

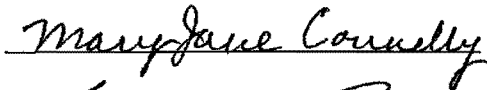
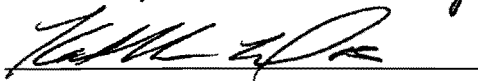
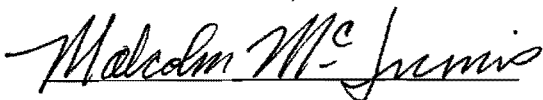
To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Trevor Nelson entitled "An Analysis of Study Abroad Administration at U.S. Colleges and Universities." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Education, with a major in Leadership Studies in Education.

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Karl Jost, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

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Associate Vice Chancellor
and Dean of The Graduate School

AN ANALYSIS OF STUDY ABROAD ADMINISTRATION
AT U.S. COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Education Degree
The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Trevor Nelson

August 1995

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine the organizational structures and practices that appear to characterize successful study abroad operations in U.S. colleges and universities. The researcher was also interested to know if these differ from the organizational structures and practices of less successful operations. Institutional members of NAFSA: Association of International Educators affiliated with the Section on U.S. Students Studying Abroad (SECUSSA) were surveyed by means of a questionnaire. A total of 348 usable questionnaires (a 52.6% response rate) