versus determinism,
- The matter of spiritual versus materialist metaphysics (religious versus scientific worldview).

Freud seemed to consider worldview as optional. He believed that there is no spiritual worldview, and only the materialistic worldview exists. Contrary to Freud, Jung (1942/1954) had suggested that worldview is part of an individual personality, which is unconsciously transmitted through one's culture. Similarly, the postmodern scholars

argue that worldviews are inherent to human psychology in a holistic manner (Sarason, 1984; Shweder, 1995). Horton (1971) argues that there is a traditional and a scientific worldview that can be differentiated through (a) the prediction of events, (b) cause and effect, (c) experimentation, (d) confession of ignorance, (e) coincidence, chance, and probability, (f) and time.

Nietzsche (1872/1956) explained that there exists different worldviews that are valid to those who hold them, and nobody can claim that a particular worldview is the absolute true. Dilthey (1957/1970) argues that worldview translates a person or a culture's answer to certain fundamental questions about the universe, life ideals, and the supreme principles of conduct.

For Pepper (1942/1970), people explain their lives using their daily experience and such explanation served the basis for six world hypotheses or worldviews: Animism, mysticism, formism, mechanism, organism, and contextualism. Pepper (1942/1970) argues that animism and mysticism are not appropriate ways to view the world. He further suggests that formism, mechanism, organism, and contextualism are adequate approaches to understand the world. The formism hypothesis explains world phenomena through categories of similar forms. The mechanism hypothesis is about the causal relationships of events/phenomena. The organicism hypothesis refers to the notion that reality is as complex as human organism. Finally, the contextualism hypothesis implies the idea that events and phenomena must be understood based on context.

Several scales have been developed based on the Pepper's model:

- The World Hypotheses Scale (Fontana, Dowds, & Bethel, 1976),

- The Social Paradigm Belief Inventory (Kramer & Melchior, 1990),
- The Organicism-Mechanism Paradigm Inventory (Germer, Efran, & Overton, 1982).

Stace (1960) developed the mystical worldview model, arguing that people see the world either in a materialistic viewpoint or an ontologically spiritual dimension to reality. In other words, some people believe in a spiritual world as an actual aspect to reality while some other believe that reality is purely material. Hood (1975) operationalized the Stace model through factors such as the unifying quality, the inner subjective quality, and the ego quality. The unifying quality refers to the worldview statement that the world is “One thing” with various interconnected elements. The inner subjective quality is the belief that “nothing is really dead” (Stace, 1960, p. 70). In other words, the world is seen as a living being. The ego quality is the argument that personal ego is not the true essence of the human being, but rather a sense of loss of self toward a transcendence identification (Hood, 1975; Maslow, 1968).

Royce (1964) developed the knowledge of reality theory that involves four epistemological approaches to reality in terms of criterion that people use to determine the truth:

- Authoritarianism: People accept for truth what is endorsed by an authoritative person or doctrine,
- Rationalism: Individuals determine the truth using standard logic criteria,
- Empiricism: People determine the truth through their sensory experience,
- And intuitionism: People accept for truth what they intuitively apprehend.

Apostel (1994) explains that a worldview should include seven elements:

- An ontology or a model of the world that answers questions such as (a) Who we are? (b) How does the world function? (c) How is the world structured?
- An explanation of why the world is the way it is as well as its origin,
- A futurology or an explanation of what will happen in the future,
- An axiology or a determination of what is good and what is evil,
- An epistemology or a theory of knowledge to answer the question of what is true and what is false,
- An etiology or a construct of worldview in terms of theories, models, concepts, guidelines, and values about the world.

As the preceding paragraphs indicate, the philosophical-based worldview theories explain individual's understanding of the world through various approaches of philosophical inquiry that are primary subjective. Although these theories do not constitute the primary frames of reference for this research study, they were underscored to put the concept of worldview under consideration in a broader perspective. In that same context, the following paragraphs will outline the socio-cultural based and personality-based theories.

Socio-cultural-based Worldview Theories

The socio-cultural-based worldview theories concern an interpretative process to understand one's social, cultural, political, and economic reality. The perspective-based worldview theory is one of the classical examples of "socio-cultural- based worldview

theories”. It offers a framework to understand the extent to which a person accepts the inherent assumptions held by a group of people (Hermann, 2004). According to the theory, individual’s worldview combines a science perspective, a religious perspective, and an “other perspective”. The theory further argues that perspectives of the world develop within a cultural environment and is shared by groups of people although there might be some individual variations (Ogunniyi, Jegede, Ogaya, Yandilla, & Oladele, 1995). Similarly, Lakoff and Johnson (1999) indicate that every human group shares their version of justice, fairness, compassion, virtue, freedom, and rights that shape their worldview.

Several black psychologists have developed the Afrocentric worldview theory to address Euro-centered misconceptions about African people and promote better understanding of African worldview (Montgomery, Fine, & James-Myers, 1990; Grills & Longshore, 1996; White, 1970; Nobles, 1986). Scholars argue that people of African descent have different cultural experiences and values that cannot be understood through Eurocentric theories and practices (Akbar, 1996; Nobles, 1986; Hilliard, 1995; Parham, 2002). Studies on the Africentric worldview have particularly investigated the notions of Black self-concept (Allen & Bagozzi, 2001), African self-consciousness (Baldwin & Bell, 1985), and racial and cultural identity (Cross, 1991; Helms, 1986; Cokley, Caldwell, Miller, & Muhammad, 2001). Scales that have been developed to measure the Africentric values and behaviors include, but are not limited to, (a) the Afrocentric Scale (Grills & Longshore, 1996), (b) the African Self-Consciousness Scale (Baldwin & Bell, 1985) (c) and the Belief System Analysis Scale (Montgomery, Fine, & James-Myers, 1990).

Kluckhon's value orientations model explains that worldview represents a culture or an individual's answer to questions in six basic human experience's orientation:

- Human nature orientation: What is the character of innate human nature?
- Mutability orientation: Is human nature mutable or immutable?
- Man-nature orientation: Do people live in harmony with nature or to master it?
- Time-orientation: Is it more important to focus on considerations regarding the past, or the present, or the future?
- Activity orientation: Is it more appropriate to get involved in personality-related, self-related, or achievement/reward related activities?
- Relational orientation: Is it better to get involved in hierarchical, collegiates, or individualistic relationships? (Kluckhon, 1950; Kluckhon and Strodtbeck, 1961/1973).

The Kluckhon's model has inspired several studies in multicultural education (Kluckhon, 1967), social work (Trevino, 1996), family therapy (Papajohn & Spiegel, 1975) as well as some worldview assessment scales:

- The Value Orientation Scale (Szapocznik, Scopetta, Aranalde & Kurtines, 1978),
- The Scale to Assess World View (Ibrahim & Kahn, 1984),
- And the Value Orientation Questionnaire (Green & Haynes, 1973).

Many scholars agree that the formation of worldview results from various social interactions (Myers, 1984; Goldhaber, 2000). Shutz and Luckmann (1973) argue that a person's worldview is made up of ideas and beliefs that have deeply formed in the mind from earliest childhood through various cultural means. In research on child-rearing

practices of aborigine people, Kearins (1984) found that children acquire their worldview through the social and cultural values and practices of their mother. Thus, worldview involves not only an understanding of self, the universe, and interrelations with others (Redfield, 1952; Dundes, 1969; Geertz, 1977), but also a holistic implication with respect to human interactions in organizations and institutions (Dutton, Dukerish, & Harquail, 1994). Elchardus (1998) found that people without a religious or philosophical worldview are more likely to feel a sense of insecurity and distrust. Likewise, Myers' research on life satisfaction revealed that having a worldview provides to an individual a sense of belonging to a larger whole, a meaning to life, a feeling of hope and trust, thus contributes to increase one's well being (Myers, 1993).

Personality-based Worldview Theories

The personality-based worldview theories approach the concept of worldview through the beliefs, ideas, knowledge, and assumptions that exist in the mind of the individual and that are inseparable part of one's behavior and decision –making process.

According to Kearney (1984) there is a set of seven universal logical structural categories that shape an individual's worldview: self, the other, classification, relationships, causality, space, and time.

Rokeah (1973) identified three types of beliefs related to an individual worldview: descriptive or existential, evaluative, and prescriptive or proscriptive beliefs. The existential belief describes statement about what people assume exist in the world as well as the nature of what can be known. For example, some people believe that there is a God

who cares for them while some others believe that the truth can be known through scientific research. The evaluative beliefs include statements of judgment about behavior, events, or entities in the world. For example, some people have clear cut beliefs of what is good and what is bad. The prescriptive beliefs are assumptions about desirable and undesirable means or ends about events in the world. For example, some people believe they should have the power to destroy anything they consider as evil in the world.

Sue (1978) developed the fourfold model of locus control and locus of responsibility. Locus control refers to the extent to which an individual perceives that some actions of his/her own culture result from either an external control (chance, fate, luck) or internal control (one's behavior). Locus of responsibility implies "the degree of responsibility or blame placed on the individual or system" (Sue, 1978, p. 420).

Wrightsmann (1964/1974/1992) developed the theory of human nature, which includes six dimensions:

- Trustworthiness (belief that people are trustworthy, moral and responsible) versus untrustworthiness (belief that people are untrustworthy, immoral and irresponsible),
- Strength of will and rationality (people can control their power through rationality) versus lack of willpower and irrationality (people lack self-determination and act irrationally),
- Altruism (people are unselfish) versus selfishness (people are self-centered),
- And Independence (people can resist against group pressure) versus conformity to group pressure (people give in to group and societal pressures).

According to Kelly (1955) people use certain patterns through which they construe the world and represent the universe, which can be approached through psychological processes that influence individual's anticipation of future events. Furthermore, Kelly (1955) argues that individuals differ from one another in their worldview. This phenomenon is designated as individuality corollary. Their perception involves levels of abstraction about any given worldview that is unique to them. This is identified as organization corollary. Also, they have a finite number of dichotomous construct, which is called dichotomy corollary. Subsequent studies have supported Kelly's approach (Neimeyer, 1985).

Lerner (1980) formulated the hypothesis of "just world", arguing that "individuals have a need to believe that they live in a world where people generally get what they deserve" (p. 1030). According to Lerner and Miller (1978), people believe in the justness of the world. Although some scholars agree that the belief in a just world is an important aspect of worldview, they argue that this assumption is insufficient (Furnham, 1993; Hong, 1997; Hunt, 2000). Furnham and Proctor (1989) argue that people believe in a "just", "unjust", and "random" dimension of the world. They also indicate that such three dimensions of worldview play independently depending on whether one considers the personal, interpersonal, or political aspect of life.

Maslow (1970b) developed the "world outlook" theory on the foundations of his needs' hierarchy theory. Maslow (1970b) indicates that each stage of the needs' hierarchy on an individual can be linked to a distinctive meaning for life or worldview. Maslow (1969) argues that when some people reach the level of self-actualization (the ultimate

level of need) in their life, they experience a level of self-transcendence, and seek to develop relationships with the divine through a transpersonal or mystical experience, which may be related to facets of one's behavior.

Worldview and Behavior

According to Strauss (2005), "worldview is a person's fundamental assumptions about how the world is put together and his or her role in it." He further argues that worldview affects how people view themselves, others, and the world; and also guides one's behavior, and serves as emotional safety net for people. Several studies in terror management theory confirm that worldview can influence individual behavior, and such influence can particularly inspire violence (Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1997). Simon, Arndt, Greenberg, Pyszczynski, and Solomon (1998) found that people's will to defend their culturally supported worldview increases when they are reminded about mortality. Lieberman, Arndt, Personius, & Cook (2001) suggest that people who feel that the presence of others threatens their worldview may be motivated to commit violence against the "threateners". Also, studies in science-related careers (Costa, 1995), attitude toward music and counseling (Ortiz & Johnson, 1991), and in alcohol treatment (Fontana, Dowds, & Bethel, 1976) found that worldview affects the behavior and attitudes of individuals.

Worldview, Ethnocentrism, and Global-mindedness

As previously indicated, worldview is learned through socialization and social interactions (Olsen, Lodwick, & Dunlap, 1992) and affects individual behavior through various attitudes reflecting ethnocentrism or world-mindedness or global mindedness.

Ethnocentrism refers to worldviews that are narrow, centered on a specific, exclusive, and discriminatory perspective of human existence and most aspect of social life (Schwartz & Conley, 2000). Lusting and Koster (1999) explain that ethnocentrism is a learned belief of cultural superiority that tends to highlight and exaggerate cultural differences and discriminate against people based on the group to which they belong. Consequently, ethnocentrism can foster stereotyping (Lippman, 1922; Brewer, 1996), prejudice (Allport, 1954), discrimination (Van Dijk, 1987), and racism (Katz & Taylor, 1988).

Sampson and Smith (1957) contend that world-mindedness is a worldview concerning a positive appreciation of the problems of humanity or human kind without regard to nationality as a primary factor of reference. Sampson and Smith (1957) developed the world-mindedness scale to assess individual's worldview based on their attitudes toward religion, immigration, government, economics, patriotism, race, education, and war. Critiques argue that the world-mindedness scale is outdated because it includes statements about racial prejudices that could be considered offensive today (Corcoran & Fisher, 1987).

Global-mindedness is to a large extent the anti-thesis of ethnocentrism. Hett (1993) defines global-mindedness as

A worldview in which one sees oneself as connected to the world community and feels a sense of responsibility for its members. This commitment is reflected in an individual's attitudes, beliefs and behaviors (p.23).

Also, as a worldview, global-mindedness provides an ongoing ability for intercultural communication, intercultural sensitivity, open-minded reflection, critical analysis, and the creation of new meanings from cross-cultural experiences. Hett (1993) argues that global mindedness encompasses five dimensions: (a) responsibility, (b) cultural pluralism, (c) efficacy, (d) globalcentrism, (e) and interconnectedness. According to Hett (1993), *responsibility* refers to a deep personal concern about improved conditions for people around the world. *Cultural pluralism* implies a sense of appreciation, respect, and value of cultural diversity. *Efficacy* is the belief that individual's involvement in national and international issues can make a difference. *Global centrism* is related to one's willingness to make judgments that are not ethnocentric, but on the basis of what is in the best interest of humanity. Finally, *interconnectedness* means a sense of global belonging inherent to the interrelatedness of all nations and people. Given the fact that the implementation of global education initiatives involves the integration of global dimensions in curriculum, instruction, research, and services functions in institutions of higher education, such global mindedness dimensions of worldview may be related or associated with the favorable or unfavorable orientation toward global education.

Worldview and Perception of Global Education Initiatives of U.S. College Professors

Anthropologists agree that some philosophical and conceptual framework of beliefs and assumptions of the world serve as guiding principles for individuals in every society (Malinowski, 1922; Tax, 1941; Redfield, 1952; Kearney, 1975; Gertz, 1977; Goldhaber, 2000). However, researchers tend to have different understandings of the notion of world view as either a concept or a field of study (Kearney, 1984). Many researchers focus on the concept of world view as rather related to religious beliefs and rituals (Kiernan, 1981) and implicit understanding of self, the universe, and interrelations with others (Redfield, 1952; Dundes, 1969; Geertz, 1977), based on various socio-historical contexts, which make individuals active meaning makers of their social interactions (Myers, 1984; Goldhaber, 2000). Although some may address the term worldview in terms of either western or indigenous perspective (Baldwin & Hopkins, 1990), research, theories, and practices seem suggest a multidimensional approach (Graham, 1999; Koltko-Rivera, 2000), which acknowledges a holistic view of human interactions in organizations and institutions (Dutton, Dukerish, & Harquail, 1994).

Few studies have been conducted on the worldview of college professors in the United States. Goodwin and Natch (1983) assert that some U.S. college professors believe that their teaching and research should focus on the social and intellectual development of students in a way that enable them to address domestic issues, and not global problems. Cleveland-Jones, Emes, and Ellard (2001) found that some U.S. college professors claim that internationalization in higher education is a consumer-oriented approach that is not in alignment with the traditional role of a curriculum in terms of core

knowledge that must be transmitted. Bond (2003) and Ellingboe (1998) contend that some U.S. college professors indicate they do not see the benefits of a global perspective in teaching, research, and services. Green and Olson (2003) reported that some U.S. college professors do not value the insertion on global perspective into their teaching and research because such endeavor challenges their personal worldview. It is evident that world view can be a contributing variable or factor to a college professor decision making process to accept or resist to global education initiatives. However, because of the lack of extensive studies in the literature, additional research is needed to assess the extent of the relationship between a U.S. college professor worldview dimensions and their perceptions of global education initiatives.

Summary

This section on worldview explored the philosophical-based, socio-cultural-based, and personality-based worldview theories. It further underscored the effect of worldview on individual perception and attitude. Then, worldview was considered based on its dimensions of global mindedness and possible relationship with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. The literature review revealed that few studies have been conducted on the relationship between U.S. college professor worldview and their perceptions of global education initiatives. Review of existing literature did not provide enough ground for generalization of findings of studies on college professors' worldview and their perceptions of global education initiatives. This stresses the importance of a study that can explore whether trends emerged with respect

to the relationship between U.S. college professor's worldview and their orientation toward global education initiatives. Dimensions of worldview of U.S. college professors will also be analyzed in association with intrinsic and extrinsic facets of motivation in terms of possible correlation or association with their perceptions of global education initiatives.

Global Education Initiatives

Global education initiatives reflect the growing pressure around the world on education systems to produce global competent citizens and workers who can respond to the challenges of competitiveness in the global economy rooted in globalism and globalization.

Globalism

Over the past decades, the growth of global trade has been very significant in reshaping the networks of production through new geographic maps, facilitating the emergence of new distribution networks, creating transnational capitalist structures that alter global governance, and providing the notion of global competence, which became a major challenge for competitiveness. Advances in technology have changed practices in communication, travel, business, science and medicine across borders. "The consensus among economists is that globalization has had and can be expected to continue to have, at the aggregate level, a favorable effect on income, prices, consumer choice, competition, and innovation in the United States" (Karoly & Panis, 2004).

Obviously, the period of difficulty that the American economy has experienced particularly with offshore outsourcing has inspired many concerns about the issues of global competence of the graduates from American schools (Korbel & Halder, 2002; ACE, 2000). On the other hand, the critics have mounted about the ability of the current U.S. education policy to produce competitive human capital for the global market (Blair, Phinney, & Phillippe, 2001; Rosenfeld, 2000).

Globalism has become a very popular word in today society (Siaya, Porcelli, & Green, 2002). Obviously this is a controversial concept that some people see through a positive lens (Wheatley, 2001), and some others to a negative lens (Bhatti, 2009). However, globalism cannot be seen in terms of positive or negative, because throughout modern human history there have always been relations, interrelations, and interconnections between countries, societies, people, cultures, economies, and politics (Friedman, 2005; Roudometf, 2000).

Globalism is different from globalization. While globalism explains our reality of being interconnected, globalization captures the degree of decline or increase of globalism in the world (Mittleman, 2002). Sklair (1991) identified several globalization theories such as the imperialist and neo-imperialist (struggle for new markets of expansion of political, cultural, and economic influences among the major powers), the modernization and neo-evolutionist (traditions of underdeveloped societies are considered as constraints that hinder modernization), the neo-Marxist (Center-periphery relationships foster under-development), the world system theories (argues for a new

international division of labor), and the mode of production theory (factors of underdevelopment lie within the underdeveloped societies).

Globalism has taken many dimensions throughout history. The first dimension of globalism refers to economic transactions among people, culture, and societies. World economy is based on flow of production of goods, services, market networks, and capital that go beyond the control of any geographic border (Gleazer, 1993; Lister, 2000; Giddens, 1990).

Also, there is a political dimension of globalism, which has shrunk the geopolitical distance between nation-states (White, 2001). The tragic events of September 11, 2001, in the United States had uncovered the reality of global terrorism and the reality of global interconnections of political decisions and activities.

In addition, social and cultural exchanges have become less expensive, faster, and without systemic control of any specific government, despite attempts and efforts of regulations. The invention of the World Wide Web has opened a new era in social and cultural interconnections in the world (Modelski, 2000; Held & McGrew, 2000).

New evolvments in globalism have significantly changed the reality of the world. Many rules that used to regulate relations between countries become useless because of evolvments in globalism (Friedman, 2005). For example, in the past, raw materials for the industrial companies used to come mainly from developing countries through a periphery-center and center-periphery approach. Today it is different. The cars that we are driving for example contain parts or inputs that come from various industrialized and developing countries, through a transnational assembly line approach

(Sklair, 2002). Unlike 20 years ago, people can transfer money using one click on a computer. Using a global platform, people can do all kinds of trade transactions, which would have required lots of time, energy, and compliance to complicated regulations that they no longer need. The meanings of time, distance, market, culture, competence, and partnership are different than what they were 20 years ago. There are skills that are no longer an asset for competitiveness. There are new skills that become prerequisites for competitiveness (Siaya & Green, 2002; Castells, 1996) due to new relations of interconnectedness and interdependence in politics, society, economy, and culture called “globalization”.

Globalization

According to the world system theory, the world exists as cultural, political, and economical structures in which nation-states, governments, institutions, and people have to adapt to its characteristics and global evolvments (Bergesen, 1991). Cottak (2002) saw globalization as the “accelerating interdependence of nations in a world system linked economically and through mass media and modern transportation systems.” Lechner and Boli (2008) believe that “globalization refers to the fact that more people across large distances become connected in more and different ways.” Globalization has occurred in:

- Politics: The end of exclusive national sovereignty through independence beyond borders (Robertson, 1992),

- Economy: The elimination of physical borders through free market (Waters, 1995),

- Culture: The end of cultural exclusivist through multiculturalism (O'Meara, Mehlinger, & Newman, 2001),

- And Society: The end of national social class structures replaced by transnational classes (Sklair, 2002).

Globalization is a systemic phenomenon that goes beyond the mobilization of worldwide labor and resources. Sklair (2002) explains the global system through the emergence of transnational practices in the light of the capitalist ideology to create products and services that can be marketed across state borders regardless of the origins and their qualities. Transnational practices have created transnational capitalist class, not in the traditional Marxist sense, but through transnational executives (corporate fraction), inter-state bureaucrats and politicians (state fraction), globalizing professionals (technical fraction), and merchants and media (consumerist fraction). Transnational economic enterprises and borderless organizations constitute the master brain that shaped the economic landscape of the global village and the driver that determined and continues to determine the profile of political, social, and cultural events all over the world (Giddens, 1990).

Globalization is characterized by the explosion of national boundaries, unprecedented expansion in technology and rapid development in all areas, an ever increasing availability of information, a greater interdependence of world economies, a complex mobility of world population, and an interconnectivity of the global

environment (Dauphinais & Price, 1998; Connor, 1998; Black, Morrison, & Gregersen, 1999). It is important to underscore that the expression of globalization through neo-liberalism has significantly contributed to the impoverishment of many young people in developing nations. Wade (2004), for example, has explained that the inequality of world income distribution has rapidly increased, and contributed to make the poor poorer while the rich are becoming, ___ more than ever before___, richer. On the other hand, Cox (1996) argued that globalization is another form of imperialism, which reduces the regulatory power of the states.

Globalization contributes to worldwide knowledge explosion, particularly through the use of technology (Rosen, Digh, Singer, & Phillips, 2000). And, globalization has serious implications for institutions of higher education in the world and in the United States, given its foundations on knowledge and intensive information and innovation (Carnoy, 2002; Wenger, 2002; Zhao, 2002). This has increased the pressure on higher education institutions to graduate global competent leaders, managers, and workers (Daun, 2002). According to Bate (2002), higher education institutions face some globalization related challenges that they will be able to overcome depending on whether they can provide their graduates skills needed to be global competent, offer a global curriculum, develop and appropriate technologically mediated pedagogy, develop global performance standards, and possess a management system that can help satisfy the demand for global competitiveness.

The education of the global workforce must be understood in the context of neo-liberal education transactions between the academic priorities of intellectuals from

developing countries and the economic opportunities offered by elite dominant nations, especially the United States (Wallerstein, 2004). The new reality of globalization has transformed the meaning of education into an entrepreneurial endeavor (Morrow & Torres, 2000; Eaton, 2001). Globalization was able to free itself from social constraints and define education primarily in terms of economic assets, and an almost unavoidable path for financial success. As in any capitalist terrain, competition has integrated and controlled neo-liberal education reforms and raised the bars for financial rewards through education (Eaton, 2001).

Globalization and Global Competence

For the past decades, many concerns have been raised about the adequacy of American schools to meet the challenges of the 21st century global competition. This implies the notion of global competence of graduate from American schools. Obviously, global competence involves knowledge, attitudes, and skills that are compatible with the new reality of globalization (Green & Olson, 2003). Several studies have questioned the performance of American students comparing to those of other industrialized countries (Cummings, 2001). A filmmaker has provided a controversial documentary titled “2 Million Minutes”, in which he indicated that students in India and China schools that he visited were “two and three years ahead” of students in American schools. He expressed personal concerns for her daughters’ competitiveness abilities in the global market (Sescu, 2008). Well designed scientific studies indicated that science and math achievement of U.S. students are far behind their counterparts in Singapore, Taiwan,

South Korea, Hong Kong, and Japan (Dillon, 2007). The attempts to increasing the level of accountability of the school system, using alternative teaching methods, and improving the remuneration system do not seem to provide the expected results (Korbel & Halder, 2002).

Most people agree that students should be internationally aware and knowledgeable, because globalization has transformed the world into a global village (Green & Olson, 2005). Caligiuri and Di Santo (2001) indicate that the availability of global competent managers is essential to the future success of multinational companies. Some global companies have developed various strategies such as short-term assignments (Forster, 2000) and expatriation (Brake, 1997) as means to develop global competent managers. One of the reasons for such strategies is that being a global manager means having a global competent mindset, which is a state of readiness to engage and interact with others from their own perspective (Rhinesmith, 1996).

Global competence is an “appreciation of other cultures and the ability to interact with people from foreign lands. It is the ability to become familiar with an environment, not causing a rift while experiencing something new, and reflection upon the experience at its completion” (Curran, 2003, p.10). Deardoff (2004) argues, global competence implies the ability to communicate and interact effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on an individual’s cross-cultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes, which can be acquired through study abroad programs and international education. In fact, the quest for global competence has been primarily materialized through various initiatives of international education.

International Education and Internationalizing in Higher Education

International education started in the United States as a means to teach the postwar Europe devastated by World War I and expand the influence of the U.S. in the world (Gillespie, 2001). Mestenhauser (1997) identified four evolutionary phase of international education in the U.S. after World War II:

- The “euphoria” stage, which aimed at preventing future wars,
- The golden era, characterized by foreign aid to fill the knowledge gap of developing countries,
- The power politics stage, which consisted of international education effort to expand and consolidate the political influence of the U.S. during the cold war,
- And the competitiveness stage, dealing with the demand for education in a global interdependent world.

Merkx (2003) suggests that the evolution of international education in the U.S was particularly influenced by foreign aid, study abroad programs, foreign student enrollments, and international studies. The 1995 agenda of the Commission on International Education of the American Council on Education outlined ten rules for the promotion and implementation of international education initiatives:

- Development of competence in at least one foreign language by all graduates,
- Understanding of at least one foreign culture,
- Understanding of the global systems,
- Revision of curriculum with respect to international understanding,
- Expansion of study abroad and internship opportunities for all students,

- Faculty development and rewards,
- Assessment of organizational needs for international education,
- Development of partnership to improve capabilities,
- Inter-institutional cooperation,
- Partnership with local schools and communities (ACE, 1995).

Later, in 2002, the ACE developed a policy paper that called for even greater international perspectives and experience into the teaching-learning process (ACE, 2005).

Knight and de Wit (1997) suggest four major reasons for internationalization in higher education:

- Preservation of national identity (political reason),
- The influence of a globalized labor market (economic reason),
- The need for quality education (academic reason),
- And the need to produce global competent graduates (cultural and social reasons).

Knight (2005) believes that the internationalization of higher education starts with the integration of international, cultural, or global dimensions in postsecondary education. Such dimensions involve not only teaching and learning activities, but also curriculum, research, and other education related service delivery.

Several scholars have provided systemic rationale to internationalize higher education. According to Scott (2005), the need for global education is dictated by economic, environmental, cultural, and political imperatives that influence international relations and trade, multicultural understanding, global security, peaceful relations among

nations, and democracy in the world. Other authors like Aigner, Nelson, and Stimphil (1992) seem corroborate with the rationale of Scott. They believe that the challenges of international security, economic competitiveness, and human understanding across nations justify the internationalizing of higher education.

Qiang (2003) identified four approaches to internationalizing of higher education:

- The activity approach, which has its roots in the 1970s and early 1980s initiatives of international education, and consists of activities such as recruitment of international students, student/faculty exchange programs, and technical assistance from one institution to another;

- The competency approach, which aims to develop international competency for students and faculty through the development of internationalized curricula and programs;

- The ethos approach, which promotes the development of an organizational or institutional climate that nurtures intercultural , multicultural, or global sensitivity, which is considered as indispensable for the international dimension of higher education;

- And the process approach, which focuses on the sustainability of international education through a process that encompasses not only teaching and research, but also policies and procedures that are internationally, inter-culturally, or globally grounded.

McCarthy (2007) has drawn a roadmap to internationalizing in higher education by outlining factors that contributed to successful endeavors of internationalizing higher education. McCarthy contends that internationalizing of higher education implies the creation of a learning environment. He argues that a bold vision must be articulated to

creating a global campus. He also believes that it is not enough for a college or a university to have a bold vision. The institution needs to be able to sustain the vision, given the fact that there may be moments of up and down. By sustaining the vision, McCarthy means a strong commitment to achieve such vision. In addition, McCarthy believes that creating a global campus requires that an institution allocates appropriate financial and human resources to this end (McCarthy, 2007).

Like McCarthy, Green (2002) identified some academic and organizational elements to internationalize higher education such as academic graduation requirements (e.g. foreign language graduation requirements), curriculum that encompasses courses with an international focus, searching and obtaining funding for international education, increased international cultural awareness of students and faculty, and study abroad programs.

Brief, scholars agree that internationalizing in higher education is a process of academic and organizational activities that combines a wide range of elements such as policy statement, integrative global strategic plans, internationalized curriculum, recruiting/hosting international students, student/faculty exchanges, research collaboration and partnership with cross-national academic institutions, and establishment of branch campuses abroad (Francis, 1993; Altbach, 2002; Lefrere, 2007).

Some scholars have particularly emphasized the critical role of internationalized curricula when internationalizing higher education. According to Wende and Westerheijden (2001), internationalized curricula are global oriented in their content and structure and aim to train students who can perform professionally in both national and

multinational contexts. McKellin (1995) points out that internationalized curricula involve the incorporation of an international and comparative in the preparation of global competent citizens. Peters (1998) explains that an internationalized curriculum provides an international perspective about a world that is interdependent, multicultural, and where differences can co-exist.

According to Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (1998), an internationalized university includes globally active faculty members and maintains collaborative international linkages that involve students, faculty, and staff, in an effort to promote systemic thinking, intercultural communication, and produce new knowledge.

Internationalization of higher education institutions faces serious challenges and resistances. Among the factors of resistance to international education, Ellingboe (1998) cites cognitive component, lack of incentive ingredients, financial factors, institutional dilemmas, disciplinary directions, public perception syndrome, further orientation fear, collaboration, and Ph.D. Preparation. Henson, Noel, Gillard-Byers, and Ingle (1990) believe that the main factors influencing internationalization in higher education are leadership and management, organization, resources (financial and human), program activities, and external environment, which includes global awareness. Andreasen (2003) argues that international involvement of faculty members is a major challenge that can be both external (lack of international support, tenure track position, lack of opportunity, involvement in current research activities) and internal (fear of different culture, prejudices, cultural biases, lack of personal motivation).

Ellingboe (1998) and Green & Olson (2003) suggest that internationalization of higher education must involve leadership and administration, provide resource for internationalization and program development, provide faculty members with opportunities for international teaching and research experiences, offer study abroad opportunities and student exchanges, involve global faculty and scholars, facilitate the integration of international students, internationalize students affairs and other units, and conduct international outreach activities. The key to international education toward the production of global competent graduates is the implementation of global education initiatives.

Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives

There is a relatively broad agreement that higher education institutions must embrace global education initiatives in a globalized world (Brademas, 1987; Ellenboe, 1999; Hayward, 2000). Both the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC) and the American Council on Education (ACE) acknowledge that the U.S. colleges and universities must produce global competent students (NASULGC, 2000; ACE, 1998). Some suggest that this can be accomplished through internationalization of higher education (Green & Purser, 2000; Hayward, 2000). It is important to stress that internationalization is different from globalization.

The Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (2000) defines globalization in terms of the flow of technology, economy, knowledge, people, values, and ideas that affect nations across borders based on their traditions, history, culture, and

priorities. According to Krane (1994), internationalization is an “intellectual, experiential, dynamic, and interactive process of internationalizing new world views, resulting in new ideas, attitudes, and behavior toward the world as a whole or its components, including the learner’s own cultural milieu” (p.21). The International Association of Universities (1997) defines globalization as the “homogenization of social, economic, cultural and academic process and the marginalization of peripheral cultural and other social processes” (p.1) whereas, internationalization is seen as the “participatory intervention among the equal partners” (p.1). The Organization for Economic and Development (2000) synthesizes that globalization is a catalyst of world interdependence and interconnectiveness while internationalization is the related proactive response. In other words, globalization affects higher education institutions as external social, political, economic, and cultural factors. On the other hand, internationalization refers to internal institutional global education initiatives with respect to vision, structures, policies, resources allocation, and curricula, which will enable to be proactive in response to the challenges of globalization (International Association of Universities, 1997; Sreberny-Mohammadi, 1996).

Mahlstedt (2003) defines global education as an education that “seeks to push students to expand their understanding of/and personal identification with geopolitical paradigms beyond the nation state. In doing so, it necessarily encourages some level of engagement with normative universal values, while simultaneously engages our relativistic differences” (p.6). Schechter (1993) argues that global education should aim to achieve pragmatic (global knowledge and skills), liberal (intercultural competence),

and civic (global citizenry) goals, which enables one to be highly competitive in the global market economy. Consequently, Schoorman (1999) advises that higher education institutions should emphasize on teaching critical thinking skills as well as providing students the tools that can allow them to have global perspective on human problems.

According to Green and Olson (2003), global education initiatives in higher education require institutional transformation that changes the organizational culture of a higher education institution. They argue that an institution must envision producing global competent graduates through an audit of its progress toward internationalization and comprehensive plan to achieve a successful internationalization. Ellingboe (2001) identified six stages of organizational transformation with respect to internationalization in higher education. The first two stages are (a) indifference to internationalization and (b) resistance from faculty, staff, and administration. The next stages are (c) policy formation and planning, (d) resource allocation and university communication, (e) implementation, (f) and integration.

Headrick (2003) conducted a qualitative study concerning the barriers and challenges to the implementation of global education at four community colleges in the Midwest. The study revealed that there are three internal and two external barriers associated with the implementation of global education initiatives. The internal barriers include prioritization for global education, institutional support for global education, and funding for global education. The external barriers are the regional geographic location of the colleges and community involvement. Consequently, Headrick (2003) suggests that global education initiatives be implemented through (a) institutional support, (b)

curriculum, (c) international experience, and (d) campus and community activities. It is important to underscore that the sample of this qualitative study included 12 participants from four community colleges. Therefore, the findings must be understood in the context of its questionable representativeness of the sample and limited validity.

According to Blair, Phinney, and Phillipe (2001), the concept global education initiatives refers to programs and activities that enable to increase global awareness in an institution of higher education and help produce graduates that can successfully integrate a multicultural, interdependent, and interconnected world. Blair, Phinney, and Phillipe (2001) argue that global education initiatives occur in four major areas: (a) institutional support, (b) internationalizing curriculum, (c) providing campus and community activities designed to increase global awareness, (d) and facilitating person-to-person international experiences and cooperation.

By *institutional support*, Blair, Phinney, and Phillipe (2001) mean:

- Inclusion of global education in an institution mission statement;
- Creating organizational structures to support global education initiatives;
- Providing support and incentives to encourage global education initiatives;
- Obtaining institutional membership in international education consortia and associations;
- Allocating resources to faculty for curriculum development, exchanges, and activities;
- Identifying funding and increasing external fundings;
- Developing a comprehensive global education program.

By *internationalizing the curriculum*, they imply:

- Offering foreign language courses;
- Making mandatory the study of a course with global/international focus;
- Revising existing courses with respect to intercultural aspects;
- Inclusion of global contents across the curriculum;
- Creating new courses with international/intercultural focus;
- And include courses with an international/intercultural focus in general

education requirements.

With respect to *campus and community activities to increase global awareness*, they include:

- Organizing faculty workshop in global awareness, internationalizing the curriculum;
- Organizing brown bag lunches, providing forums for students, staff, and faculties to share their experiences regarding conference attendance, exchanges, travel, and special study;
- Organizing ethnic, multicultural, and international extracurricular activities;
- Sponsoring community forum on global issues;
- Developing collaboration with international clubs or organizations;
- And providing global competency staff development experience for all employees.

Finally, they envision *international experience and cooperation* in terms of:

- Developing a comprehensive program for international students' recruitment;
- Organizing study abroad and exchange opportunities for faculty, administrators, and students;
- Establishing partnerships with sister-institutions in other countries;
- Providing support for faculty to travel to international conferences and meetings;
- And recruiting international administrators, faculties, and students.

Green and Olson (2003) recognize that to contribute to internationalizing the curriculum, faculty members not only need knowledge, skills, and attitudes, but also institutional support such as financial resources to conduct cross-national research, sufficient time to revise and modify courses and curricula, and material/logistic resources. The lack of such support can make faculty members become very resistant to collaborate in internationalizing the curriculum. Bond (2003), and Johnston and Edelstein (1993) found that some faculty resist to global education initiatives because they are not convinced about the benefits for their teaching, research, and service with respect to tenure and institutional promotion policies (Backman, 1981; Siaya & Hayward, 2003). They not only lack motivation (Bond, 2003), but also they do not have financial incentive (Engberg & Green, 2002; Steers & Ungsen, 1992) and the institutional, departmental, or disciplinary focus that could contribute to motivate them (Maidstone, 1996; Ellingboe, 1998; Knight, 1994; Welsh, 1997).

Korbel and Halder (2002) found that lack of faculty interest was perceived as a strong obstacle to global education initiatives. Several other studies have mentioned faculty resistance to global education initiatives as a serious challenge (Emerson and Newsom, 1995; Fifield, 1998; Barnhardt, 1997; Rasch, 2001). Johnson and Inoue (2003) found that despite their openness and willingness to embrace diversity and multiculturalism, many faculties are struggling to incorporate them into their teaching.

Given the role of faculty members in curriculum development and implementation, teaching, research, and services, their engagement or at least their acceptance of global education initiatives is critical, particularly in regard to internationalizing the curriculum (Carter, 1992; Goodwin & Natcht, 1983; Ellingboe, 1998; Mestenhauser, 2002; Bond, 2003). Leask (2005) proposes to internationalizing the curriculum through (a) internationalized student learning outcomes in cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains, (b) internationalized content with respect to international/international focus, (c) international teaching and learning activities, (d) and internationalized assessment methods. These initiatives cannot be implemented without the faculty members. As Otten (2003) and Morey (2000) argue, faculty engagement is critical for the implementation of global education initiatives. Stohl (2007) contends that a college or university cannot implement global education initiatives without the interest and commitment of faculty.

Genelin (2005) conducted a study on technical college administrator and faculty perceived levels of importance of global education initiatives at U.S two-year colleges. The study revealed that faculty and administrators at community colleges do not perceive

global education as of great importance. However, the level of significance was higher for general education faculty members. Part of barriers included lack of money, the fact that global education was not part of the mission of the college, and lack of time within the curriculum. In fact, Maidstone (1996) indicated that “faculty cannot develop and teach an internationalized curriculum if they are not themselves internationalized “(p.59). Bell (2004) and Morey (2000) found that some disciplines (social sciences and humanities) tend to embrace intercultural teaching and learning more readily than fields included in the physical and applied science.

As previous paragraphs argued, global education refers to the cultivation of a perspective of the cultural, social, economic, political, and environmental phenomena of the world in terms of interconnections among people, cultures, and societies, and an understanding of how global affairs affect individuals across national borders (Alger and Harf, 1985; Kenneth, 2003; Ramler, 1991). Global education is seen as a movement (Muessig & Gilliom, 1981), a decision making tool (Alger & Harf, 1985) that no country with international leadership agenda can afford to bypass (Brademas, 1987), not only because of the interdependence of nations and people (Manjula, 1981; Ward, 1982), but also and especially because global education has become more and more a prerequisite to compete effectively in the global market (Groennings, 1986). Many American colleges and universities are becoming significantly involved in global education activities and services (Hser, 2005; Altbach, 2006). However, there is no agreement in terms of the level of faculty acceptance of global education goals, since some studies report about strong faculty engagement in global education (Samaan, 2005, Karmouch, 2005) while

some other studies suggest resistance of faculty to accept global education (Bond, 2003). Thus, it is yet to clarify the extent of the relationships of faculty perceptions of global education initiatives, their motivational factors and their world view dimensions.

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework that evolved this research study is shown in figure 3. The variables were selected based on the review of literature on motivation, worldview, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. Motivation is inspired from the Herzberg's two-factor theory. The Herzberg's theory provides a framework to analyze both intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors related to global education initiatives as well as combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation. Worldview encompasses global-mindedness dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, globalcentrism, and interconnectedness (Hett, 1993). The Hett model that will be used in the analysis includes dimensions of worldviews that are more likely to explain a favorable or unfavorable orientation toward global education initiatives. The concept perceptions of global education initiatives refers to institutional support, internationalizing the curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and person-to-person international experiences and cooperation (Blair, Phinney, & Phillippe, 2001). Consequently, perceptions of global education initiatives were analyzed in various aspects related to institutional support, curriculum, campus and community activities, and international experiences and cooperation.

U.S. college professors play critical and authority roles in curriculum development (Mestenhauser & Ellingboe, 1998), research (Green & Shoenberg, 2006), and international development (Mestenhauser, 2002) in higher education institutions. Therefore, instructional faculty members have the ability to decide whether or not to incorporate global dimensions in curriculum, teaching, research, and services. Paige (2003) contends that faculty members have the ability to direct students toward an “international mindset” or an ethnocentrism in point of view. Bond (2003) argues that faculty engagement is not optional, but essential to have a global or an internationalized university. This study is drawn from the assumption that faculty’s perceptions of global education initiatives might contribute to their engagement or not to incorporating global dimension in curriculum, teaching, research, and services. The literature review revealed that motivational factors and worldview dimensions might be correlated or associated with favorable or unfavorable attitudes of U.S. college professors toward global education initiatives. The model suggests that the interaction among extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors and dimensions of worldview work concurrently with one another to affect U.S. college professors’ perceptions of global education initiatives. Favorable perceptions of global education initiatives are essential for U.S. college professor engagement to integrate global dimensions in curriculum, teaching, research, and service functions of institutions of higher education, which are critical for internationalizing colleges and universities. Existing literature shows that global education initiatives contribute to improve quality in higher education (Horn, Hendel, & Fry, 2007), foster greater student development and learning (de Wit, 2002), attract the

best students and faculty members to globalized colleges and universities (Fisher, 2008), and help meet challenges of competitiveness and economic growth (de Wit, 2002). The recommendations and implications of this study seek to ground the research in its application to faculty motivation and globalization in higher education.

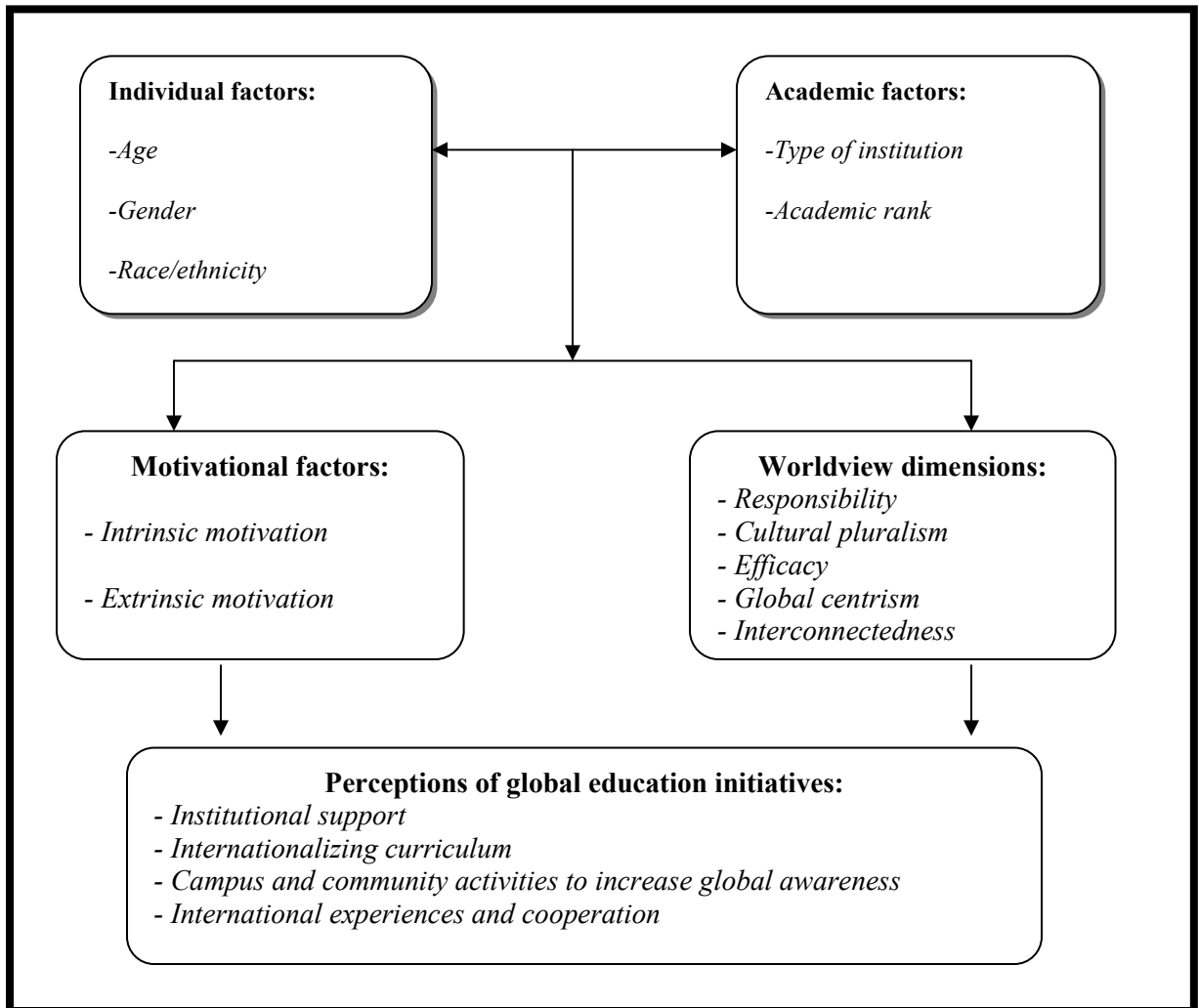


Figure 3. Conceptual Framework.

Motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. Arrows indicate direct effect of variables on perceptions of global education initiatives.

Summary

The literature review chapter outlines the theories, approaches, models, and studies on motivation, worldview, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors as well as the gap and need for additional research. Literature on motivation reveals the existence of content and process theories. Research suggests that U.S. college professors are overall motivated by factors inherent to the status of their profession. However, extrinsic factors can influence their perceptions and attitudes.

The literature review illustrates a lack of research on motivational factors that might be associated with worldview dimensions of U.S. college professors to influence their perceptions of global education initiatives. However, studies show that worldviews influence the behavior of individuals and their decision making process, thus might be a contributing factors in analyzing the perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. Research reveals that while some college professors are very cooperative with respect to supporting global education initiatives, others seem resistant to implementing global education goals. The study investigated the motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives. The findings add to the existing literature on all three major concepts involved in this study (motivation, worldview, and perception of global education) and provide higher education administrators research-based insights in planning decisions regarding the reinforcement of existing global education initiatives or the implementation of new ones.

Chapter Three

Methods

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States. This chapter describes the methods and procedures that were used to conduct the research study. The following paragraphs are description of the research design, the research questions, the population of the study and sample, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis procedures.

Research Design

A correlational research design was used in this study. A correlational research design aims to describe relationship between three or more variables, predict scores on one variable from participants' scores on other variables, or test the relationship proposed by a theoretical proposition (Burns & Grove, 1997). A correlational study can provide insight about the variables or groups of variables that are related. The existence of a correlation is not synonym of that of causal relationships. However, the existence of association among variables concerning a population of study can facilitate decision making concerning the participants. The data gathering was done through a survey process. A survey is used to collect data from a sample or a population in order to

describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of the population under investigation (Creswell, 2003). The survey helped assess possible correlations and linear relationships among motivational factors, world view dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. Self-report measures were obtained from four instruments:

- Faculty Motivational Factor toward Global Education Survey (Appendix A),
- Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993; Appendix B),
- Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005; Appendix C),
- Demographic Questionnaire (DQ; Appendix D).

The following figure 4 illustrates the concepts and variables of the research design:

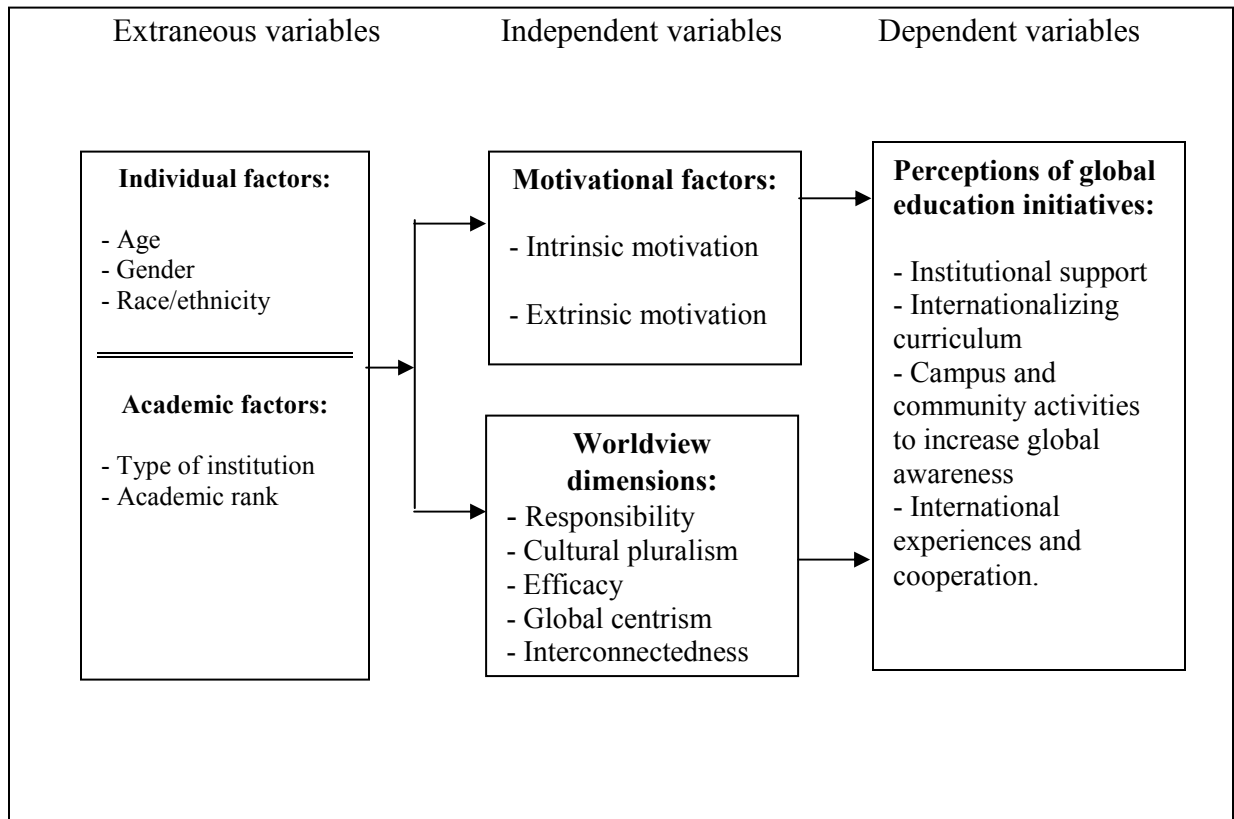


Figure 4. Conceptual model representing relationship among motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education by U.S. college professors.

Research Questions

To investigate the motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States, this study addressed the following questions:

- Q. 1. What are the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

- Q.2. What differences exist in the motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives among assistant-professors, associate professors, and full professors of U.S. colleges and universities?
- Q. 3 What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?
- Q. 4. What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?
- Q. 5. What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?
- Q. 6. What combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Definition of Research Variables

The research study included independent, dependent, and extraneous variables. Fraenkel and Wallen (1993) define independent variable as a variable that affects or is presumed to affect another variable. Independent variables that are not controlled are

called extraneous variables. Variable that is presumably affected by the independent variable is called dependent variable.

The main independent variables for this study are motivational factors and world view dimensions of college professors in the United States. Motivational factors will be assessed by the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey. The instrument assesses intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. Worldview dimensions will be measured by the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), and includes 5 sub-scales (a) responsibility, (b) cultural pluralism, (c) efficacy, (d) global centrism, and (e) interconnectedness.

The dependent variable is perceptions of global education initiatives by college professor in the United States. Perceptions of global education initiatives will be assessed by the Global Education Initiatives scale, which measures the extent to which an academic staff or a faculty in a higher education institution perceives institutional support for global education, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation (Genelin, 2005).

The extraneous variables for this study are:

The individual factors of U.S. college professors with respect to:

- Age,
- Gender,
- Race/ethnicity,

And the academic factors of U.S. college professors with respect to:

- Type of institution,
- Academic rank,

The extraneous variables will be measured through the demographic questionnaire.

Population and Sample

The population of the study is represented by professors (assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor) of colleges and universities in the United States. According to the U.S. Department of Education, in 2005, there were 593,095 instructional faculties, including 169,192 professors, 138,444 associate professors, 159,689 assistant professors, 98,555 instructors, and 27,215 lecturers in the U.S. This does not include non-instructional faculties.

Table 5

Full-Time Instructional Faculty in Degree-Granting Institutions, by Academic Rank: Fall 2005

Academic rank	N	%
Professor	169,192	28%
Associate Professor	138,444	23%
Assistant Professor	159,689	27%
Instructor	98,555	17%
Lecturer	27,215	5%
Total	593,095	100%

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003 and 2005 Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDS), winter 2003–04 and winter 2005–06.

The National Center for Education Statistics reported the existence of more than 4,000 degree-granting institutions, in 2006 - 2007 (U.S., 2007). This includes regionally accredited and non-regionally accredited post-secondary institutions. According to US News and World Report (2008), there are 1,418 regionally accredited colleges and universities in the United States, including 262 national universities (18%), 572 university-masters' (40%), 265 liberal arts colleges (19%), and 319 baccalaureate colleges (23%).

Table 6

Number of Regionally Accredited Four-Year Colleges and Universities in U.S. by Types of Institutions, as Categorized by U.S. News and World Report

Type of institutions	Total	%
National University	262	18%
University-masters'	572	40%
Liberal Arts college	265	19%
Baccalaureate College	319	23%
Total	1418	100%

Source: US News and World Report (http://www.usnews.com/articles/education/best-colleges/2008/08/21/ranking-category-definitions_print.htm)

Participants in this study were selected through a random sampling. With alpha of 0.05, a small effect size of 0.20, and a power of .95, a sample size of 384 participants was retained based on McNemar sample size table

(http://amchang.net/StatTools/SSizMcNemar_Tab.php). The sample size of 384 U.S. college professors was selected from a population of 593,095 full-time instructional faculty members and was confirmed through the Survey System sample size calculator (<http://www.surveysystem.com>), using a confidence level of 95% and a confidence interval of 5. However, to increase the probability of a higher survey response rate, a larger sample of 1400 participants was selected.

First, an excel file listing in alphabetic order all the 1418 accredited institutions ranked on the U.S. News and World Report education ranking website (<http://www.usnews.com>). A total of 18 institutions were excluded because they no longer exist. Therefore, the number of colleges and universities concerned by the study became 1400. Two additional columns were added to include (a) the total number of college professors per institution, (b) and a cumulative frequency of college professors for the 1400 institutions. Then, a random sample of one college professor per institution was selected based on random numbers generated through the SAS software (SAS Student learning edition 4.1). In other words, 1400 U.S. college professors were randomly selected to receive the survey. Additional columns were added to include names, email addresses, and codes related to the randomly selected participants. Selections were made based on professors' names and emails available in each school web site.

It is important to stress that Cook, Heath, and Thompson (2000) conducted a meta-analysis of web survey reports and found that the mean response rate was 40%. Also, there was no correlation between survey length and response rates. Number of

contacts, personalized letters, salience, incentive (negative correlation), and education were found to be significant predictors of response rate. In a research study on 99 web-based surveys, Archer (2007) found that the overall response rate was 48.3%. Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004) conducted a comparative study on a sample of 19,890 students at a U.S. metropolitan university, to assess whether there was significant difference between web and mail survey response rates. The study revealed that

A web survey application achieved a comparable response rate to a mail hard copy questionnaire when both were preceded by an advance mail notification. A reminder mail notification had a positive effect on response rate for the web survey application... (p. 100).

Therefore, the length of the survey and the response rate were not a major concern in this study.

The following were criteria of inclusion in the sample:

- Being an assistant professor, an associate professor or a full professor at a regionally accredited college or university in the United States;
- Being an assistant professor, an associate professor or a full professor at a regionally accredited college or university in the United States, ranked either as national university, university-masters', liberal arts college, or baccalaureate college by the US News and World Report ranking;
- Being willing to participate in the research study.

Instrumentation

Data were collected using four measures: (a) the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES), (b) the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), (c) the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005), and (d) a Demographic Questionnaire (DQ).

a) The Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GE).

To assess U.S. college professor motivational factors toward global education initiatives, items related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation were selected based on their use in previous studies regarding motivation of faculty in higher education institutions. The researcher did not find any existing instrument that is well-suited to assess faculty intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors toward global education initiatives. However, questionnaires developed by Navarro (2004), Schifter (2000), and Parker (2003) contained items useful for this study. The items were selected because of their brevity and relevance for research concerning instructional faculty members in higher education institutions. The approach of adapting items from previous research to assess motivation or behavior has been used in various studies (Schifter, 2000).

To address U.S. college professors' intrinsic motivational factors, five items were adapted from Navarro (2004) questionnaire regarding factors affecting participation of faculty in the internationalization of the undergraduate agricultural curriculum. Participants were asked, "What is the effect (negative or positive) that each of the following could have in the internationalization of the curriculum?" The items used a 1

to 5 Likert response format, ranging from negative, somewhat negative, neutral, somewhat positive, to positive; and included (a) “Your personal interest (or lack thereof),” (b) “Relevance (or lack thereof) to your job,” (c) “Student’s interest (or lack thereof) in internationalized curricula,” (d) “Your international knowledge/expertise (or lack thereof),” and (e) “Your ability (or lack thereof) to develop internationalized curricula (e.g., you may have the necessary international knowledge but are not sure of how to use it effectively in your classes).” Four items adapted from Schifter (2000), using the same 1 to 5 Likert response format, were added to the previous items. The items, (a) “Opportunity to develop new ideas,” (b) “Opportunity to improve my teaching,” (c) “Intellectual challenge,” and (d) “Opportunity for scholarly pursuit.” Another item, using the same 1 to 5 Likert response format, was adapted from Parker (2003), “Opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction.” A total intrinsic motivation score was calculated by adding the points for all the 10 items. Given a response for each item, the lowest possible mean score is 10 and the highest possible mean score is 50. A mean score of 40 or higher indicates high intrinsic motivation. A mean score between 30 and 40 indicates a mild intrinsic motivation. A mean score below 30 indicates low intrinsic motivation.

While instructional faculty members are key to implementation of global education initiatives, including internationalizing the curriculum, studies argue that institutional support is equally essential (Ellingboe, 1997; Hayward, 2000; Knight, 2004). Therefore, faculty extrinsic motivational factors toward global education initiatives are not negligible. To assess U.S. college professors’ extrinsic motivational

factors in relation to global education initiatives, eight items were adapted from Navarro (2004). As a continuation of the ten items related to extrinsic motivation, participants were asked, “What is the effect (negative or positive) that each of the following could have in the internationalization of the curriculum?” The items used a 1 to 5 Likert response format, ranging from negative, somewhat negative, neutral, somewhat positive, to positive; and included (a) “Release time from teaching (or other duties) for you to internationalize your curriculum,” (b) “Development and availability of internationalized instructional materials for you to choose from, adapt, and use in your classes,” (c) “Seminars and workshops to assist you in your curriculum development and internationalization efforts,” (d) “More funds for participation in international programs, sabbaticals, and other related professional development opportunities,” (e) “More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses (e.g., infusion, international subject matter courses),” (f) “More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for off-campus courses (e.g., study abroad, exchange program),” (g) “Including your participation in internationalization efforts in your evaluation processes (salary increases, tenure, promotion),” (h) “More funds to support student participation in internationalized programs.” Two additional items were adapted from Schifter (2000). The items used the same 1 to 5 Likert response format, and included, (a) “Recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair,” and (b) “Expectation by institution that faculty participate in global education initiatives.” A total extrinsic motivation score was calculated by adding the points for all the 10 items. Given a response for each item, the lowest possible mean score is 10 and the highest

possible mean score is 50. A mean score of 40 or higher indicates high extrinsic motivation. A mean score between 30 and 40 indicates a mild extrinsic motivation. A mean score below 30 indicates low extrinsic motivation. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to assess the reliability of the instrument, including the intrinsic and extrinsic sub-scales.

b) The Global Mindedness Scale (GMS).

The Global Mindedness Scale (GMS) is an instrument that aims to measure global mindedness in a college environment (Hett, 1993). The scale includes 30 items on a five-point Likert-type Scale, ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree. The instrument includes five subscales: (a) responsibility, (b) cultural pluralism, (c) efficacy, (d) global centrism, and (e) interconnectedness. Items related to responsibility are 2, 7, 12, 18, 23, 26, and 30. Items related to cultural pluralism are 1, 3, 8, 13, 14, 19, 24, and 27. Items related to efficacy are 4, 9, 15, 20, and 28. Items related to global centrism are 5, 10, 16, 21, and 29. Items related to interconnectedness are 6, 11, 17, 22, and 25. Items 4, 5, 9, 10, 16, 21, 25, 27, and 29 are reverse coded. Hett (1993) reported a .88 content validity index for the overall instrument. The internal reliability for Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the subscales ranged from .70 to .79. The overall coefficient alpha was .90. Permission to use the GMS was requested (Appendix G.1) and has been granted (Appendix G.2). The Global Mindedness Scale was used because it helps assess worldview in a college environment, thus closely related to acceptance or resistance to

global education initiatives. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to assess the reliability of the instrument.

c) The Global Education Initiatives (GEI).

The "Global education initiatives (GEI)" is an instrument created by Genelin (2005) to assess perceived levels of importance of global education initiatives of administrators and faculty at technical colleges in Minnesota as part of a doctoral dissertation. The scale aims to measure four categories of global education initiatives: institutional support, internationalizing the curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation. The scale includes 42 items, using a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from "not important at all", which has an assigned value of "1" to very important "5". The institutional support sub-scale includes items 1 to 4 and 35 to 42. Items 7 to 13 are related to internationalizing curriculum. The campus and community activities sub-scale encompasses items 5 and 6, and 17 to 24. Items 14 to 16 and 25 to 34 are related to international experiences and cooperation. The scale was validated by a panel of experts that included administrators and faculty of higher education institutions. Genelin (2005) reported the following mean scores and standard deviation by group of participants in the study:

Table 7

Category Means Score and Standard Deviation by Group of Faculty Perceived Levels of Importance of Global Education Initiatives

Group	Institutional support		Internationalizing curriculum		Campus and community activities		International experiences	
	Mean score	SD	Mean score	SD	Mean score	SD	Mean score	SD
Technical faculty n=62	3.29	1.045	2.96	.93	3.48	1.96	3.23	.90
General education faculty n=22	3.76	.742	3.66	.86	3.77	.64	3.64	.77
Administrators n=20	3.57	.661	3.40	.54	3.91	.33	3.68	.39

Source: Genelin, N. L. (2005). Technology College Administrator and Faculty Perceived Levels of Importance of Global Education Initiatives. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 2005). ProQuest Information and Learning Company.

The Global Education Initiatives scale was selected because it provides subscales to assess different perceptions of global education initiatives. Permission to use the GEIS was requested (Appendix G.3) and has been granted (Appendix G.4). Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to assess the reliability of the instrument.

d) The Demographic Questionnaire (DG).

The demographic questionnaire aims to collect information about the overall profile of the participants in the study. Such information includes the individual factors (age, gender, and race/ethnicity) and academic factors (type of institution and academic rank) of the participants.

Data Collection

Data for the study were collected through web-based survey, over a period of thirty (30) days. This is close to the five week timeline of mail-outs procedure suggested by Dillman (2000). According to Fowler (2002), internet survey allows to collect data with low cost, high speed of returns, easier data reduction and analysis, and better monitoring of the data collection process. Participants were contacted via email to participate in the survey. A coding system was utilized. A total of 1400 participants received the surveys. When contacting participants, they were provided a brief presentation of the researcher as a doctoral candidate from the University of South Florida (USF) and a description of the purpose of the study in broad terms. A cover letter, including an implied consent, was attached to the survey, explaining the four parts of the study, the projected use of the data, the anonymity/confidentiality of the study as well as contact information for any possible questions or in case a participant would like to receive a summary of the findings after completion of the research study. Participants were informed that they are under no obligation to participate.

Permissions were requested and granted to administer the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005) in a Web-based format, using a commercial online survey tool, Survey Monkey (<http://www.surveymonkey.com>). Participants' emails were gathered through their institution website. First the U.S. College and University ranking of US News and World Report was used to obtain the web sites of national universities, masters' universities, liberal arts colleges, and baccalaureate colleges. Available emails of college professors

were collected from the school faculty directory. Each college professor' name and email address were recorded in an excel spreadsheet to ensure a valid online response. A random password was assigned to each participant. The participant email address, username, and password were stored in one database. The survey responses were saved in another database. Once a participant logged into the survey, his/her record was deleted and the survey system randomly generated a new code or ID associated with the participant in the response database. As safeguard to backup the data, participant responses to the survey were transported on an ongoing basis to an excel file.

An email modeled in the format of an informal implied consent cover letter was sent to each participant, including a direct link to the Web-based survey instruments (Appendix E). Participants were asked to respond within 10 days, on or before a specified date. A follow-up email was sent to non-responding participants 10 days after the expiration of the deadline specified in the initial email, including a link to the Web-based survey as well as a request for a response within 7 days, on or before a specified date (Appendix F). The minimum sample size of 384 participants needed was reached after the second attempt. A total of 418 participants responded to the survey after the second attempt. Then, the researcher decided to proceed with data analysis.

Pilot Study

As indicated earlier, the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005) are validated instruments. Authorization has been granted to use them in this research study. Items included in the Faculty Motivational

Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES) were used in previous studies and their content validity has been documented (Navarro, 2004; Parker, 2003; & Shifter, 2000). However, to ensure of the validity of the entire survey, content validity was assessed prior to administer the instruments. Gall, Borg, and Call (1996) suggest the selection of six to ten content experts, which profiles are similar to these of the sample population to be used in the main study. Therefore, a panel of 10 college professors was conveniently identified to review and provide feedback about the clarity of the survey instruments. Each participant selected received an email with information about the study, a link to the survey as well as related instructions. Also, the survey included space for comments and suggestions.

Data Analysis

The data gathered from the web-based survey was downloaded and transported into the computer-based statistical package SAS. Prior to reviewing the data, assumptions for statistical analyses were assessed. The data have been examined for reliability (Chronbach's alpha) and normality (i.e. skewness and kurtosis) as well as for missing data. A two-tailed alpha level of .05 was set a priori and used for all statistical tests. Furthermore, Crombach's alpha was run in order to assess internal consistency reliability for each of the three scales used to collect the data. Normality, homogeneity of variance, and independence of observations have been established for the appropriate use of ANOVA.

Descriptive statistics (sample size, frequency, mean, variance and standard deviation) were used to describe the profile and distribution of the sample population (age, gender, race/ethnicity, citizenship status, marital status, type of institution, and academic rank), the motivational factors, the dominant worldview dimensions, and the perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine statistical significance difference in the means across subgroups. Sum of squares, degree of freedom, F distribution, and significant level were used to summarize the results of ANOVA.

Analysis of variance was used to (a) assess whether there are differences in motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education among assistant professors, associate professors, and full-professors, (b) and explore combinations of between-subject and within-subject variables that may predict greater or lower mean scores among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors. According to Stevens (2007), the following assumptions about the data must be met to conduct ANOVA:

- The observations must be normally distributed on the dependent variable in each group,
- The population variances for each group are equal,
- And, the observations in each group are independent or individually administered.

Multiple regression was used to analyze (a) What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education

initiatives? (b) What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives? (c) What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors? (d) and what combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Multiple regression statistical analysis was conducted using dummy coding group membership. All tests were two-tailed with a p value of .05. Adjusted values were used to estimate the strength of relationship. Mean scores and standard deviation were used to address research question 1. ANOVA was used to answer research questions 2. Finally, multiple regression analysis was run to answer research question 3, 4, 5, and 6. The following table provides a summary of variables and the analytic procedures related to the research questions (Table 4).

Table 8
Research Questions, Variables, and Analytic Procedures

#	Research Questions	Variables	Analytic Procedures/ SAS procedures
1	What are the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?	Motivational factors: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Intrinsic</i> • <i>Extrinsic</i> Worldview dimensions:	- Mean, standard deviation/ PROC MEANS/PROC UNIVARIATE

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Responsibility</i> • <i>Cultural pluralism</i> • <i>Efficacy</i> • <i>Global centrism</i> • <i>Interconnectedness</i> <p>Perceptions of global education initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Institutional support</i> • <i>Internationalizing curriculum</i> • <i>Campus and community activities to increase global awareness</i> • <i>International experiences and cooperation</i> 	
2	What differences exist in the motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives among assistant-professors, associate professors, and full professors of U.S. colleges and universities?	<p>Motivational factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Intrinsic</i> • <i>Extrinsic</i> <p>Worldview dimensions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Responsibility</i> • <i>Cultural pluralism</i> • <i>Efficacy</i> • <i>Global centrism</i> • <i>Interconnectedness</i> <p>Perceptions of global education initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Institutional support</i> • <i>Internationalizing curriculum</i> • <i>Campus and community activities to increase global</i> 	- ANOVA/ PROC ANOVA

		<p><i>awareness</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>International experiences and cooperation</i> <p>Academic rank :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Assistant-professor</i> • <i>Associate professor</i> • <i>Full professor</i> 	
3	What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?	<p>Motivational factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Intrinsic</i> • <i>Extrinsic</i> <p>Perceptions of global education initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Institutional support</i> • <i>Internationalizing curriculum</i> • <i>Campus and community activities to increase global awareness</i> • <i>International experiences and cooperation</i> 	- Multiple regression / PROC REG
4	What correlations exist between worldview dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?	<p>Worldview dimensions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Responsibility</i> • <i>Cultural pluralism</i> • <i>Efficacy</i> • <i>Global centrism</i> • <i>Interconnectedness</i> <p>Perceptions of global education initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Institutional support</i> 	- Multiple regression / PROC REG

		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Internationalizing curriculum</i> • <i>Campus and community activities to increase global awareness</i> • <i>International experiences and cooperation</i> 	
5	What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?	<p>Motivational factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Intrinsic</i> • <i>Extrinsic</i> <p>Worldview dimensions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Responsibility</i> • <i>Cultural pluralism</i> • <i>Efficacy</i> • <i>Global centrism</i> • <i>Interconnectedness</i> <p>Perceptions of global education initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Institutional support</i> • <i>Internationalizing curriculum</i> • <i>Campus and community activities to increase global awareness</i> • <i>International experiences and cooperation</i> 	- Multiple regression/PROC REG
6	What combination of individual factors (i.e. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (i.e. type of institution, and academic rank),	<p>Individual factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Age</i> • <i>Gender</i> • <i>Race/ethnicity</i> 	- Multiple regression / PROC REG

	<p>motivational factors (intrinsic rewards, extrinsic rewards) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?</p>	<p>Academic factors</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Type of institution</i> • <i>Academic rank</i> <p>Motivational factors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Intrinsic</i> • <i>Extrinsic</i> <p>Worldview dimensions:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Responsibility</i> • <i>Cultural pluralism</i> • <i>Efficacy</i> • <i>Global centrism</i> • <i>Interconnectedness</i> <p>Perceptions of global education initiatives:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Institutional support</i> • <i>Internationalizing curriculum</i> • <i>Campus and community activities to increase global awareness</i> • <i>International experiences and cooperation</i> 	
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Summary

The methods chapter has outlined the research design, research questions, variables, population and sample, instrumentation, procedures of data collection and analysis. The population of this study consists of professors teaching at U.S. colleges and universities. A random sampling was used to select the participants in the survey.

Permission has been obtained to use the scales that helped gather the data through a web survey, during a 30-day period. Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to assess the reliability of all instruments in the study. Descriptive statistics, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and multiple regressions were used to conduct the statistical analysis, which allowed to address the research questions, interpret the findings, and make recommendations or suggestions.

Chapter Four

Results

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States. This study was exploratory and used a correlational research design to address the following questions:

1. What are the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?
2. What differences exist in the motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives among assistant-professors, associate professors, and full professors of U.S. colleges and universities?
3. What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?
4. What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?
5. What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?
6. What combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g.

intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associated with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

This chapter describes the sample, the characteristics of the research participants, the results from data analysis, including the treatment of the data and the answers of the research questions.

Sample

The population of this research study included 500,000 full-time college professors at U.S. accredited colleges and universities. The concept college professor was used to refer exclusively to assistant-professors, associate professors, and full professors. A random sample was used to select 1400 participants. A total of 12 professors declined to participate. They were replaced, using the random number generated through the SAS software. After the first attempt, 267 professors returned the surveys. This represents a return rate of 19%. An additional 151 participants returned the surveys after a second attempt. This represents a return rate of 13%. There was no further attempt, because the minimum sample size of 384 participants needed for the study was reached. Therefore, a total of 418 surveys were completed after two attempts. A response rate of 29.85% was derived by dividing the number of responses received by the total number sent (418/1400). Table 9 summarizes survey responses by response waves.

Table 9

Survey Responses by Response Waves

Emailing	Survey Sent	Response Received	Percent of Total
Initial	1400	267	19%
First Reminder	1133	151	13%
Total	1400	418	29%

Characteristics of the Research Participants

Participants who returned the surveys revealed the following individual (age, gender, ethnicity, citizenship, and marital status) and academic (academic rank and type of institution) characteristics.

Personal Characteristics. The frequency distribution, percentages, and cumulative percentages related to participant's ages are shown in Table 10. The majority of the participants (53.9%) were between the ages of 35 and 54. Less than 10% (8.1%) were under 35 years. The mean age was about 50. The age characteristics of the sample appears to be relatively similar to that of the general population, given the fact that 8.2% of full-time faculties at all U.S. postsecondary institutions are under 35 years of age, and the mean age is 49.6 (NCES, 2007).

The participants of the study included about 60% of males and 40% of females. The gender proportion is relatively similar to that of the general population. According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2009), 59% of all full-time college professors at U.S. four-year institutions of higher education are men, and 41% are women. Table 10 includes a summary of the demographic information on gender about the participants in this research study.

Demographic data on racial/ethnic background in Table 10 illustrate that the majority of the participants in this study were Non-Hispanic Whites (71.1%), Hispanic/Latino (10.5%), Asian or Asian American (7.7%), and Black or African American (5.3%). The racial/ethnic profile of the sample is relatively different from that of the general population of instructional faculty, given the fact that 81.3% of U.S. full-time tenure track college professors are Whites, 9.2% are Asian-Americans, 5% are African-Americans, and 2.4% are Hispanics/Latinos.

Table 10 illustrates the citizenship status of the participants in this study. About 73% were born in the U.S., but lived abroad. The remaining is composed of participants who were born in the United States (14.4%), U.S. citizens, born outside the U.S. (6.7%), and Natives of another country (5.7%).

In Table 10, demographic data on marital status of the participants in this study illustrate that 67.5% of the participants in this study were married, 15.1% were members of an unmarried couple, 10.3% were divorced, and 5% were single.

Academic Characteristics. Data in Table 10 show that 23% of the participants in this study were employed at national universities, 46.2% at university – masters, 12.9% at liberal arts colleges, and 17.9% at baccalaureate colleges. The demographic data related to type of institutions are relatively similar to the percentage of accredited national universities (18%), university-masters (40%), liberal arts colleges (19%), and baccalaureate colleges (23%) represented in the US News and World Report ranking of U.S. colleges and universities (US News and World Report, 2009).

The frequency distribution of college professors by academic rank are presented in Table 10. Of the 418 participants who completed the survey, 139 (33.3%) were assistant professors, 158 (37.8%) were associate professors, and 121 (28.9%) were full professors. The profile of the sample is relatively different from that of the general population of U.S. full-time faculty members at postsecondary institutions, consisting of 28% professors, 23% of associate professors, and 27% of assistant professors (U.S., 2009). However, the general population of full-time faculty members at higher education institutions includes additional 17% of instructors and 5% of lecturers (U.S., 2009), which are not part of the target population for this study.

Table 10

Descriptive Summary of the Profile of the Study Participants

Age			
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Under 35 years	34	8.1	8.1
35 - 44 years	114	27.3	35.4
45 - 54 years	111	26.6	62.0
55 - 64 years	75	17.9	79.9
65 years over	84	20.1	100.0
Gender			
Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	252	60.3	60.3
Female	166	39.7	100.0
Ethnicity			
Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
American Indian	8	1.9	1.9
Asian	32	7.7	9.6
Black or African - American	22	5.3	14.8
Hawaiian	1	.2	15.1
Hispanic or Latino	44	10.5	25.6
Mix race	14	3.3	28.9
Non-Hispanic White	297	71.1	100.0
Citizenship			
Citizenship	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Born in the U.S., but lived abroad	306	73.2	73.2

Born in the United States	60	14.4	87.6
Native of another country	24	5.7	93.3
U.S. citizen, born outside the U.S.	28	6.7	100.0
Marital Status			
Marital Status	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Married	282	67.5	67.5
Divorced	43	10.3	77.8
Separated	3	.7	78.5
Never been married	6	1.4	79.9
A member of an unmarried couple	63	15.1	95
Single	21	5.0	100
Academic rank			
Academic rank	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Assistant professor	139	33.3	33.3
Associate professor	158	37.8	71.1
Full professor	121	28.9	100.0
Type of institution			
Type of institution	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
National university	96	23.0	23.0
University masters	193	46.2	69.2
Liberal arts college	54	12.9	82.1
Baccalaureate college	75	17.9	100.0

Note. n = 418

Results from Data Analysis

Treatment of the Data. The data were screened for accuracy and missing values. Data related to participants' income levels were dropped due to missing values. There was no other pattern of missing data. Assumptions for statistical analyses were assessed.

A two-tailed alpha level of .05 was set a priori and used for all statistical tests. The data were examined for reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and normality (i.e. skewness and kurtosis). Cronbach's coefficient alpha (α) was used to measure the internal consistency reliability of the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES), the Global Mindedness Scale (GMS), and the Global Education Initiatives (GEI). The Cronbach's coefficient alpha values were .90 for intrinsic motivation, .92 for extrinsic motivation, .95 for responsibility, .97 for cultural pluralism, .96 for efficacy, .97 for global centrism, .96 for interconnectedness, .97 for institutional support, .99 for internationalizing curriculum, .97 for campus and community activities, and .98 for international experiences and cooperation. Table 11 summarizes the Cronbach' coefficient alpha values for the study variables.

Table 11

Cronbach Coefficient Alpha Values for Study Variables

Variable	Number of Items	Cronbach Coefficient Alpha (α)
Intrinsic motivation	10	.90

Extrinsic motivation	10	.92
Responsibility	7	.95
Cultural pluralism	5	.97
Efficacy	5	.96
Global centrism	5	.97
Interconnectedness	5	.96
Institutional support	12	.97
Internationalizing curriculum	7	.99
Campus and community activities	10	.97
International experiences and cooperation	13	.98

Note. n = 418

A summary of the demographic variables that will involve the statistical analyses are presented in Table 12.

Table 12

Descriptive Summary of Demographic Variables

Age			
Age	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Under 35 years	34	8.1	8.1
35 - 44 years	114	27.3	35.4

45 - 54 years	111	26.6	62.0
55 - 64 years	75	17.9	79.9
65 years over	84	20.1	100.0
Gender			
Gender	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	252	60.3	60.3
Female	166	39.7	100.0
Ethnicity			
Ethnicity	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
American Indian	8	1.9	1.9
Asian	32	7.7	9.6
Black or African - American	22	5.3	14.8
Hawaiian	1	.2	15.1
Hispanic or Latino	44	10.5	25.6
Mix race	14	3.3	28.9
Non-Hispanic White	297	71.1	100.0
Academic rank			
Academic rank	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
Assistant professor	139	33.3	33.3
Associate professor	158	37.8	71.1
Full professor	121	28.9	100.0
Type of institution			
Type of institution	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Percent
National university	96	23.0	23.0
University masters	193	46.2	69.2
Liberal arts college	54	12.9	82.1
Baccalaureate college	75	17.9	100.0

Note. n = 418

Normality, homogeneity of variance, and independence of observations have been established for the appropriate use of ANOVA. The assumption for independence was not violated because participants were randomly selected and had to enter a randomly generated password to access the survey.

The data were analyzed through both the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality and found that the data were not normally distributed (Table 13). Since the method of analysis is Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), is said to be “robust” to violations of normality, no transformations of the data were made (Stevens, 2007).

Table 13 –
Test of Normality for Demographic Variables

Variables	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		Shapiro-Wilk	
	Statistic	<i>p</i>	Statistic	<i>p</i>
Gender	.394	.000	.621	.000
Ethnicity	.420	.000	.603	.000
Citizenship	.432	.000	.577	.000
Marital status	.407	.000	.573	.000
Academic rank	.220	.000	.802	.000
Type of institution	.277	.000	.781	.000

Note. *n* = 418

The homogeneity of variance assumption was assessed, using Levene’s Test, which does not require normal data. This test checks to see whether variances of the dependent variables were equal for treatments. A non-significant result suggests equal variances. Table 14 shows that the variances are equal for intrinsic motivation ($p = .054$),

extrinsic motivation ($p = .406$), responsibility ($p = .150$), efficacy ($p = .216$), global centrism ($p = .783$), interconnectedness ($p = .150$), institutional support ($p = .150$), campus and community activities ($p = .216$), and international experience and cooperation ($p = .783$). However, the variances are significantly different for cultural pluralism ($p = .002$) and internationalizing curriculum ($p = .002$).

Table 14

Test of Homogeneity of Variances

Variable	Levene Statistic	p
Intrinsic motivation	2.940	.054
Extrinsic motivation	.902	.406
Responsibility	1.906	.150
Cultural pluralism	6.326	.002
Efficacy	1.539	.216
Global centrism	.245	.783
Interconnectedness	1.906	.150
Institutional support	1.906	.150
Internationalizing curriculum	6.326	.002
Campus and community activities	1.539	.216
International experiences and cooperation	.245	.783

Note. $n = 418$

The predictor variables are based on fixed categorical scales. However, some demographic variables such as age and years of teaching are continuous. Regression is robust to violations of this assumption. Adjusted R^2 was used in all regression

models, in order to minimize shrinkage related to overestimation of the population due to bias in R^2 .

Findings for Research Question One

What are the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

To address the first research question, means and standard deviation were calculated, using the scores from (a) the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES), (b) the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), (c) and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005).

Table 15 presents the mean scores and standard deviation on the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES) instrument. The five dominant intrinsic motivational factors that will have positive or negative (lack thereof) effects on the internationalization of the curriculum by U.S. college professors were:

1. Intellectual challenge ($M = 4.20$, $SD = .85$);
2. Opportunity to improve one's teaching ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .88$);
3. Personal interest or lack thereof ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 1.02$);
4. Opportunity to develop new ideas ($M = 4.12$, $SD = .98$);
5. Opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction ($M = 4.00$, $SD = 1.00$).

The five dominant extrinsic motivational factors that will have positive or negative (lack thereof) effects on the internationalization of the curriculum by U.S. college professors were:

1. More funds to support student participation in internationalized programs
($M = 4.02, SD = 1.10$);
2. Recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair
($M = 4.01, SD = 1.06$);
3. More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for off-campus courses (e.g., study abroad, exchange program)
($M = 3.88, SD = 1.15$);
4. More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses (e.g., infusion, international subject matter courses)
($M = 3.86, SD = 1.21$);
5. Including a professor participation in internationalization efforts in one's evaluation process (salary increases, tenure, and promotion)
($M = 3.84, SD = 1.14$).

Table 15

Summary of Participants' Responses to Motivational Factors' Survey

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Personal interest (or lack thereof).	4.12	1.02
2. Relevance (or lack thereof) to your job.	3.94	1.15
3. Student interest (or lack thereof) in internationalized curricula.	3.88	1.09
4. Your international knowledge/expertise (or lack thereof).	3.92	1.21
5. Your ability (or lack thereof) to develop internationalized curricula.	3.50	1.34

6. Opportunity to develop new ideas.	4.12	.98
7. Opportunity to improve my teaching.	4.13	.88
8. Intellectual challenge.	4.20	.85
9. Opportunity for scholarly pursuit.	3.89	1.07
10. Opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction.	4.00	1.00
11. Release time from teaching (or other duties) for you to internationalize your curriculum.	3.38	1.35
12. Development and availability of internationalized instructional materials.	3.58	1.26
13. Seminars and workshops to assist you in your curriculum development and internationalization efforts.	3.62	1.18
14. More funds for participation in international programs, sabbaticals, and other related professional development opportunities.	3.79	1.34
15. More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses.	3.86	1.21
16. More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for off-campus courses.	3.88	1.15
17. Including your participation in internationalization efforts in your evaluation process (salary increases, tenure, and promotion).	3.84	1.14
18. More funds to support student participation in internationalized programs.	4.02	1.10
19. Recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair.	4.01	1.06
20. Expectation by institution that faculty participate in global education initiatives.	3.68	1.21

Note. n = 418

Table 16 illustrates the mean scores and standard deviation regarding the dominant worldview dimensions of U.S. college professors. The ten dominant beliefs related to the worldview of U.S. professors with respect to their global mindedness were:

1. The United States is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries ($M = 4.50, SD = .74$);
2. Americans can learn something of value from all different cultures ($M = 4.35, SD = .87$);
3. It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations ($M = 4.35, SD = .61$);
4. I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture ($M = 4.30, SD = .74$);
5. I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations ($M = 4.21, SD = .76$);
6. It is important that American universities and colleges provide programs designed to promote understanding among students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds ($M = 4.21, SD = .89$);
7. I enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture ($M = 4.17, SD = .81$);
8. It is very important to me to choose a career in which I can have a positive effect on the quality of life for future generations ($M = 3.98, SD = .98$);
9. I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my country but also as a citizen of the world ($M = 3.91, SD = 1.01$).
10. My opinions about national policies are based on how these policies might affect the rest of the world as well as the United States ($M = 3.90, SD = .94$).

Table 16

Summary of Participants' Responses to Global mindedness Survey

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture.	4.30	.74
2. I feel an obligation to speak out when I see our government doing something I consider wrong internationally.	3.61	.95
3. The United States is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries.	4.50	.74
4. Really, there is nothing I can do about the problems of the world.	2.22	.90
5. The needs of the United States must continue to be our highest priority in negotiating with other countries.	3.09	1.18
6. I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations.	4.21	.76
7. When I hear that thousands of people are starving in an African county, I feel very frustrated.	3.88	.95
8. Americans can learn something of value from all different cultures.	4.35	.87
9. Generally, an individual's actions are too small to have a significant effect on the global ecosystem.	2.41	1.15
10. Americans should be permitted to pursue the standard of living they can afford if it only has a slight negative impact on the environment.	2.67	1.07
11. I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my country but also as a citizen of the world.	3.91	1.01
12. When I see the conditions some people in the world live under, I feel a responsibility to do something about it.	3.76	.92
13. I enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture.	4.17	.81
14. My opinions about national policies are based on how these policies might affect the rest of the world as well as the United States.	3.90	.94
15. It is very important to me to choose a career in which I can have a positive effect on the quality of life for future generations.	3.98	.98
16. American values are probably the best.	2.85	1.03

17. In the long run, America will probably benefit from the fact that the world is becoming more interconnected.	3.69	.95
18. The fact that a flood can kill 50,000 people in Bangladesh is very depressing to me.	3.83	.97
19. It is important that American universities and colleges provide programs designed to promote understanding among students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.	4.21	.89
20. I think my behavior can impact people in other countries.	3.71	.90
21. The present distribution of the world's wealth and resources should be maintained because it promotes survival of the fitters.	2.35	1.09
22. I feel a strong kinship with the worldwide human family.	3.76	.83
23. I feel very concerned about the lives of people who live in politically repressive regimes.	3.88	.82
24. It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.	4.35	.61
25. It is not really important to me to consider myself as a member of the global community.	2.33	1.20
26. I sometimes try to imagine how a person who is always hungry must feel.	3.39	1.05
27. I have very little in common with people in underdeveloped nations.	2.45	1.10
28. I am able to affect what happens on a global level by what I do in my own community.	3.53	1.01
29. I sometimes feel irritated with people from other countries because they don't understand how we do things.	2.55	1.13
30. Americans have a moral obligation to share their wealth with the less fortunate peoples of the world.	3.61	.97

Note. n = 418

It is important to underscore that seven of the ten dominant beliefs are included in the worldview dimension of cultural pluralism, and the remaining three belong to the dimensions of responsibility, efficacy, and interconnectedness. The beliefs related to *cultural pluralism* are the following:

- The United States is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries ($M = 4.50, SD = .74$);

- Americans can learn something of value from all different cultures ($M = 4.35, SD = .87$);

- It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations ($M = 4.35, SD = .61$);

- I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture ($M = 4.30, SD = .74$);

- It is important that American universities and colleges provide programs designed to promote understanding among students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds ($M = 4.21, SD = .89$);

- I enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture ($M = 4.17, SD = .81$);

- My opinions about national policies are based on how these policies might affect the rest of the world as well as the United States ($M = 3.90, SD = .94$).

The belief "I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations ($M = 4.21, SD = .76$)" is related to the worldview dimension of "Responsibility". The belief "It is very important to me to choose a career in which I can have a positive effect on the quality of life for future generations ($M = 3.98, SD = .98$)" is included in the worldview dimension of "Efficacy". The belief "I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my country but also as a citizen of the world ($M = 3.91, SD = 1.01$)" corresponds to the "Interconnectedness" worldview dimension.

The mean scores and standard deviation related to the perceptions of U.S. college professors about global education initiatives at their institution are summarized in Table 17. The ten highest means scores regarding the overall perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors were:

1. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to students at my college ($M = 4.56, SD = .61$);
2. Courses with an international/global focus should be available to all students at my college ($M = 4.53, SD = .59$);
3. Foreign language courses should be available to students at my college ($M = 4.45, SD = .84$);
4. Preparing globally competent learners should be part of our college's mission ($M = 4.41, SD = .73$);
5. General education courses with an international focus should be available to all students at my college. ($M = 4.41, SD = .73$);
6. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to faculty at my college ($M = 4.34, SD = .82$);
7. My college should provide opportunities for students with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community ($M = 4.28, SD = .95$);
8. A college-wide task force/committee to advance global education initiatives should be in place at my college ($M = 4.23, SD = .83$);
9. All students at my college should be required to complete at least one course (general education course) with an international/global focus ($M = 4.21, SD = .85$);

10. My college should provide opportunities for faculty with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community ($M = 4.13$, $SD = .90$).

Table 17

Summary of Participants' Responses to Global Education Initiatives' Survey

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Preparing globally competent learners should be part of our college's mission.	4.41	.73
2. A college-wide plan designed to increase global awareness in my college should be in place.	4.13	.90
3. A college-wide task force/committee to advance global education initiatives should be in place at my college.	3.80	1.16
4. There should be a designated administrative office at my college to coordinate and support global education initiatives.	3.65	1.35
5. My college should provide faculty activities to help increase faculty global awareness.	4.01	1.02
6. My college should provide faculty activities designated to help faculty develop courses with an international global focus.	3.88	1.10
7. Foreign language courses should be available to students at my college.	4.45	.84
8. Study of a foreign language should be a requirement for graduation at my college.	3.73	1.22
9. General education courses with an international focus should be available to all students at my college.	4.41	.73
10. General education requirements at my college should include at least one course with an international focus.	4.28	.95
11. Courses with an international/global focus should be available to all students at my college.	4.53	.59
12. All program completion requirements at my college should include at least one course with an international/global focus.	3.99	1.14
13. All students at my college should be required to complete at least one course (general education course) with an international/global focus.	4.11	1.06

14. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to faculty at my college.	4.34	.82
15. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to students at my college.	4.56	.61
16. Study abroad and exchange opportunities should be available to administrators at my college.	3.67	1.14
17. My college should sponsor student extracurricular activities with an international/global focus.	4.02	.93
18. My college should require students participation in college-sponsored, on campus activities designed to increase global awareness.	3.31	1.29
19. My college should sponsor community forums on global issues.	3.98	.99
20. My college should provide opportunities for faculty with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.	4.11	.95
21. My college should provide opportunities for students with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.	4.21	.85
22. My college should provide opportunities for business and community members with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.	3.92	.90
23. Students international clubs or organizations should be available at my college.	4.23	.83
24. Staff development experience to help develop global competency should be provided for all employees at my college.	3.54	1.12
25. My college should recruit international students to the college.	3.63	1.07
26. My college should recruit faculty with international experience or who are from another country.	3.54	1.14
27. My college should recruit administrators with international experience or who are from another country.	3.16	1.23
28. Faculty members at my college should attend conferences/meetings with an international focus.	3.75	1.07
29. Administrators at my college should attend conferences/meetings with an international focus.	3.47	1.21
30. Students at my college should be encouraged to attend	3.89	.97

conferences/meetings with an international focus.		
31. My college would benefit from having a partner relationship with an institution in another country.	4.10	.87
32. Faculty members at my college should travel to international conferences/meetings.	4.09	.98
33. Administrators at my college should travel to international conferences/meetings.	3.41	1.26
34. Students at my college should travel to international conferences/meetings.	3.76	1.03
35. My college should provide funding to support faculty efforts to develop global education initiatives.	4.03	1.05
36. My college should provide funding to support faculty participation in global education initiatives.	3.98	1.12
37. My college should fund faculty efforts to provide courses with an international/global focus.	4.01	1.08
38. My college should provide funding to support faculty study abroad/international exchanges opportunities.	4.02	1.02
39. My college should provide funding to support student study abroad/international exchanges opportunities.	4.02	1.00
40. My college should provide funding to support administrator study abroad/international exchanges opportunities.	3.27	1.28
41. My college should actively seek funding from outside the college to support global education initiatives.	4.10	.96
42. My college should fund an institutional membership in an international education association.	3.62	1.22

Note. n = 418

The ten highest mean scores about the overall perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors include items related to all four aspects of global education (e.g. institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities, and international experiences and cooperation) under consideration in this research study.

The following are items with the highest mean scores related to *institutional support for global education initiatives*:

- Preparing globally competent learners should be part of our college's mission ($M = 4.41, SD = .73$);

- A college-wide task force/committee to advance global education initiatives should be in place at my college ($M = 4.23, SD = .83$);

The items with the highest mean scores observed for *internationalizing curriculum* are:

- Foreign language courses should be available to students at my college ($M = 4.45, SD = .84$)

- Courses with an international/global focus should be available to all students at my college ($M = 4.53, SD = .59$);

- All students at my college should be required to complete at least one course (general education course) with an international/global focus ($M = 4.21, SD = .85$);

- General education courses with an international focus should be available to all students at my college ($M = 4.41, SD = .73$);

The items with the highest mean scores regarding *campus and community activities to increase global awareness* are:

- My college should provide opportunities for faculty with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community ($M = 4.13, SD = .90$);

- My college should provide opportunities for students with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community ($M = 4.28, SD = .95$).

The items with the highest mean scores observed for *international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives* are:

- Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to faculty at my college ($M = 4.34, SD = .82$);

- Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to students at my college ($M = 4.56, SD = .61$).

Findings for Research Question Two

What differences exist in the motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors of U.S. colleges and universities?

The demographic questionnaire requested information that served as independent variables. Demographic items in the instrument included age, gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, academic rank, field of teaching, and type of institution. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether any significant differences exist among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors and their intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors toward internationalizing a curriculum. Table 18 presents mean scores and standard deviation for group differences of academic rank (assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor) and intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. The analysis of variance revealed a significant difference for intrinsic motivational factors among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors, $F(2, 415) = 4.54, p = .011$. A post-hoc comparison test, using the Tukey

procedure, shows statistically significant pairwise comparisons for intrinsic motivational factors, with p-values of less than .05. The mean differences revealed that assistant professors ($M = 40.44$, $SD = 7.15$) and associate professors ($M = 40.33$, $SD = 8.37$) received higher mean scores on intrinsic motivational factors than and full professors ($M = 37.88$, $SD = 7.41$). There was no significant difference in mean scores on intrinsic motivation between assistant professors and associate professors. There was no significant difference in mean scores on extrinsic motivational factors among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors, $F(2, 415) = .026$, $p = .975$.

Table 18

Mean Scores and Standard Deviation of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivational Factors of U.S. College Professors, by Academic Rank

Variables	Academic rank	n	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Intrinsic motivation	Assistant professor	139	40.44	7.15
	Associate professor	158	40.33	8.37
	Full professor	121	37.88	7.41
	Total	418	39.66	7.77
Extrinsic motivation	Assistant professor	139	37.69	10.17
	Associate professor	158	37.47	9.00
	Full professor	121	37.69	8.77
	Total	418	37.61	9.32

Note. $n = 418$. For intrinsic motivational factors, $F(2, 415) = 4.54$, $p = .011$.

For extrinsic motivational factors, $F(2, 415) = .026$, $p = .975$.

Also, analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether any significant differences exist among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors based on their worldview dimensions. Table 19 presents mean scores and

standard deviation for group differences among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors and their dominant worldview dimensions. The analysis of variance revealed no significant differences on worldview dimensions of responsibility, $F(2, 415) = .263, p = .769$, cultural pluralism, $F(2, 415) = 1.43, p = .240$, efficacy, $F(2, 415) = .524, p = .592$, global centrism, $F(2, 415) = .978, p = .377$, and interconnectedness, $F(2, 415) = 2.076, p = .127$, among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors.

Table 19

Mean Scores and Standard Deviation on Worldview Dimensions of U.S. College Professors, by Academic Rank

Variables	Academic Rank	n	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Responsibility	Assistant professor	139	25.79	4.63
	Associate professor	158	25.92	4.65
	Full professor	121	26.22	5.46
	Total	418	25.96	4.88
Cultural pluralism	Assistant professor	139	32.16	3.22
	Associate professor	158	31.96	3.52
	Full professor	121	32.70	4.36
	Total	418	32.24	3.69
Efficacy	Assistant professor	139	15.85	2.22
	Associate professor	158	15.74	2.18
	Full professor	121	16.01	2.07
	Total	418	15.85	2.16
Global centrism	Assistant professor	139	13.78	3.94
	Associate professor	158	13.58	3.30
	Full professor	121	13.13	4.15
	Total	418	13.52	3.78
Interconnectedness	Assistant professor	139	18.19	2.23

	Associate Professor	158	17.65	2.21
	Full Professor	121	17.84	2.49
	Total	418	17.89	2.31

Note. $n = 418$. Responsibility, $F(2, 415) = .263, p = .769$, cultural pluralism, $F(2, 415) = 1.43, p = .240$, efficacy, $F(2, 415) = .524, p = .592$, global centrism, $F(2, 415) = .978, p = .377$, and interconnectedness, $F(2, 415) = 2.076, p = .127$.

Furthermore, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to determine whether any significant differences exist among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives, with respect to institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation. Table 20 presents mean scores and standard deviation for group differences among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives related to institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation. The analysis of variance revealed a significant difference for internationalizing curriculum among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors, $F(2, 415) = 4.65, p = .010$. A post-hoc comparison test, using the Tukey procedure, shows statistically significant pairwise comparisons for internationalizing curriculum, with p-values of less than .05. The mean differences revealed that assistant professors received a higher mean score ($M = 30.34, SD = 4.53$) on internationalizing curriculum than associate professors ($M = 28.70, SD = 5.09$). There was no significant difference between assistant professor ($M = 30.34, SD = 4.53$) and full professors ($M = 29.55, SD = 4.07$). There was no significant difference in mean scores on institutional

support, $F(2, 415) = .138, p = .872$, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, $F(2, 415) = 1.26, p = .283$, and international experiences and cooperation, $F(2, 415) = 1.63, p = .197$, among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors.

Table 20

Mean Scores and Standard Deviation on Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives of U.S. College Professors, by Academic Rank

Variables	Academic rank	n	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Institutional support	Assistant professor	139	47.20	10.08
	Associate professor	158	46.96	8.58
	Full professor	121	46.55	11.51
	Total	418	46.92	9.98
Internationalizing curriculum	Assistant professor	138	30.34	4.53
	Associate professor	158	28.70	5.09
	Full professor	121	29.55	4.07
	Total	417	29.49	4.67
Campus and community activities to increase global awareness	Assistant professor	139	40.00	7.79
	Associate professor	158	38.60	7.83
	Full professor	121	38.96	7.58
	Total	418	39.17	7.75
International experiences and cooperation	Assistant professor	139	50.13	10.78
	Associate professor	158	48.14	10.25
	Full professor	121	49.91	10.17
	Total	418	49.31	10.42

Note. $n = 418$. Institutional support, $F(2, 415) = .138, p = .872$, internationalizing curriculum, $F(2, 415) = 4.65, p = .010$, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, $F(2, 415) = 1.26, p = .283$, and international experiences and cooperation, $F(2, 415) = 1.63, p = .197$

Findings for Research Question Three

What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?

To answer research question three, four regression models were run, using the data from the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES) and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005). Multiple regressions were conducted to examine whether motivational factors of U.S. college professors are associated with their perceptions of global education initiatives.

Using multiple regression, scores of perceptions of global education initiatives' related to institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and international experiences and cooperation were regressed in four separate models on the linear combination of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

Model One: Motivational factors and perception of institutional support for global education initiatives.

The first equation had intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation explain 23% of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 21 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(2, 415) = 61.52, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .22$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that intrinsic motivation (Beta = .380, $p = .000$) and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .13, $p = .022$) were significant predictors of

perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. This suggests that higher levels of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are associated with higher level of overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. For every one unit increase in intrinsic motivation score, there is a corresponding increase of .48 in score on perception of institutional support. For every one unit increase in extrinsic motivation score, there is a corresponding increase of .14 in score on perception of institutional support. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = .22.4 + .48.8 * \text{intrinsic motivation} + .14.2 * \text{extrinsic motivation}$. Table 27 summarizes the first regression model.

Table 21

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	22.248	2.267		9.812	.000
Intrinsic motivation	.488	.074	.380	6.603	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.142	.062	.132	2.296	.022

Note. n = 418. $R^2 = .229$, Adjusted $R^2 = .225$, $F(2, 415) = 61.52$, $p = .000$

Model Two: Motivational factors and perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives.

The second equation had intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation explain 5% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 22 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(2, 414) = 11.10$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 =$

.046. An observation of individual predictors indicates that intrinsic motivation (Beta = .197, $p = .000$) was a significant predictor of perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives. Extrinsic motivation (Beta = .040, $p = .526$) was not significant. This suggests that higher levels of intrinsic motivation were associated with higher level of overall perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives. For every one unit increase in intrinsic motivation score, there is a corresponding increase of .11 in overall perception of internationalizing the curriculum. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 24.03 + .11.8 * \text{intrinsic motivation} + .020 * \text{extrinsic motivation}$. Table 28 summarizes the second regression model.

Table 22

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Internationalizing the Curriculum for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	24.037	1.179		20.387	.000
Intrinsic motivation	.118	.038	.197	3.081	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.020	.032	.040	.634	.526

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .051$, Adjusted $R^2 = .046$, $F(2, 414) = 11.10$, $p = .000$ for predictor variables

Model Three: Motivational factors and perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness.

The third equation had intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation explain 17% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global

awareness at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 23 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(2, 415) = 61.52, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .16$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that intrinsic motivation (Beta = .40, $p = .000$) was a significant predictor of perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Extrinsic motivation (Beta = .010, $p = .866$) was not significant. This suggests that higher levels of intrinsic motivation are associated with higher level of overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. For every one unit increase in intrinsic motivation score, there is a corresponding increase of .40 in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 22.74 + .406 * \text{intrinsic motivation} + .008 * \text{extrinsic motivation}$. Table 23 summarizes the third regression model.

Table 23

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Motivational Factors

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	22.740	1.826		12.456	.000
Intrinsic motivation	.406	.060	.408	6.829	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.008	.050	.010	.168	.866

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .172$, Adjusted $R^2 = .168$, $F(2, 415) = 42.98, p = .000$

Model Four: Motivational factors and perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

The fourth equation had intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation explain 18% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 24 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(2, 415) = 45.78, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .17$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that intrinsic motivation (Beta = .379, $p = .000$) was a significant predictor of perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. Extrinsic motivation (Beta = .065, $p = .273$) was not significant. This suggests that higher levels of intrinsic motivation are associated with higher level of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. For every one unit increase in intrinsic motivation score, there is a corresponding increase of .50 in score on perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. For every one unit increase in extrinsic motivation score, there is a corresponding increase of .07 in score on perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 26.41 + .50 * \text{intrinsic motivation} + .07 * \text{extrinsic motivation}$. Table 24 summarizes the fourth regression model.

Table 24

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of International Experiences and Cooperation for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	26.412	2.441		10.820	.000
Intrinsic motivation	.508	.080	.379	6.390	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.073	.066	.065	1.097	.273

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .181$, Adjusted $R^2 = .177$, $F(2, 415) = 45.78$, $p = .000$

Findings for Research Question Four

What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?

To answer the fourth research question in this study, four regression models were run, using the data from the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993) and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005).

Model One: Worldview dimensions and perception of institutional support for global education initiatives.

The first equation had the four worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 35% of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 25 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(5, 412) = 46.14$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .3512$. An

observation of individual predictors indicates that responsibility (Beta = .425, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .256, $p = .000$), efficacy (Beta = -.171, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = .239, $p = .000$), and interconnectedness (Beta = .159, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. This suggests that higher levels of responsibility, cultural pluralism, global centrism, and interconnectedness scores are associated with higher level of overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. On the other hand, lower scores on efficacy are associated with higher level of overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = -6.26893 + .42551 * \text{responsibility} + .25654 * \text{cultural pluralism} + -.17153 * \text{efficacy} + .23944 * \text{global centrism} + .15934 * \text{interconnectedness}$. Table 25 summarizes the first regression model.

Table 25

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	-6.268	5.541	0	-1.13	.258
Responsibility	0.868	0.112	0.425	7.75	.000
Cultural pluralism	0.692	0.164	0.256	4.22	.000
Efficacy	-0.791	0.224	-0.171	-3.53	.000
Global centrism	0.631	0.135	0.239	4.67	.000
Interconnectedness	0.687	0.232	0.159	2.96	.003

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .358$ Adjusted $R^2 = .351$, $F(5, 412) = 46.14$, $p = .000$

Model Two: Worldview dimensions and perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives.

The second equation had the four worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 20% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 26 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(5, 411) = 21.43$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.197$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that cultural pluralism (Beta = 0.401, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = 0.135, $p = .018$), and interconnectedness (Beta = 0.157, $p = .008$) were significant predictors of perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives. Responsibility (Beta = .003, $p = .949$) and efficacy (Beta = .015, $p = .77$) were not significant. This suggests that higher levels of cultural pluralism, global centrism, and interconnectedness scores are associated with higher level of overall perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = -4.529 + .003 * \text{responsibility} + .256 * \text{cultural pluralism} + .401 * \text{efficacy} + .015 * \text{global centrism} + .157 * \text{interconnectedness}$. Table 26 summarizes the second regression model.

Table 26

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Internationalizing Curriculum for Global Education Initiatives through Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	4.529	2.887	0	1.57	.117
Responsibility	0.003	0.058	0.003	0.06	.949
Cultural pluralism	0.507	0.085	0.401	5.93	.000
Efficacy	0.033	0.117	0.015	0.28	.777
Global centrism	0.167	0.070	0.135	2.36	.018
Interconnectedness	0.318	0.121	0.157	2.63	.008

Note. n = 418. $R^2 = .206$ Adjusted $R^2 = .197$ $F(5, 411) = 21.43$, $p = .000$

Model Three: Worldview dimensions and perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness.

The third equation had the worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 38% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 27 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(5, 412) = 51.45$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .376$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that responsibility (Beta = .431, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = 0.241, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = .162, $p = .000$), and interconnectedness (Beta = .132, $p = .000$) are significant predictors of perception of perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Efficacy (Beta = -.071, $p = .131$) was not significant. This suggests that higher levels of responsibility, cultural pluralism, global centrism, and

interconnectedness scores are associated with higher level of overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = -6.268 + .431* \text{responsibility} + .241* \text{cultural pluralism} + -.071* \text{efficacy} + .162* \text{global centrism} + .132* \text{interconnectedness}$. Table 27 summarizes the third regression model.

Table 27

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perception of Perception of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S.E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	-3.339	4.219	0	-0.79	.429
Responsibility	0.685	0.085	0.431	8.03	.000
Cultural pluralism	0.507	0.125	0.241	4.06	.000
Efficacy	-0.257	0.170	-0.071	-1.51	.131
Global centrism	0.332	0.103	0.162	3.23	.001
Interconnectedness	0.444	0.177	0.132	2.51	.012

Note. n = 418. $R^2 = .38$, Adjusted $R^2 = .376$ $F(5, 412) = 51.45$, $p = .000$

Model Four: Worldview dimensions and perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

The fourth equation had the worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 38% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 28 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(5, 412) = 51.15$, $p = .0001$, adjusted $R^2 = .375$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that responsibility

(Beta = .401, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .243, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = .162, $p = .001$), and interconnectedness (Beta = .132, $p = .012$) were significant predictors of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. This suggests that higher levels of responsibility, cultural pluralism, global centrism, and interconnectedness scores are associated with higher level of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = -11.415 + 0.401* \text{responsibility} + 0.243* \text{cultural pluralism} + 0.162* \text{global centrism} + 0.132* \text{interconnectedness}$. Table 28 summarizes the fourth regression model.

Table 28

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of International Experiences and Cooperation for Global Education Initiatives through Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S.E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	-11.415	5.679	0	-2.01	.045
Responsibility	0.856	0.114	0.401	7.46	.000
Cultural pluralism	0.685	0.168	0.243	4.07	.000
Efficacy	0.004	0.229	0.000	0.02	.983
Global centrism	0.438	0.138	0.158	3.16	.001
Interconnectedness	0.579	0.238	0.128	2.43	.015

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .38$, Adjusted $R^2 = .375$, $F(5, 412) = 51.15$, $p = .000$

Findings for Research Question Five

What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

To answer research question five, four regression models were run, using the data from the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES), the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993) and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005).

Model One: Motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perception of institutional support for global education initiatives.

The first equation had the two facets of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 44% of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 29 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(7, 410) = 47.26, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .43$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that responsibility (Beta = .443, $p = .000$), interconnectedness (Beta = -3.249, $p = .001$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .224, $p = .000$), and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .139, $p = .005$) were significant predictors of perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. Cultural pluralism (Beta = .104, $p = .049$), efficacy (Beta = .089, $p = .079$), and global centrism (Beta = -.061, $p = .099$) were not significant. This suggests that higher levels of responsibility, interconnectedness, intrinsic motivation, and extrinsic

motivation scores are associated with higher level of overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 8.402 + .443*$ responsibility + .104* cultural pluralism +.089* efficacy + -.061* global centrism + -.159* interconnectedness + .224*intrinsic motivation + .139*extrinsic motivation. Table 29 summarizes the first regression model.

Table 29

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors and Worldview

Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	8.402	4.212		1.995	.047
Responsibility	.905	.104	.443	8.704	.000
Cultural pluralism	.227	.115	.104	1.979	.049
Efficacy	.311	.177	.089	1.759	.079
Global centrism	-.250	.151	-.061	-1.654	.099
Interconnectedness	-.604	.186	-.159	-3.249	.001
Intrinsic motivation	.287	.066	.224	4.344	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.149	.053	.139	2.823	.005

Note. n = 418. $R^2 = .447$, Adjusted $R^2 = .437$, $F(7, 410) = 47.26$, $p = .000$

Model Two: Motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives.

The second equation had the two facets of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the four worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 26% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives at an accredited

postsecondary institution. As Table 30 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(7, 409) = 20.98$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .252$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that only cultural pluralism (Beta = .437, $p = .000$) was a significant predictor of perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives. Responsibility (Beta = -.022, $p = .702$), efficacy (Beta = .140, $p = .017$), global centrism (Beta = .057, $p = .184$), interconnectedness (Beta = -.072, $p = .200$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .071, $p = .235$), and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .051, $p = .373$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 9.018 + .022 * \text{responsibility} + .437 * \text{cultural pluralism} + .140 * \text{efficacy} + .057 * \text{global centrism} + .072 * \text{interconnectedness} + .071 * \text{intrinsic motivation} + .051 * \text{extrinsic motivation}$. Table 30 summarizes the second regression model.

Table 30

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of Internationalizing Curriculum for Global Education Initiatives through Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	9.018	2.282		3.951	.000
Responsibility	-.021	.056	-.022	-.383	.702
Cultural pluralism	.447	.062	.437	7.199	.000
Efficacy	.229	.096	.140	2.400	.017
Global centrism	.108	.081	.057	1.331	.184
Interconnectedness	-.129	.100	-.072	-1.285	.200
Intrinsic motivation	.042	.036	.071	1.189	.235
Extrinsic motivation	.025	.028	.051	.891	.373

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .264$, Adjusted $R^2 = .252$, $F(7, 409) = 20.98$, $p = .000$

Model Three: Motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness.

The third equation had the two facets of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the five worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 48% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 31 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(7, 410) = 53.91, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .470$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that responsibility (Beta = .433, $p = .000$), Cultural pluralism (Beta = .160, $p = .002$), efficacy (Beta = .227, $p = .000$), interconnectedness (Beta = -.228, $p = .000$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .207, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Global centrism (Beta = -.044, $p = .222$) and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .018, $p = .710$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 6.947 + .433* \text{responsibility} + .160* \text{cultural pluralism} + .227* \text{efficacy} + -.044* \text{global centrism} + -.228* \text{interconnectedness} + .207* \text{intrinsic motivation} + .018* \text{extrinsic motivation}$.

Table 31 summarizes the third regression model.

Table 31

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	6.947	3.174		2.189	.029
Responsibility	.687	.078	.433	8.768	.000
Cultural pluralism	.272	.087	.160	3.138	.002
Efficacy	.615	.133	.227	4.614	.000
Global centrism	-.139	.114	-.044	-1.224	.222
Interconnectedness	-.672	.140	-.228	-4.797	.000
Intrinsic motivation	.207	.050	.207	4.151	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.015	.040	.018	.372	.710

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .479$ Adjusted $R^2 = .470$. $F(7, 410) = 53.91$, $p = .000$

Model Four: Motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

The fourth equation had two facets of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and the five worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 45% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 32 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(7, 410) = 47.46$, $p = .0001$, adjusted $R^2 = .438$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that responsibility (Beta = .429, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .142, $p = .007$), efficacy (Beta = .136, $p = .008$), interconnectedness (Beta = -.142, $p = .004$), and intrinsic motivation (Beta = .199, $p = .000$) were significant

predictors of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. Global centrism (Beta = -.077, $p = .040$) and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .071, $p = .152$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 7.676 + .429* \text{responsibility} + .142* \text{cultural pluralism} + .136* \text{efficacy} + -.077* \text{global centrism} + -.142* \text{interconnectedness} + .199* \text{intrinsic motivation} + .071* \text{extrinsic motivation}$.

Table 32 summarizes the fourth regression model.

Table 32

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of International Experiences and Cooperation for Global Education Initiatives Motivational Factors and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	7.676	4.395		1.746	.082
Responsibility	.915	.109	.429	8.427	.000
Cultural pluralism	.323	.120	.142	2.695	.007
Efficacy	.495	.184	.136	2.684	.008
Global centrism	-.325	.157	-.077	-2.063	.040
Interconnectedness	-.562	.194	-.142	-2.898	.004
Intrinsic motivation	.266	.069	.199	3.860	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.079	.055	.071	1.436	.152

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .448$ Adjusted $R^2 = .438$, $F(7, 410) = 47.461$, $p = .000$

Findings for Research Question Six

What combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

To answer research question five, four regression models were run, using the data from the Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey (FMF/GES), the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), the demographic questionnaire, and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005). Dummy coding was used to enter the categorical variables.

Model One: Individual, academic and motivational factors, and worldview dimensions associated with perception of institutional support for global education initiatives.

The first equation had individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and the five worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 49 % of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 33 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(22, 393) = 17.61, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .468$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that Non-Hispanic White (Beta = $-.168, p = .002$), Hispanic or Latino (Beta = $-.099, p = .016$), liberal arts

college (Beta = -.085, $p = .039$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .238, $p = .000$), responsibility (Beta=.346, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .275, $p = .000$), and efficacy (Beta = -.157, $p = .001$) were significant predictors of perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. Gender/Male (Beta = .073, $p = .070$), age under 35 years (Beta = .029, $p = .498$), age 35 – 44 years (Beta = -.043, $p = .390$), age 45 – 54 years (Beta = -.054, $p = .280$), age 65 years over (Beta = -.074, $p = .125$), Black (Beta = -.003, $p = .943$), Asian (Beta = .001, $p = .988$), American Indian (Beta = -.033, $p = .392$), assistant professor (Beta = -.015, $p = .755$), associate professor (Beta = -.012, $p = .790$), national university (Beta = .039, $p = .361$), baccalaureate college (Beta = -.035, $p = .409$), extrinsic motivation (Beta = .090, $p = .086$), global centrism (Beta = .089, $p = .088$), and interconnectedness (Beta = .036, $p = .498$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = -1.883 + .073* \text{Male} + .029* \text{age under 35 years} + -.043* \text{age 35 – 44 years} + -.054* \text{age 45 – 54 years} + -.074* \text{age 65 and over} + -.168* \text{Non-Hispanic White} + -.099* \text{Hispanic or Latino} + -.003* \text{Black or African-American} + -.001* \text{Asian or Asian American} + -.033* \text{American Indian} + -.015* \text{Assistant Professor} + -.012* \text{Associate Professor} + .039* \text{National University} + -.085* \text{Liberal Arts College} + -.035* \text{Baccalaureate College} + .238* \text{Intrinsic Motivation} + .090* \text{Extrinsic Motivation} + .346* \text{Responsibility} + .275* \text{Cultural Pluralism} + -.157* \text{Efficacy} + .089* \text{Global centrism} + .036* \text{Interconnectedness}$. Table 33 summarizes the first regression model.

Table 33

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of Institutional Support for Global Education Initiatives through Individual, Academic and Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	-1.883	6.036		-.312	.755
Male	1.497	.823	.073	1.820	.070
Age under 35 years	1.044	1.539	.029	.679	.498
Age 35 – 44 years	-.954	1.108	-.043	-.861	.390
Age 45 – 54 years	-1.211	1.118	-.054	-1.083	.280
Age 65 and over	-1.835	1.193	-.074	-1.539	.125
Non-Hispanic White	-3.703	1.197	-.168	-3.095	.002
Hispanic or Latino	-5.450	2.260	-.099	-2.411	.016
Black or African-American	-.136	1.899	-.003	-.072	.943
Asian or Asian American	.116	7.455	.001	.016	.988
American Indian	-2.410	2.813	-.033	-.857	.392
Assistant professor	-.323	1.032	-.015	-.313	.755
Associate professor	-.254	.953	-.012	-.266	.790
National university	.917	1.002	.039	.915	.361
Liberal arts college	-2.545	1.230	-.085	-2.069	.039
Baccalaureate college	-.902	1.091	-.035	-.827	.409
Intrinsic motivation	.305	.068	.238	4.463	.000
Extrinsic motivation	.096	.056	.090	1.720	.086
Responsibility	.706	.111	.346	6.379	.000
Cultural pluralism	.742	.156	.275	4.747	.000
Efficacy	-.727	.217	-.157	-3.356	.001
Global centrism	.237	.139	.089	1.709	.088
Interconnectedness	.157	.232	.036	.678	.498

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .496$, Adjusted $R^2 = .468$. $F(22, 393) = 17.615$, $p = .000$

The following base categories were used in the model: For gender, female; for age, age 55-64; for ethnicity, mix race; for academic rank, full professor; for type of institution, university Master's.

Model Two: Individual, academic and motivational factors, and worldview dimensions associated with perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives.

The second equation had individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and the five worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 27% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 34 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(22, 392) = 6.87$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .238$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that Gender/Male (Beta = .045, $p = .012$), Hispanic or Latino (Beta = -.126, $p = .011$), and cultural pluralism (Beta = .421, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives. Age under 35 years (Beta = .045, $p = .372$), age 35 – 44 years (Beta = -.022, $p = .710$), age 45 – 54 years (Beta = -.054, $p = .649$), age 65 years over (Beta = -.009, $p = .878$), Non-Hispanic White (Beta = -.112, $p = .086$), Black (Beta = .023, $p = .649$), Asian (Beta = .026, $p = .548$), American Indian (Beta = .016, $p = .734$), assistant professor (Beta = .071, $p = .227$), associate professor (Beta = -.066, $p = .238$), national university (Beta = .088, $p = .083$), liberal arts college (Beta = -.055, $p = .270$), baccalaureate college (Beta = .076, $p = .133$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .101, $p = .114$), extrinsic motivation (Beta = .020, $p = .748$), responsibility (Beta = -.032, $p = .617$), efficacy (Beta = .046, $p = .420$), global centrism

(Beta = .035, $p = .581$), and interconnectedness (Beta = .083, $p = .198$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 5.388 + .122* \text{Male} + .045* \text{Age under 35 years} + -.022* \text{Age 35 – 44 years} + -.027* \text{Age 45 – 54 years} + -.009* \text{Age 65 and over} + -.112* \text{Non-Hispanic White} + -.126* \text{Hispanic or Latino} + -.023* \text{Black or African-American} + -.026* \text{Asian or Asian American} + .016* \text{American Indian} + .071* \text{Assistant Professor} + -.066* \text{Associate Professor} + .088* \text{National University} + -.055* \text{Liberal Arts College} + .076* \text{Baccalaureate College} + .101* \text{Intrinsic Motivation} + .020* \text{Extrinsic Motivation} + -.032* \text{Responsibility} + .421* \text{Cultural Pluralism} + .046* \text{Efficacy} + .035* \text{Global centrism} + .083* \text{Interconnectedness}$. Table 34 summarizes the second regression model.

Table 34

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of Internationalizing Curriculum for Global Education Initiatives through Individual, Academic and Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	p
(Intercept)	5.388	3.385		1.592	.112
Male	1.160	.461	.122	2.514	.012
Age under 35 years	.771	.863	.045	.893	.372
Age 35 – 44 years	-.232	.622	-.022	-.372	.710
Age 45 – 54 years	-.287	.629	-.027	-.455	.649
Age 65 and over	.102	.669	.009	.153	.878
Non-Hispanic White	-1.156	.672	-.112	-1.720	.086
Hispanic or Latino	-3.256	1.267	-.126	-2.569	.011
Black or African-American	.485	1.065	.023	.455	.649
Asian or Asian American	2.512	4.181	.026	.601	.548
American Indian	.537	1.577	.016	.340	.734

Assistant professor	.704	.581	.071	1.211	.227
Associate professor	-.633	.535	-.066	-1.183	.238
National university	.984	.565	.088	1.740	.083
Liberal arts college	-.763	.690	-.055	-1.105	.270
Baccalaureate college	.921	.612	.076	1.505	.133
Intrinsic motivation	.061	.038	.101	1.585	.114
Extrinsic motivation	.010	.031	.020	.322	.748
Responsibility	-.031	.062	-.032	-.501	.617
Cultural pluralism	.532	.088	.421	6.076	.000
Efficacy	.099	.122	.046	.808	.420
Global centrism	.043	.078	.035	.553	.581
Interconnectedness	.168	.130	.083	1.288	.198

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .278$ Adjusted $R^2 = .238$. $F(22, 392) = 6.876$, $p = .000$

The following base categories were used in the model: For gender, female; for age, age 55-64; for ethnicity, mix race; for academic rank, full professor; for type of institution, university Master's.

Model Three: Individual, academic and motivational factors, and worldview dimensions associated with perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness.

The third equation had individual factors (e.g. age, gender and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and the five worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 49% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 35 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(22, 393) = 17.26$, $p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = 0.463$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that

Hispanic or Latino (Beta = -.106, $p = .010$), liberal arts college (Beta = -.085, $p = .040$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .256, $p = .000$), responsibility (Beta=.374, $p = .000$), and cultural pluralism (Beta = .237, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Gender/Male (Beta = .074, $p = .069$), age under 35 years (Beta = .070, $p = .099$), age 35 – 44 years (Beta = -.083, $p = .095$), age 45 – 54 years (Beta = -.077, $p = .122$), age 65 years over (Beta = -.060, $p = .215$), Non-Hispanic White (Beta = -.090, $p = .098$), Black (Beta = .028, $p = .510$), Asian (Beta = .029, $p = .429$), American Indian (Beta = -.066, $p = .093$), assistant professor (Beta = .026, $p = .596$), associate professor (Beta = -.033, $p = .473$), national university (Beta = .061, $p = .156$), baccalaureate college (Beta = .075, $p = .076$), extrinsic motivation (Beta = -.010, $p = .851$), efficacy (Beta = -.060, $p = .201$), global centrism (Beta = .052, $p = .324$), and interconnectedness (Beta = .040, $p = .457$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = -1.080 + .074* \text{Male} + .070* \text{Age under 35 years} + -.083* \text{Age 35 – 44 years} + -.077* \text{Age 45 – 54 years} + -.060* \text{Age 65 and over} + -.168* \text{Non-Hispanic White} + -.090* \text{Hispanic or Latino} + .028* \text{Black or African-American} + .029* \text{Asian or Asian American} + -.066* \text{American Indian} + -.015* \text{Assistant Professor} + -.033* \text{Associate Professor} + .061* \text{National University} + -.085* \text{Liberal Arts College} + .075* \text{Baccalaureate College} + .256* \text{Intrinsic Motivation} + -.010* \text{Extrinsic Motivation} + .374* \text{Responsibility} + .237* \text{Cultural Pluralism} + -.060* \text{Efficacy} + .052* \text{Global centrism} + .040* \text{Interconnectedness}$. Table 35 summarizes the third regression model.

Table 35

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of Campus and Community Activities to Increase Global Awareness through Individual, Academic and Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	<i>p</i>
(Intercept)	-1.080	4.711		-.229	.819
Male	1.170	.642	.074	1.821	.069
Age under 35 years	1.984	1.201	.070	1.652	.099
Age 35 – 44 years	-1.448	.865	-.083	-1.674	.095
Age 45 – 54 years	-1.353	.873	-.077	-1.550	.122
Age 65 and over	-1.157	.931	-.060	-1.243	.215
Non-Hispanic White	-1.548	.934	-.090	-1.657	.098
Hispanic or Latino	-4.560	1.764	-.106	-2.585	.010
Black or African-American	.978	1.483	.028	.659	.510
Asian or Asian American	4.607	5.819	.029	.792	.429
American Indian	-3.696	2.196	-.066	-1.683	.093
Assistant professor	.428	.806	.026	.531	.596
Associate professor	-.534	.744	-.033	-.718	.473
National university	1.113	.782	.061	1.423	.156
Liberal arts college	-1.978	.960	-.085	-2.060	.040
Baccalaureate college	1.514	.851	.075	1.779	.076
Intrinsic motivation	.255	.053	.256	4.784	.000
Extrinsic motivation	-.008	.044	-.010	-.188	.851
Responsibility	.593	.086	.374	6.865	.000
Cultural pluralism	.498	.122	.237	4.080	.000
Efficacy	-.217	.169	-.060	-1.282	.201
Global centrism	.107	.108	.052	.987	.324
Interconnectedness	.135	.181	.040	.745	.457

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .491$ Adjusted $R^2 = .463$. $F(22, 393) = 17.264$, $p = .000$

The following base categories were used in the model: For gender, female; for age, age 55-64; for ethnicity, mix race; for academic rank, full professor; for type of institution, university Master's.

Model Four: Individual, academic and motivational factors, and worldview dimensions associated with perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

The fourth equation had individual factors (e.g. age, gender and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and the five worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 53% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. As Table 36 indicates, the overall model revealed to be statistically significant, $F(22, 393) = 20.09, p = .000$, adjusted $R^2 = .503$. An observation of individual predictors indicates that age under 35 years (Beta = .080, $p = .050$), Non-Hispanic White (Beta = -.261, $p = .000$), associate professor (Beta = -.127, $p = .005$), liberal arts college (Beta = -.149, $p = .000$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .195, $p = .000$), responsibility (Beta = .340, $p = .000$), and cultural pluralism (Beta = .246, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives. Gender/Male (Beta = .061, $p = .122$), age 35 – 44 years (Beta = -.073, $p = .128$), age 45 – 54 years (Beta = -.035, $p = .465$), age 65 years over (Beta = -.054, $p = .246$), Hispanic or Latino (Beta = -.064, $p = .108$), Black (Beta = -.035, $p = .387$), Asian (Beta = .030, $p = .396$), American Indian (Beta = -.059, $p = .117$), assistant professor (Beta = -.041, $p = .382$), national university (Beta = .075, $p = .069$), baccalaureate college (Beta = -.045, $p = .270$), extrinsic motivation (Beta = -.011, $p = .823$), efficacy (Beta = .060, $p = .184$),

global centrism (Beta = -.028, $p = .573$), and interconnectedness (Beta = -.013, $p = .796$) were not significant. The regression equation is: $\hat{Y} = 2.204 + .061* \text{Male} + .080* \text{Age under 35 years} + -.073* \text{Age 35 – 44 years} + -.035* \text{Age 45 – 54 years} + -.054* \text{Age 65 and over} + -.261* \text{Non-Hispanic White} + -.064* \text{Hispanic or Latino} + -.035* \text{Black or African-American} + .030* \text{Asian or Asian American} + -.059* \text{American Indian} + -.041* \text{Assistant Professor} + -.127* \text{Associate Professor} + .075* \text{National University} + .149* \text{Liberal Arts College} + -.045* \text{Baccalaureate College} + .195* \text{Intrinsic Motivation} + -.011* \text{Extrinsic Motivation} + .340* \text{Responsibility} + .246* \text{Cultural Pluralism} + .060* \text{Efficacy} + -.028* \text{Global centrism} + -.013* \text{Interconnectedness}$. Table 36 summarizes the fourth regression model.

Table 36

Model Summary to Predict U.S. College Professors' Perceptions of International Experiences and Cooperation for Global Education Initiatives through Individual, Academic and Motivational Factors, and Worldview Dimensions

Predictor	B	S. E.	Beta	t	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	2.204	6.091		.362	.718
Male	1.288	.830	.061	1.551	.122
Age under 35 years	3.053	1.553	.080	1.966	.050
Age 35 – 44 years	-1.708	1.119	-.073	-1.527	.128
Age 45 – 54 years	-.825	1.128	-.035	-.731	.465
Age 65 and over	-1.399	1.203	-.054	-1.162	.246
Non-Hispanic White	-6.006	1.208	-.261	-4.973	.000
Hispanic or Latino	-3.673	2.281	-.064	-1.610	.108
Black or African-American	-1.660	1.917	-.035	-.866	.387
Asian or Asian	6.393	7.524	.030	.850	.396

American					
American Indian	-4.459	2.839	-.059	-1.571	.117
Assistant professor	-.911	1.042	-.041	-.875	.382
Associate professor	-2.732	.962	-.127	-2.840	.005
National university	1.846	1.011	.075	1.825	.069
Liberal arts college	-4.648	1.241	-.149	-3.745	.000
Baccalaureate college	-1.217	1.101	-.045	-1.106	.270
Intrinsic motivation	.262	.069	.195	3.796	.000
Extrinsic motivation	-.013	.056	-.011	-.224	.823
Responsibility	.726	.112	.340	6.502	.000
Cultural pluralism	.694	.158	.246	4.400	.000
Efficacy	.291	.219	.060	1.332	.184
Global centrism	-.079	.140	-.028	-.565	.573
Interconnectedness	-.061	.234	-.013	-.259	.796

Note. $n = 418$. $R^2 = .529$ Adjusted $R^2 = .503$ $F(22, 393) = 20.097$, $p = .000$

The following base categories were used in the model: For gender, female; for age, age 55-64; for ethnicity, mix race; for academic rank, full professor; for type of institution, university Master's.

Summary

This chapter has presented the research findings in the light of the research questions that guided this study. Descriptive statistics revealed the demographic profile of U.S. college professor, the dominant intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors that can influence their participation in internationalizing the curriculum, their dominant worldview dimensions, and their perceptions of global education initiatives. Analysis of variance revealed that there are significant differences in intrinsic motivation of assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors. There were no significant differences in their extrinsic motivation, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives (except for internationalizing

curriculum). Multiple regressions were run and revealed that motivational factors and worldview dimensions are significant predictors of the perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.

Chapter Five

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States. This chapter describes the summary of study and findings, the conclusions, the implications, and the recommendations for practice and future research.

Summary of Study and Findings

Instructional faculty members are instrumental in internationalizing the curriculum. Their favorable or unfavorable orientation toward global education initiatives might weigh significantly in their engagement to internationalizing the curriculum. Therefore, investigating the perceptions of the U.S. college professor about global education initiatives is important for planning and implementation of internationalization efforts in institutions of higher education. In other words, understanding the perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors is very critical because such perceptions may influence their willingness to incorporate global dimensions into their curriculum, teaching, research, and service projects (Knight, 2004).

This study helped determine whether relationships exist among U.S. college professor motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives. It also examined whether patterns emerged that can be used to describe or predict U.S. college professors' perceptions of global education initiatives. Data collected about U.S. college professors' worldview dimensions, motivational factors, and perceptions of global education initiatives add to the existing literature and provide clues regarding motivational factors and dimensions of worldview that are more likely associated to favorable orientation toward global education initiatives. The objectives of this study were to:

- Identify the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.
- Examine the relationship among motivational factors, dimensions of world view, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.
- Analyze the potential motivational barriers or opportunities for implementing global education initiatives in U.S. higher education institutions.

To investigate the motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by college professors in the United States, this study addressed the following questions:

Q. 1. What are the motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Q.2. What differences exist in the motivational factors, worldview dimensions,

and perceptions of global education initiatives among assistant-professors, associate professors, and full professors of U.S. colleges and universities?

Q. 3. What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?

Q. 4. What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives?

Q. 5. What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Q. 6. What combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

The model suggests that the interaction among extrinsic and intrinsic motivational factors and dimensions of worldview work concurrently with one another to affect U.S. college professors' perceptions of global education initiatives. Favorable perceptions of global education initiatives are essential for U.S. college professor willingness to integrate global dimensions in curriculum, teaching, research, and service functions in institutions of higher education, which are critical for internationalizing colleges and universities.

Summary of Research Design. A correlational research design was used in this study. The correlational research design aims to describe relationship between three or more variables, predict scores on one variable from participants' scores on other variables, or test the relationship proposed by a theoretical proposition (Burns & Grove, 1997). The survey helped assess possible correlations and linear relationships among motivational factors, world view dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. Self-report measures were obtained from:

- Faculty Motivational Factor toward Global Education Survey (Appendix A),
- Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993; Appendix B),
- Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005; Appendix C),
- Demographic Questionnaire (DQ; Appendix D).

Permission was requested and granted to administer the Global Mindedness Scale (Hett, 1993), and the Global Education Initiatives (Genelin, 2005) in a web-based format, using a commercial online survey tool, Survey Monkey (<http://www.surveymonkey.com>). The population of the study was represented by professors (assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor) of colleges and universities in the United States. A panel of 10 college professors was conveniently identified to review and provide feedback about the clarity of the survey instruments. Data for the study were collected through web-based survey over a period of thirty (30) days. A total of 1400 participants received the surveys. A total of 418 participants completed the surveys after two attempts. A response rate of 29.85% was derived by

dividing the number of responses received by the total number sent (418/1400). The data gathered from the web-based survey was downloaded and transported into the computer-based statistical package SAS. Prior to reviewing the data, assumptions for statistical analyses were assessed. The data was examined for reliability (Cronbach's alpha) and normality (e.g. skewness and kurtosis) as well as for missing data. A two-tailed alpha level of .05 was set a priori and used for all statistical tests. Additionally, Cronbach's alpha was run in order to assess internal consistency reliability for each of the scales used to collect the data. Normality, homogeneity of variance, and independence of observations have been established for the appropriate use of ANOVA.

Descriptive statistics (sample size, frequency, mean, variance and standard deviation) were used to describe the profile and distribution of the sample population (age, gender, race/ethnicity, citizenship status, type of institution, and academic rank), motivational factors, dominant worldview dimensions, and of perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.

Analysis of variance was used to (a) assess whether there are differences in motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education among assistant-professors, associate professors, and full-professors, (b) and explore combinations of between-subject and within-subject variables that may predict greater or lower mean scores among assistant-professors, associate professors, and full-professors.

Multiple regressions were run to analyze (a) What correlations exist between motivational factors of U.S. college professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives? (b) What correlations exist between world view dimensions of U.S. college

professors and their perceptions of global education initiatives? (c) What combination of motivational factors and worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors? (d) and what combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and dominant worldview dimensions best associate with perceptions global education initiatives by U.S. college professors?

Multiple regression statistical analysis was conducted using dummy coding group membership. All tests were two-tailed with a p value of .05. Adjusted values were used to estimate the strength of relationship.

Summary of Findings. Approximately 23% of the participants in this study teach at national universities, 46.2% at university – masters, 12.9% at liberal arts colleges, and 17.9% at baccalaureate colleges. Of the 418 participants who completed the survey, 139 (33.3%) were assistant professors, 158 (37.8%) were associate professors, and 121 (28.9%) were full professors.

This study underscored that the average age of the majority of instructional faculty members at higher education institutions are over 45 years old (64.6%), men (60%), and White Non-Hispanics (71.1%). These findings confirm what has already been documented in the literature regarding age, gender, and race/ethnicity of U.S. college professors (NCES, 2004, 2008). About 73% were born in the U.S., but lived abroad. Almost half of the remaining respondents include either U.S. citizen, born outside the

U.S. (6.7%) or native of another country (5.7%). This implies that a majority of U.S. college professor participants in this study have at least experienced the reality of a culture different from that of the United States. This finding can arguably be interpreted as a potential for global mindedness-based worldview dimensions. However, this finding may also be related to the fact that U.S. college professors with a cultural pluralism worldview might have been more motivated to participate in a survey on perception of global education initiatives than those with different worldview dimensions.

Also, the study revealed that the majority of U.S. college professors are married (67.5%) or members of an unmarried couple (15.1%). The percentage of professors who are divorced (10.3%) is larger than that of professors who are single (5%). This indicates that the majority of U.S. college professors have to face the challenge of reconciling the demands related to their academic career with their family lives. Sanderson, Phua, and Herda (2000) found that the opportunity to spend time with their families is a motivational factor for U.S. college professors.

The five dominant intrinsic motivational factors that will have positive or negative effects (lack thereof) on the internationalization of the curriculum by U.S. college professors were:

- Intellectual challenge,
- Opportunity to improve one's teaching,
- Personal interest (or lack thereof),
- Opportunity to develop new ideas,
- Opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction.

The five dominant extrinsic motivational factors that will have positive or negative effects on the internationalization of the curriculum by U.S. college professors were:

- More funds to support student participation in internationalized programs,
- Recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair,
- More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for off-campus courses (e.g., study abroad, exchange program),
- More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses (e.g., infusion, international subject matter courses),
- Inclusion of participation in internationalization efforts in your evaluation processes (salary increases, tenure, and promotion).

The ten dominant beliefs related to the worldview of U.S. professors with respect to their global mindedness were:

1. The United States is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries.
2. Americans can learn something of value from all different cultures.
3. It is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations.
4. I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture.
5. I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations.
6. It is important that American universities and colleges provide programs

designed to promote understanding among students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

7. I enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture.

8. It is very important to me to choose a career in which I can have a positive effect on the quality of life for future generations.

9. I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my country but also as a citizen of the world.

10. My opinions about national policies are based on how those policies might affect the rest of the world as well as the United States.

Seven of the ten dominant beliefs are included in the worldview dimension of cultural pluralism, and three belong to the dimensions of responsibility, efficacy, and interconnectedness.

The ten highest mean scores regarding the overall perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors were:

1. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to students at my college.

2. Courses with an international/global focus should be available to all students at my college.

3. Foreign language courses should be available to students at my college.

4. Preparing globally competent learners should be part of our college's mission.

5. General education courses with an international focus should be available to all students at my college.

6. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to faculty at my college.

7. My college should provide opportunities for students with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.

8. A college-wide task force/committee to advance global education initiatives should be in place at my college.

9. All students at my college should be required to complete at least one course (general education course) with an international/global focus.

10. My college should provide opportunities for faculty with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.

The dominant items reflecting the overall perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors are related to all four aspects of (a) institutional support, (b) internationalizing curriculum, (c) campus and community activities, (d) and international experiences and cooperation.

Analysis of variance revealed a significant difference for intrinsic motivational factors among assistant or associate professors, and full professors, $F(2, 415) = 4.54, p = .011$. A post-hoc comparison test, using the Tukey procedure showed statistically significant pairwise comparisons for intrinsic motivational factors, with p-values of less than .05. The mean differences revealed that assistant professors ($M = 40.44, SD = 7.15$) and associate professors ($M = 40.33, SD = 8.37$) received higher mean scores on intrinsic motivational factors than full professors ($M = 37.88, SD = 7.41$). There was no significant difference in mean scores on extrinsic motivational

factors among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors, $F(2, 415) = .026, p = .975$.

The analysis of variance revealed no significant differences on worldview dimensions of responsibility, $F(2, 415) = .263, p = .769$, cultural pluralism, $F(2, 415) = 1.43, p = .240$, efficacy, $F(2, 415) = .524, p = .592$, global centrism, $F(2, 415) = .978, p = .377$, and interconnectedness, $F(2, 415) = 2.076, p = .127$, among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors.

Analysis of variance revealed a significant difference for internationalizing curriculum among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors, $F(2, 415) = 4.65, p = .010$. A post-hoc comparison test, using the Tukey procedure showed statistically significant pairwise comparisons for internationalizing curriculum, with p-values of less than .05. The mean differences revealed that assistant professors ($M = 30.34, SD = 4.53$) and full professors ($M = 29.55, SD = 4.07$) received higher mean scores on internationalizing curriculum than associate professors ($M = 28.70, SD = 5.09$). There was no significant difference between assistant professors and full professors. There was no significant difference in mean scores on institutional support, $F(2, 415) = .138, p = .872$, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, $F(2, 415) = 1.26, p = .283$, and international experiences and cooperation, $F(2, 415) = 1.63, p = .197$, among assistant professors, associate professors, and full professors.

Intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation explain 23% of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives, 5% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing the curriculum, 17% of variance in

overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and 18% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. Intrinsic motivation (Beta = .380, $p = .000$) and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .13, $p = .022$) were significant predictors of perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. Intrinsic motivation was a significant predictor of perceptions of internationalizing the curriculum (Beta = .197, $p = .000$), campus and community activities to increase global awareness (Beta = .40, $p = .000$), and international experiences and cooperation (Beta = .379, $p = .000$) for global education initiatives. Extrinsic motivation was not a significant predictor of perception of internationalizing the curriculum for global education initiatives, campus and community activities to increase global awareness, international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

The worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 35% of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives, 20% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing curriculum, 38% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and 38% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution.. Beliefs related to responsibility (Beta = .0425, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = 0.256, $p = .000$), efficacy (Beta = -0.171, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = 0.239, $p = .000$),

and interconnectedness (Beta = 0.159, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. Cultural pluralism (Beta = 0.401, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = 0.135, $p = .018$), and interconnectedness (Beta = 0.157, $p = .008$) were significant predictors of perception of internationalizing curriculum for global education initiatives. Responsibility (Beta = .431, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = 0.241, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = 0.162, $p = .000$), and interconnectedness (Beta = 0.132, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of perception of perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Responsibility (Beta = .401, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .243, $p = .000$), global centrism (Beta = .158, $p = .000$), and interconnectedness (Beta = 0.128, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation as well as the worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 44% of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives, 26% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing curriculum, 48% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and 45% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution. Responsibility (Beta = .443, $p = .000$), interconnectedness (Beta = -3.249, $p = .001$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .224, $p = .000$), and extrinsic motivation (Beta = .139, $p = .005$) were significant predictors of

perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. Only cultural pluralism (Beta = 0.437, $p = .000$) was a significant predictor of perception of internationalizing curriculum. Responsibility (Beta = .433, $p = .000$), Cultural pluralism (Beta = .160, $p = .002$), efficacy (Beta = .227, $p = .000$), interconnectedness (Beta = -.228, $p = .000$), and intrinsic motivation (Beta = .207, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Responsibility (Beta = .429, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .142, $p = .007$), efficacy (Beta = .136, $p = .008$), interconnectedness (Beta = -.142, $p = .004$), and intrinsic motivation (Beta = .199, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

Individual factors (i.e. age, gender, and race/ethnicity), academic factors (i.e. type of institution and academic rank), motivational factors (intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation) and the worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness accounted for 49 % of variance in overall perception of institutional support for global education initiatives, 27% of variance in overall perception of internationalizing curriculum, 49% of variance in overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness, and 53% of variance in overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives at an accredited postsecondary institution.

Non-Hispanic White (Beta = -.168, $p = .002$), Hispanic or Latino (Beta = -.099, $p = .016$), liberal arts college (Beta = -.085, $p = .039$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .238, $p =$

.000), responsibility (Beta=.346, $p = .000$), cultural pluralism (Beta = .275, $p = .000$), and efficacy (Beta = -.157, $p = .001$) were significant predictors of perception of institutional support for global education initiatives. Gender/Male (Beta = .045, $p = .012$), Hispanic or Latino (Beta = -.126, $p = .011$), and cultural pluralism (Beta = .421, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of internationalizing curriculum. Hispanic or Latino (Beta = -.106, $p = .010$), liberal arts college (Beta = -.085, $p = .040$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .256, $p = .000$), responsibility (Beta=.374, $p = .000$), and cultural pluralism (Beta = .237, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Age under 35 years (Beta = .080, $p = .050$), Non-Hispanic White (Beta = -.261, $p = .000$), associate professor (Beta = -.127, $p = .005$), liberal arts college (Beta = -.149, $p = .000$), intrinsic motivation (Beta = .195, $p = .000$), responsibility (Beta=.340, $p = .000$), and cultural pluralism (Beta = .246, $p = .000$) were significant predictors of overall perception of international experiences and cooperation for global education initiatives.

Implications

The conceptual framework in this study suggests that the interaction among individual and academic factors, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors and worldview dimensions of responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness work concurrently with one another to affect U.S. college professors' perceptions of global education initiatives.

The first implication of this study relates to the fact that the population of U.S. college professors portrays a demographic profile of older white male dominance with a multiculturalism frame of reference. This multiculturalism frame of reference correlates with a cultural pluralism dimension of a global mindedness worldview, which is favorable to perceptions of global education initiatives at a postsecondary institution.

This study confirms some of the findings from previous research on intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors of U.S. college professors. As in this study, Sanderson, Phua, and Herda (2000) found that U.S. college professors are intrinsically motivated by their challenging work environment. Other studies have also revealed that intellectual challenge (Wolcott, 1999), opportunity to improve one's teaching (Rockwell, Schauer, Fritz, & Marx, 1999, Schifter, 2000), personal motivation (Marlon, 1999), opportunity to develop new ideas (Schifter, 2000; Wolcott, 1999), and opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction (Parker, 2003) are intrinsic motivational factors for U.S. college professors. On the other hand, studies found that financial support (Buchheil, Collins, & Collins, 2001; Tien, 2000) and tenure, promotion, and salary increase (Buchheil, Collins, & Collins, 2001; Chen, Gupta, & Hoshower, 2004; Tien, 2000) were extrinsic motivational factors for U.S. college professors.

Also, the dominant intrinsic motivational factors of U.S. college professors underscore the existence of opportunities for instructional faculty engagement in implementing global education goals. Higher education administrators can develop policies and design programs that relate to the intrinsic motivation of instructional faculty

with respect to intellectual challenge, opportunity to improve teaching, personal interest, opportunity to develop new ideas, and opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction. The extrinsic motivational factors of U.S. college professors also provide room for administrators of higher education institutions to influence instructional faculty engagement in global education initiatives through extrinsic rewards linked to (a) more funds to support student participation in internationalized programs, (b) recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair, (c) more funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for off-campus courses (e.g., study abroad, exchange program), (d) more funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses (e.g., infusion, international subject matter courses), and (e) including faculty participation in internationalization efforts in their evaluation processes (e.g. salary increases, tenure, and promotion).

The dominant intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors of U.S. college professors toward internationalizing curriculum confirm one of the assumptions of the theoretical framework of this research study. The assumption was that a combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors explains the motivation of U.S. college professors. The first intrinsic motivational factor is a motivating factor related to the work itself, “intellectual challenge”. The first extrinsic motivational factor refers to a hygiene factor linked to the working conditions, “more funds to support student participation in internationalized programs”. Similarly, there are other dominant factors that relate to motivating factors (e.g. opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction; recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair) or hygiene factors (e.g..

more funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses; including participation in internationalizing efforts in evaluation processes). As Herzberg (1959) indicated, the motivators identified are essential to motivate college professors toward internationalizing curriculum. The hygiene factors are inhibitors that can hinder efforts to internationalizing curriculum.

Administrators of higher education must address both the motivating and hygiene factors, because they are interconnected. For example, one of the dominant extrinsic motivational factors found in this study was “including participation in internationalization efforts in evaluation processes (e.g. salary increases, tenure, and promotion)”. This extrinsic factor has implication related to salary (hygiene factor), policy and administration (hygiene factor), and advancement (motivating factor). In other words, an extrinsic motivational factor can be at the same time an intrinsic motivational factor. Inversely, an intrinsic motivational factor can be strongly interconnected to an extrinsic motivational factor. For example, instructional faculty members may recognize the intellectual challenge offered by implementing global education initiatives (motivating factor) or the opportunity to develop new ideas (motivating factor) or embrace the opportunity to improve one’s teaching (motivating factor), yet still decide not to participate in these efforts if such involvement is perceived to delay individual progress toward earning tenure status (hygiene factor). In a previous study, Siaya and Hayward (2003) found that inclusion of international scholarship in tenure and promotion policies is a motivational factor. However, they found that only 4% of U.S. colleges and universities have such policies in place

(Siaya & Hayward, 2003). Given the essential role of tenure in a college professors' career, it appears to be very difficult to motivate them toward involvement in global education if internationalization efforts are not included in decisions related to salary increases, tenure, and promotion. In addition, the study revealed that recognition, support, and encouragement from dean or chair are strong motivational factors toward instructional faculty involvement in internationalizing curriculum. In fact, recognition, support, and encouragement from dean or chair would most likely inspire a sense of intellectual challenge and underscore opportunities to improve one's teaching, develop new ideas, and ultimately enhance personal self satisfaction of an instructional faculty member.

Furthermore, findings from this study confirm that most U.S. college professors believe that "the United States is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people from different cultures and countries," "Americans can learn something of value from all different cultures," and "it is important that American universities and colleges provide programs designed to promote understanding among students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds." They also agree that "it is important that we educate people to understand the impact that current policies might have on future generations." Furthermore, most U.S. college professors asserted that they "generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture," "enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture," "often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations," and they think of themselves not only as U.S. citizens, but as citizens of the world.

Also, they believe that it is very important for them to choose a career in which they can have a positive effect on the quality of life for future generations. Finally, they indicated that their opinions about national policies are based on how those policies might affect the rest of the world as well as the United States.

The dominant worldview dimension of U.S. college professors corresponds to cultural pluralism, which was defined by Hett (1993) as a sense of appreciation, respect, and value of cultural diversity. This dimension of worldview is a favorable ground for positive perception of global education initiatives. Hett (1993) argued that cultural pluralism is an adaptive stage of intercultural sensitivity, involving the existence of at least two cultural frames of reference. The findings of this study confirm such theorization given the fact that more than 70% of the participants who completed the survey have lived not only in the United States, but also in another culture. Other findings in the study confirmed that cultural pluralism was a significant predictor of favorable perception of internationalizing the curriculum at a postsecondary institution.

In fact, the findings revealed that most U.S. college professors agree that:

- Study abroad and international exchange opportunities, special and general education courses with an international/global focus, and foreign language courses should be available to students at their college;
- Preparation of globally competent learners should be part of their college's mission;
- Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be

available to faculty;

- Postsecondary institutions should provide opportunities for students and faculty with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community;

- An institution-wide task force/committee to advance global education initiatives should be in place at their college;

- All students should be required to complete at least one course (general education course) with an international/global focus.

The study revealed that U.S. college professors have a systematic favorable perception of implementation of global education initiatives in postsecondary institutions. The ten dominant items related to their perceptions included statement about institutional support (e.g. mission statement, college-wide task force/committee), internationalizing curriculum (e.g. foreign language, course with international focus), campus and community activities to increase global awareness (e.g. forum for faculty and students to share global experience), and international experiences and cooperation (e.g. study abroad and international exchange for faculty and students).

Previous scholars have advocated that U.S. postsecondary institutions should include the education of global competent citizens as part of their mission statement (Green & Olson, 2005; Knight, 2005; Scott, 2005). Also, the perception of institutional support by U.S. college professors in this research corroborates what other studies have emphasized in terms of the creation of college wide task force/committee for the effective implementation of global education initiatives (Qiang, 2003; Mc Carthy, 2007). It is not

enough to include “preparing globally competent learners” in a college or university mission statement. Additional steps are needed to revising curriculum, revisiting administrative policies, and developing new frameworks for global partnerships. The creation of an institution-wide task force/committee with a mandate is instrumental to that organizational transformation end.

The favorable perception of instructional faculty members toward internationalizing curriculum is very encouraging, given their instrumental role in the implementation of global education initiatives. This favorable perception is even more meaningful when considering that most U.S. college professors have a dominant cultural pluralism global mindedness worldview. However, such potential for internationalizing curriculum can be negated by the inability of higher education institutions to fill the gap between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. The favorable perception toward internationalizing curriculum will not be translated into practice if the inhibitors related to policy and administration, working conditions, and advancement are not properly addressed.

This study has also added to the literature on perception of campus and community activities to increase global awareness. Recent literature has argued that U.S. colleges and universities are becoming more active in organizing international activities on campuses (Blair & al., 2001; Altbach, 2006). However, participation in these activities tends not to be very large, because it is not mandatory. As a result, international activities on campus fail to provide the expected impact on nurturing global mindedness. In fact, mandatory participation for students to participate in at least one

international campus or community activity can be implemented at every institutional level through graduation requirements and assignments in course syllabi.

The positive perception of international experiences and cooperation by U.S. college professors is linked to a cultural pluralism worldview, which is favorable to internationalizing curriculum. Positive perception of international experiences and cooperation by U.S. college professors is also linked to intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors. Whether in terms of learning opportunities and challenges encountered, study abroad and international exchange program can be intellectually challenging for faculty and students. They can provide students opportunities to become interculturally sensitive and acquire additional international communication skills, which can be beneficial for career development or growth. With respect to faculty, their involvement in study abroad or international exchange programs can be an opportunity to develop new curriculum and instruction ideas, which can in turn impact one's personal self-satisfaction. However, as the study revealed, study abroad and international programs must be matched with more funds to support faculty and students' "study abroad/international exchanges opportunities". And, obviously, international scholarship must be part of the evaluation process with respect to tenure and promotion decisions.

A combination of individual factors (e.g. age, gender, race/ethnicity), academic factors (e.g. type of institution, academic rank), motivational factors (e.g. intrinsic and extrinsic motivation), and worldview dimensions (e.g. responsibility, cultural pluralism, efficacy, global centrism, and interconnectedness) was found to be significant predictor of perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.

The significant predictive associations between the demographic factors, academic factors, motivational factors, the worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors imply the existence of genuine openness for institutional change related to globalizing in higher education. For example, the intrinsic motivational factors underscore the potential for faculty engagement or greater faculty engagement in internationalizing curriculum. The significance of the cultural pluralism worldview dimension provides clues for types of activities, changes in organizational policies, and working conditions that can nurture both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of U.S. college professors toward global education initiatives. Intrinsic motivation was a significant predictor of perceptions of all four aspects of global education initiatives (e.g. institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities, and international experiences and cooperation) that were under consideration in this study. Similarly, cultural pluralism was a significant predictor of all four aspects of perceptions of global education initiatives. Therefore, intrinsic motivation and cultural pluralism are two of the critical assets that higher education institutions can capitalize on to foster greater faculty engagement in implementing global education initiatives. Intrinsic motivation is an asset that can positively affect instructional faculty behavior toward internationalizing curriculum and involvement in international scholarship. Cultural pluralism is not only an asset, but also a framework for global education initiatives. As an asset, cultural pluralism enables favorable perception of global education initiatives. As a framework, cultural pluralism can provide guidance in terms of types of global education activities that can better facilitate the experience of

multicultural frame of reference by U.S. college professors. Cultural pluralism is linked to some aspect of extrinsic motivational factors. In other words, although extrinsic motivation was not a significant predictor of perceptions of global education initiatives, it cannot be neglected given its interconnectedness with not only intrinsic motivation but also a cultural pluralism worldview.

The worldview dimensions of responsibility, global centrism, and interconnectedness were significant predictors of favorable perceptions of global education initiatives. These findings imply that U.S. college professors have beliefs that institution can appeal to when planning, designing, and implementing global education initiatives. Given the significance of the intrinsic motivation of U.S. college professors, global education initiatives (e.g. institutional support, internationalizing curriculum, campus and community activities, and international experience and cooperation) that offer a rationale in terms of their ability to make a difference, improve the conditions of people around the world, and advance the cause of friendship among people and cultures of the world might be appealing to many instructional faculty members. It is evident that worldview alone will not suffice to foster instructional faculty engagement toward global education initiatives. However, if faculty global mindedness worldview dimensions are coupled with intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, such a combination may foster U.S. college professors' engagement toward global education initiatives.

The findings about individual factors, academic factors, motivational factors, and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors are meaningful. However, they raise three important questions: (a)

Why is global education important? What are the limitations of global education? What is the alternative to global education?

Why is global education important? The rationale for the implementation of global education initiatives in higher learning institutions exists at both national and institutional levels. The national level involves public policy decision makers. The institutional level involves administrators of institutions of higher education.

According to Knight (2004), global education is significant for a nation-state in terms of human resource development, development of strategic economic and political alliances, opportunities offered by transnational commercial trade, nation building, and social and cultural development. From a national standpoint, the implementation of global education initiatives is a prerogative of public policy decision makers that aim to develop a knowledge economy, by enhancing the skills and abilities of a country workforce. Scott (2005) believes that the new economic, environmental, cultural, and political challenges that define international relations and trade, global security, peace, and democracy in the world justify the need for global education initiatives. Brustein (2007) argued that the United States face economic, political, and national security challenges that they will not be able to address without globally competent higher education graduates. Obviously, as Carnoy (2002) indicated, the global education-based policy of a nation depends on its financial situation, its understanding of its financial health, and its ideological orientation toward the role of the public sector in education.

From an institutional standpoint, global education at a post secondary institution has positive impacts on research and knowledge production, development of strategic

institutional alliances, profitability or income generation, international reputation, and student and staff development (Knight, 2004). Similarly, Deas and Jenkins-Deas (2006) argue that implementation of global education initiatives provides not only educational opportunities (preparation of globally competent graduates, international experiences for students and faculty, and international exposure and reputation), but also economic opportunities related to generating income in attracting international students, job creation, and import value through activity abroad programs. Also, the commodification of higher education has subjected postsecondary institutions to the management principles of the private sector, which make effective and efficient operation of such institutions vulnerable to the laws of the global economic market (Deem, 2001). U.S. higher education institutions are not immune from the direct forces of political and economic pressures, contrary to what Bourdieu (1996) argues. For example, David & Wildemeersch (2007) have explained that the lack of public funding can result in forcing institutions of higher education to seek market-based financial resources through increases in tuitions and fees. Therefore, alternative sources of income generation can be a key factor that helps a college or university make a difference. Implementation of global initiatives as indicated by Knight (2004) and Deas and Jenkins-Deas (2006) provides such opportunity. Additional financial resources can have many implications, including attracting the best quality professors as well as leading in achievement in research and productivity. In fact, Atbach (2003) asserted that the powerful universities have the lead in production and distribution of knowledge and higher academic standards. One can arguably deduct from Knight (2004), Deas and Jenkins-Deas (2006), and Atbach

(2003) that the implementation of global education initiatives contribute to the economic health, reputation, research and productivity, and higher academic standards of quality of a postsecondary institution. These factors can obviously position an institution to attract more and the best students. Frank and Cook (1995) conducted a survey that indicates students are attracted by the reputation of a college or university. One anecdote reported by Frank and Cook (1995) is that students who responded to their survey ranked Princeton University among institutions with the top 10 Law schools in U.S. although Princeton does not have a Law school. Other studies in the United Kingdom have found similar patterns of positional competitiveness of institutions of higher education based on their reputation (James, Baldwin, & McInnis, 1999, Frank, 2001, Marginson, 2006, Moogan, Baron, & Harris, 1999). One can argue that globalizing or internationalizing in higher education is not the sole strategy or approach that an institution can use to make its reputation, increase income generation, and improve its quality of teaching, learning and research productivity. It is undoubtedly one way. And it can provide a competitive advantage in comparison to institutions that are not globally oriented. Despite the documented positive impacts of the implementation of global education initiatives for a college or university, a key question remains: Are there risks for postsecondary institutions in moving away from being locally-centered to becoming more globally-centered, regarding the local realities and challenges these institutions face?" In order to answer that question, we must look at the challenges of global education.

What are the challenges of global education? The focus on global education can easily facilitate a situation in which global centrism replaces ethnocentrism at the expense

of local and national differences. Iacono and Kling (1996) argue that the drive towards the globalization of higher education can be detrimental for education, in the sense that training can take place without the necessary social interaction through which knowledge is acquired. This argument of Iacono and Kiling (1996) has its merit, but may be applicable only to some aspects of distance learning, which is just one aspect of global education. Other critiques of global education have singled out the implicit goal of the United States to sustain a major imperial enterprise through internationalizing in higher education (Smith, 2003). The assumption is that under the name of global education, global centrism can become a new version of ethnocentrism at the expense of local and national cultures, values, traditions, and beliefs. Block and Cameron (2002) explain that cultural identities can be lost easily in language courses, given the fact that “globalization changes the conditions in which language learning and language teaching take place” (p.2). The challenge is that cultural globalization has created new dilemmas for teachers who have to teach students from diverse cultural backgrounds in cultural content that may be sometimes neocolonialist or neo-imperialist (Bourdieu, 1992). Also, Cameron (2002) contends that universal standards promoted by global education initiatives often mask ethnocentrism bias. Luke (2001) suggests that the global culture carried by global education initiatives results from the interests of the transnational elite, in an effort to sustain their global hegemony. Consequently, some argue that the purpose of education is to primarily educate citizens and workers who can help improve the social, economic, cultural, and political conditions of their local and national communities (Muirhead, Graham, & al., 2002). On the other hand, one can argue that the world has become a

global village, involving the interdependence of nation-state, society, people, and culture (Sklair, 2002). The challenge is that some people are very adamant about the need to implement global education initiatives in postsecondary institutions while others are very concerned about the detrimental effects of global education on local and national differences. The alternative seems to point toward a comprehensive approach that includes aspects of global education and national/local education. This refers to the concept of “glocal education”, which is a new concept introduced in this study as a special recommendation for future research.

Glocal education as an alternative to global education. The concept of glocal education is an adaptation from glocalization, which refers to the interplay or melding between the global and the local. The term glocalization was first used during the 1980s and then popularized by the British sociologist Roland Robertson. The concept glocalization emerged as a challenge to the temptation of homogenization of globalization at the expense of differences in local traditions, values, and beliefs (Robertson, 1994). Therefore, a glocal education is used to refer to education policies and practices that provide students, faculty members, and higher education administrators a melding globalized and localized perspective of the world, through integration of global opportunities and the protection of local assets, traditions, values, and beliefs. Glocal education can (a) help satisfy the national and global goals of education, train workers qualified to work and interact locally and globally; and (b) have sustainable impacts while the local and global are no longer mutually exclusive realities.

Recommendations

Recommendations for practice. Based on the findings of the research study, the following recommendations are made for practice:

1. Introduction of glocal education practices and policies in U.S. colleges and universities in all functions of curriculum, teaching, research, and services

The integration of glocal education practices in postsecondary education has a macro and a meso dimension. The macro dimension implies the definition of a comprehensive glocal higher education policy by official decision makers. At this level, glocal higher education policy should aim to promote professional training and research that can enhance expertise in regional and international affairs and business, reinforce global leadership and security, strengthen citizen and community - based exchange programs, and encourage institutions to engage in global partnership involving research, curriculum development, and global competence mobility. The meso dimension is the translation of glocal education policies through the strategic plan of higher education institutions. This starts with the updating of the mission statement of a college or a university to reflect the willingness to internationalize higher education. In fact, the mission statement of a postsecondary institution should articulate the purpose, values, and beliefs of the organization. Additionally, it should serve to provide an understanding that the institution is serious about internationalizing higher education.

2. Harmonization of leadership with the mission statement. Updating the mission statement to reflect the willingness to internationalizing higher education is the first step. There must be commitment at the institutional leadership level to translate the mission

statement into strategic goals, objectives and action plans that coordinate and enhance international integration not only through recruiting international students and study abroad programs, but also and especially through successful development and implementation of international research, partnerships, and contracts.

The harmonization of leadership with the mission statement means that institutional decision makers exhibit strong commitment to support existing international education programs, encourage new initiatives. It also means that more resources need to be allocated and policies and procedures updated in order to empower administrators and faculty to meet benchmarks of institutional internationalization.

3. Organizational transformation. There are institutional impediments related to insufficient financial resources for international education, existing policies, administrative practices, organizational structures, and traditions, which make it difficult to develop systematic global curricula in many colleges and universities. Therefore, institutions of higher education should modify their vision, mission, strategic goals, and administrative policies and procedure to (a) include expenses for global education initiatives in budgeting, and (b) include global education involvement and achievements as additional or alternative criteria for salary, increases as well as tenure and promotion decisions. Institutions of higher education can revise their policies to make international scholarship either part of the regular criteria or an alternative route regarding tenure or promotion decisions. In particular cases, it may be necessary for a college or university to change the name of a program to reflect a global-oriented vision as well to justify funding for implementing global education initiatives.

4. Creation of an institution-wide interdisciplinary council. A college or university should create a council for global education, including a position at each college or school to support the development of curricula and standards for global education initiatives at the institution. To that end, an institution can use the conceptual framework of this research study by organizing institutional research to assess faculty motivational factors, worldview dimensions, and perceptions of global education initiatives. Such assessment will provide information about specific decisions, policies, and practices that will motivate instructional faculty engagement in international scholarship. Then, institution should compare findings from institutional research with its own support and policies regarding faculty engagement in international scholarship, so that appropriate decisions for organizational change can be made.

5. Creation of special curriculum and instructional incentive programs. Institutions can offer attractive grants for new teaching models and new approaches of cross-national partnerships. These new grants should be targeted primarily to assistant and associate professors, because the study revealed that these two groups not only have higher intrinsic motivation toward internationalizing the curriculum, but also have strong positive perceptions of global education initiatives. Given the fact that cultural pluralism is the dominant worldview dimension of most U.S. college professors, grants can provide additional incentives for travel and living abroad experiences that institutions could take into account during tenure and promotion decisions.

6. Creation of regular platforms for academic exchanges. Create regular platforms of educational exchanges for professors involved in glocal education to (a) share lessons learned from new curricula, instructional strategies, and partnerships, and (b) elaborate on implications of their practices with respect to glocal sustainability, contribution in improving quality in higher education, and contribution to the increased level of competitiveness of their institution.

7. Recognition and reward for global education initiatives and achievement. Recognizing, giving special awards and unexpected incentives to professors with documented outcomes and short-term achievements related to glocal education. This can take several forms such as

(a) Organization of regular semester events to introduce new global education programs within each college or school, or department, depending on the size of the institution;

(b) Recognition the global professor of the year for each college or school or department, or even for the entire institution, during a special annual ceremony or during the annual fall commencement.

8. Curriculum revision and adaptation. Curricula must be evaluated and adapted to provide students an international, intercultural, or global perspective and graduation requirements, which can ensure that graduates are globally competent, culturally competent, and able to perform socially, professionally, and ethically both at a national and multinational level. Thus, postsecondary institutions should revise course curricula, with the participation of instructors to include glocal dimensions in the contents wherever

it is judged academically appropriate. Glocal curricula are globally and locally oriented in their content and structure and aim to train students who can perform professionally in both national and multinational contexts. Glocal curricula involve the incorporation of an international and comparative dimensions in the preparation of global competent citizens. Glocal curricula provide an international perspective about a world that is interdependent and multicultural; and where the local can coexist with the global.

9. Motivational mentorship. Focus incentive for engagement in international scholarship on assistant and associate professors through mentorship and incentive that can sustain effective and productive mentor-mentee relationships. Incentives can include stipend for faculty to travel abroad in well planned, designed global partnership programs or funds for faculty to take their sabbaticals abroad. Full professors and associate professors with track records of international scholarship can serve as mentors and have assistant professors assigned to them as mentees. Mentorship for international scholarship will provide recognition opportunities for mentors and constitute an intellectual challenge for mentees.

10. Campus and community activities for global mindedness. Institutions can organize and encourage the organization of institution-wide conferences, forums, seminars, symposiums that provides platforms for celebration and global experience sharing by students, faculty members, local and international guests. These activities could also serve as forums where administrators, professors, students, and business and community leaders can share best practices, challenges, and opportunities for global education.

Recommendations for future research. This study has enhanced research on U.S. college professor's demographic profile, motivational factors, worldview dimensions, perceptions of global education initiatives as well as factors that are most likely associated with perceptions of global education initiatives. The results of this study suggest opportunities for further research. Further studies should be conducted to:

1. Assess whether there are significant differences in motivational factors, worldview dimensions and perceptions of global education initiatives among professors from various fields of study. Some participants who received the survey and declined to participate argue that their fields of study (i.e. Physics, Mathematics) have no need for internationalizing the curriculum, because such fields transmit universally accepted knowledge. Another participant referred to global education as “propaganda” in which university teaching should not be involved. Further study would be helpful to explore how perceptions of global education initiatives vary across fields of study.

2. Conduct case studies, qualitative inquiries, and longitudinal studies to assess best practices of global education initiatives that might have significantly contributed to improve quality in higher education and increase the level of global competitiveness of a postsecondary institution.

3. Conduct meta-analysis to assess significant patterns and best practices in implementing global education initiatives.

4. Conduct exploratory as well as validation studies on the concept, principles, approaches, and practices of glocal education.

5. Replicate the conceptual framework of this study on a random sample of U.S. community college instructional faculty members.

6. Include field of study and citizenship in linear regression models of future research using the conceptual framework of this study.

7. Investigate how college professors across academic rank, type of institution, field of study, race/ethnicity, citizenship, and gender define global education, global learning, and global competence.

8. Assess what college professors across academic rank, type of institution, field of study, race/ethnicity, citizenship, and gender consider as best practices of curriculum development, instructional approaches, and cross-cultural collaboration in the context of implementing global education initiatives.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Faculty Motivational Factors toward Global Education Survey

What is the effect (negative or positive) that each of the following could have in the internationalization of the curriculum?

Please check next to the answer corresponding to your choice!

1. Your personal interest (or lack thereof).

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

2. Relevance (or lack thereof) to your job.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

3. Student interest (or lack thereof) in internationalized curricula.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Appendix A (Continued)

4. Your international knowledge/expertise (or lack thereof).

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

5. Your ability (or lack thereof) to develop internationalized curricula (e.g., you may have the necessary international knowledge but you are not sure of how to use it effectively in your classes).

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

6. Opportunity to develop new ideas.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Appendix A (Continued)

7. Opportunity to improve my teaching.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

8. Intellectual challenge.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

9. Opportunity for scholarly pursuit.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Appendix A (Continued)

10. Opportunity to enhance personal self-satisfaction.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

11. Release time from teaching (or other duties) for you to internationalize your curriculum.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

12. Development and availability of internationalized instructional materials for you to choose from, adapt, and use in your classes.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Appendix A (Continued)

13. Seminars and workshops to assist you in your curriculum development and internationalization efforts.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

14. More funds for participation in international programs, sabbaticals, and other related professional development opportunities.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

15. More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for on-campus courses (e.g., infusion, international subject matter courses).

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Appendix A (Continued)

16. More funds to support curriculum development and internationalization for off-campus courses (e.g., study abroad, exchange program).

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

17. Including your participation in internationalization efforts in your evaluation processes (salary increases, tenure, promotion).

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

18. More funds to support student participation in internationalized programs.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Appendix A (Continued)

19. Recognition, support and encouragement from dean or chair.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

20. Expectation by institution that faculty participate in global education initiatives.

- negative
- somewhat negative
- neutral
- somewhat positive
- positive

Thank you!

Appendix B: Global Mindedness Scale (GMS)

On the following pages you will find a series of statements. Please read each statement then blacken in the letter on the bubble sheet that most accurately reflects your opinion. There are no “correct” answers.

Strongly Disagree = A Disagree = B Unsure = C Agree = D Strongly Agree = E

1. I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with
people from another culture. A B C D E
2. I feel an obligation to speak out when I see our government doing something
I consider wrong internationally. A B C D E
3. The United States is enriched by the fact that it is comprised of many people
from different cultures and countries. A B C D E
4. Really, there is nothing I can do about the problems of the world. A B C D E
5. The needs of the United States must continue to be our highest priority in
negotiating with other countries. A B C D E
6. I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations.
A B C D E
7. When I hear that thousands of people are starving in an African county,
I feel very frustrated. A B C D E
8. Americans can learn something of value from all different cultures. A B C D E
9. Generally, an individual’s actions are too small to have a significant effect
on the global ecosystem. A B C D E

Appendix B (Continued)

10. Americans should be permitted to pursue the standard of living they can afford if it only has a slight negative impact on the environment. A B C D E
11. I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my county but also as a citizen of the world. A B C D E
12. When I see the conditions some people in the world live under, I feel a responsibility to do something about it. A B C D E
13. I enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture. A B C D E
14. My opinions about national policies are based on how those policies might affect the rest of the world as well as the United States. A B C D E
15. It is very important to me to choose a career in which I can have a positive effect on the quality of life for future generations. A B C D E
16. American values are probably the best. A B C D E
17. In the long run, America will probably benefit from the fact that the world is becoming more interconnected. A B C D E
18. The fact that a flood can kill 50,000 people in Bangladesh is very depressing to me. A B C D E
19. It is important that American universities and colleges provide programs designed to promote understanding among students of different ethnic and cultural backgrounds. A B C D E
20. I think my behavior can impact people in other countries A B C D E

Appendix B (Continued)

21. The present distribution of the world's wealth and resources should
be maintained because it promotes survival of the fitters A B C D E
22. I feel a strong kinship with the worldwide human family. A B C D E
23. I feel very concerned about the lives of
people who live in politically repressive regimes. A B C D E
24. It is important that we educate people to
understand the impact that current policies might have on
future generations. A B C D E
25. It is not really important to me to consider myself
as a member of the global community. A B C D E
26. I sometimes try to imagine how a person who
is always hungry must feel. A B C D E
27. I have very little in common with people in
Underdeveloped nations. A B C D E
28. I am able to affect what happens on a global level by
what I do in my own community A B C D E
29. I sometimes feel irritated with people from
other countries because they don't understand how we do things. A B C D E
30. Americans have a moral obligation to share their
wealth with the less fortunate peoples of the world. A B C D E

Appendix C: Global Education Initiatives

Please use the following definitions in answering the survey questions:

A globally competent learner is able to understand the interconnectedness of people and systems, has a general knowledge of history and world events, accepts, copes, and appreciates the existence of different cultural values, attitudes, and diversity.

Global education initiatives are defined as programs and activities designed to increase global awareness in the college and to support the process by which students become a globally competent learner.

DIRECTIONS: Each item below describes a global education initiative. To the right of each item indicate how important you perceive each initiative should be at your college.

Use the following scale:

- (1) Not important at all,
- (2) Somewhat unimportant,
- (3) Neutral,
- (4) Somewhat important,
- (5) Very important.

-
1. Preparing globally competent learners should be part of our college's mission.
 2. A college-wide plan designed to increase global awareness in my college should be in place.
 3. A college-wide task force/committee to advance global education initiatives should be in place at my college.

Appendix C (Continued)

4. There should be a designated administrative office at my college to coordinate and support global education initiatives.
5. My college should provide faculty activities to help increase faculty global awareness.
6. My college should provide faculty activities designated to help faculty develop courses with an international global focus.
7. Foreign language courses should be available to students at my college.
8. Study of a foreign language should be a requirement for graduation at my college.
9. General education courses with an international focus should be available to all students at my college.
10. General education requirements at my college should include at least one course with an international focus.
11. Courses with an international/global focus should be available to all students at my college.
12. All program completion requirements at my college should include at least one course with an international/global focus.
13. All students at my college should be required to complete at least one course (general education course) with an international/global focus.
14. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to faculty at my college.
15. Study abroad and international exchange opportunities should be available to students at my college.

Appendix C (Continued)

16. Study abroad and exchange opportunities should be available to administrators at my college.
17. My college should sponsor student extracurricular activities with an international/global focus.
18. My college should require students participation in college-sponsored, on campus activities designed to increase global awareness.
19. My college should sponsor community forums on global issues.
20. My college should provide opportunities for faculty with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.
21. My college should provide opportunities for students with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.
22. My college should provide opportunities for business and community members with international/global experience to share their experience with the college community.
23. Students international clubs or organizations should be available at my college.
24. Staff development experience to help develop global competency should be provided for all employees at my college.
25. My college should recruit international students to the college.
26. My college should recruit faculty with international experience or who are from another country.

Appendix C (Continued)

27. My college should recruit administrators with international experience or who are from another country.
28. Faculty members at my college should attend conferences/meetings with an international focus.
29. Administrators at my college should attend conferences/meetings with an international focus.
30. Students at my college should be encouraged to attend conferences/meetings with an international focus.
31. My college would benefit from having a partner relationship with an institution in another country.
32. Faculty members at my college should travel to international conferences/meetings.
33. Administrators at my college should travel to international conferences/meetings.
34. Students at my college should travel to international conferences/meetings.
35. My college should provide funding to support faculty efforts to develop global education initiatives.
36. My college should provide funding to support faculty participation in global education initiatives.
37. My college should fund faculty efforts to provide courses with an international/global focus.
38. My college should provide funding to support faculty study abroad/international exchanges opportunities.

Appendix C (Continued)

39. My college should provide funding to support student study abroad/international exchanges opportunities.
40. My college should provide funding to support administrator study abroad/international exchanges opportunities.
41. My college should actively seek funding from outside the college to support global education initiatives.
42. My college should fund an institutional membership in an international education association.

Appendix D: Demographic Questionnaire

Please complete the following demographic information:

1. Age: _____

2. Gender: Male_____ Female_____

3. Race/ethnicity: How do you describe yourself? (Please check the one option that best describes you)

___ American Indian or Alaska Native

___ Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander

___ Asian or Asian American

___ Black or African American

___ Hispanic or Latino

___ Non-Hispanic White

___ Mix Race

4. Birth/living abroad: Were you born outside the U.S., living outside the U.S. or you are a native of another country?

___ Born in the United States

___ U.S. citizen, born outside the U.S.

___ Born in the U.S., but lived abroad

___ Native of another country

Appendix D (Continued)

5. Marital status: Are you

- Married
- Divorced
- Widowed
- Separated
- Never been married
- A member of an unmarried couple

6. What is the highest degree you earned?

- Master's degree (MA, MS, MBA, etc)
- Doctoral degree (PhD, EdD, etc)
- Professional degree (MD, JD, etc)

7. How long have you been teaching at the college level? _____ years

8. And current income: What is your current personal income in U.S. dollars?

- \$ 30,000 - \$39,999
- \$ 40,000 - \$ 49,999
- \$ 50,000 - \$ 59,999
- \$ 60,000 - \$ 69,000
- \$ 70,000 - \$ 79,000
- \$ 80,000 - \$ 89,000
- \$ 90,000 - \$ 99,000
- \$ 100,00 +

Appendix D (Continued)

9. Academic rank: What is your current academic rank?

Assistant professor

Associate professor

Full professor

10. Were you or are you involved in an international education program (e.g. study abroad program, program for international students in U.S., etc)?

Was involved in an international education program

Currently involved in an international education program

Never been involved in an international education program

11. Your institution is a:

National university

University - master's

Baccalaureate college

Liberal arts college

13. What is your field of teaching? _____

14. What is your primary area of research interest? _____

Appendix E: Survey Cover Letter Email

From: ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu

Sent: Wednesday, January 06, 2010 5:56 PM

To:

Subject: U.S. Faculty Motivation Survey

Emmanuel Jean Francois

8700 N. 50th Street, Apt. 227

Tampa, FL 33617

Email: ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu

Dear Professor:

My name is Emmanuel Jean Francois. I am a doctoral student in the department of Adult, Career, and Higher Education, at the University of South Florida. I am conducting a dissertation research study to investigate motivational factors and worldview dimensions that may be associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors.

Global education or internationalizing in higher education implies the integration of international, intercultural or global dimensions in curriculum, instruction, research, and service functions of colleges and universities. There is no study that investigated whether some motivational factors and worldview might be associated with perceptions

Appendix E (Continued)

of global education initiatives. Findings from this research can provide insights for transformational changes in higher education institutions in the U.S. I am requesting your participation in this study.

Your name was randomly selected from a list of professors published on the website of your institution. Your participation is indispensable to enable me to gather information that is specific to faculty of U.S. colleges and universities. Your participation is strictly voluntary. You may decide not participate or withdraw from the study at any time. Completion of the questions implies consent to participate in the study.

If you are willing to participate in the study, you will be asked to provide responses in four sections related to (a) demographic information, (b) motivational factors, (c) worldview dimensions, (d) and perceptions of global education initiatives. The survey will require approximately 10 minutes of your time.

The survey questions do not pose any risk to participants. Your responses will be separated from any identifying information when the survey is submitted. All research data will be kept secured in a password protected file that only the researcher can access. The data and results from the survey will be presented in aggregate form only. The results of the study will be ready for electronic dissemination no later than January 2011. If you wish to receive a copy of the aggregate results, you can email the researcher at ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu or ejeanfra@gmail.com. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at (813) 562-3323 or by email. If you have additional questions about your rights as participant in this study, you may contact my major professor Dr. William

Appendix E (Continued)

H. Young, III (williamyoung@usf.edu, Tel. (813- 813-974-1861) or the USF - Division of Research Integrity & Compliance at (813) 974-9343.

Please complete the survey by January 15, 2010!

To begin taking the survey, please click on the following link:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=Xcn3TvD3ceXG5U3dQOWnMg_3d_3d

To access the survey, enter the following password:

Your participation is greatly valued and appreciated.

Thank you again for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Emmanuel Jean Francois

8700 N. 50th Street, Apt. 227

Tampa, FL 33617

Email: ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu

Tel. (813) 562-3323

http://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx?sm=Xcn3TvD3ceXG5U3dQOWnMg_3d_3d

d

Appendix F: Follow-up Email

To:

Subject: U.S. Faculty Motivation – Reminder

Dear professor,

I emailed you regarding my dissertation research on motivational factors and worldview dimensions associated with perceptions of global education initiatives by U.S. college professors. If you have already completed the survey, please accept my sincere thanks. You do not have to redo it. If not, I would appreciate you to complete the survey.

The survey was sent only to randomly selected participants. It is important to receive your response so that the findings reflect the perception of college professors in the United States. I understand that you may have been out of office or had to focus on finalizing your course materials for the spring session. However, I bet on the fact that you have been there (during your doctoral journey) and you can understand how critical your contribution in completing the survey will be for my dissertation research. Please, do me a favor as you would to one of your students or colleagues: Complete the survey by January 24, 2009, if you had not done so yet!

If you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at (813) 562-3323 or email ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu.

Appendix F (Continued)

You can begin taking the survey by going to the following link:

http://www.surveymonkey.com/s.aspx?sm=UMVNEqK2DHdS17Z36hkh1w_3d_3d

Sincerely,

Emmanuel Jean Francois

http://www.surveymonkey.com/optout.aspx?sm=UMVNEqK2DHdS17Z36hkh1w_3d_3d

Appendix G: Letters of Request and Authorization

University of South Florida
Emmanuel Jean Francois
8700 N. 50th Street, apt. 227
Tampa, FL 33617
Email: ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu
Tel. (813) 562-3323

February 26, 2009

Mary Scherr, PhD
University of San Diego
School of Leadership and Education Sciences
5998 Alcalá Park
San Diego, CA 92110

Dear Dr. Mary Scherr:

My name is Emmanuel Jean Francois. I am a doctoral candidate in the College of Education at the University of South Florida (Tampa, Florida). I am working on my

Appendix G (Continued)

dissertation, which is on “Global mindedness of College and University Professors in the United States”.

I found the Global mindedness scale developed by E. Jane Hett fits very well the purpose of my study. I would like to use your scale to collect my data. I understand that you are a contact person with respect to the use of this scale. Could you please grant me written permission to use the scale and send me an update copy of the instrument (if any) as well as information about its coding and validation? Upon completion of my dissertation, I will be more than happy to send you a copy of my research findings.

I thank you in advance for your consideration. I look forward to hearing from you as soon as you can.

Sincerely,

=====

Emmanuel Jean Francois, MS
PhD candidate in Adult Education
University of South Florida (US)
Tel. (813) 562-3323

Appendix G (Continued)



March 11, 2009

University of South Florida
Emmanuel Jean Francois
8700 N. 50th Street, apt. 227
Tampa, FL 33617

Dear Mr. Francois:

I want to extend my best wishes to you for much success with your dissertation. We are pleased you plan to use Jane Hett's Global Mindedness Scale. She was an excellent student fully committed to global peace.

Appendix G (Continued)

Enclosed you will find a letter of authorization from Dallas B. Boggs, the husband of E. Jane Hett, who is now deceased.

Sincerely,

Beth Yemma

Assistant Director of Leadership Programming

Department of Leadership Studies
School of Leadership and Education Sciences
5998 Alcalá Park, San Diego, CA 92110-2492
Phone (619) 260-4637 • Fax (619) 849-8175•

www.sandiego.edu/soles/leadstudies



University of San Diego

School of Leadership and Education Sciences

28 September 1993

MEMORANDUM

For: Dr. Mary Scherr

From: Dallas Boggs

Subject: Doctoral Dissertation of Dr. E. Jane Hett

It is my pleasure to authorize you to share any or all portions of subject dissertation for educational and/or research purposes, as you deem appropriate.


Dallas B. Boggs

September 30, 1993

The above authorization is signed by Dallas Boggs, the husband of E. Jane Hett, who is now deceased.

Mary Woods Scherr, Ph.D.
Dissertation Director

Appendix G (Continued)

University of South Florida

Emmanuel Jean Francois

8700 N. 50th Street, apt. 227

Tampa, FL 33617

Email: ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu

Tel. (813) 562-3323

December 3, 2008

South Central College

Dr. Nancy Genelin, Ed.D

Vice-President of Academic Affairs

1920 Lee Boulevard

North Mankato, MN 56003

Dear Dr. Nancy Genelin:

My name is Emmanuel Jean Francois. I am a doctoral student in the College of **Education** at the University of South Florida (Tampa, Florida). I am working on my

Appendix G (Continued)

dissertation, which is on "Perceptions of Global Education Initiatives by College and University Professors in the United States".

I found out that you already developed "Global Education Initiatives Scale", which fits very well the purpose of my study. I would like to use your scale to collect my data. Could you please grant me written permission to use the scale and send me an update copy of the instrument (if any) as well as information about its coding and validation?

Upon completion of my dissertation, I will be more than happy to send you a copy of my research findings.

I thank you in advance for your consideration. I look forward to hearing from you as soon as you can.

Sincerely,

Emmanuel Jean Francois, MS

Appendix G (Continued)

from Nancy Genelin <Nancy.Genelin@southcentral.edu> [hide details](#) 12/31/08
to ● Emmanuel Jean
Francois <ejeanfra@mail.usf.edu>
date Dec 31, 2008 1:33 PM
subject RE: Permission request
mailed-by southcentral.edu

I apologize for the lateness of this reply. I had been on vacation and upon my return this e-mail had gotten buried in my files. You do have my permission to use the Global Education Initiatives Scale that I developed as long as it is credited to me. I have not done any updating of the scale.

About the Author

Emmanuel Jean Francois has completed his bachelor's degree in Anthropology and Sociology at the State University of Haiti, in 1994. In 1996, he obtained a diploma in Pedagogy (Secondary education teaching) from University Institute of Education Science. In 2000, he obtained a postgraduate diploma in Population and Development from the State University of Haiti. In 2005, Emmanuel earned a Master's degree with honor, in Human Services (Organization Management and Leadership), from Springfield College. From 2007 to 2008, Emmanuel served as campus coordinator for an international program in leadership at the University of South Florida (USF). In 2008, Emmanuel obtained a graduate certificate in college teaching from USF. Emmanuel is an adjunct professor of Human Services, at Springfield College, since 2007. He is also a research coordinator at the Moffitt Cancer and Research Institute since 2008. He is the author of the book "DREAM model to start a small business".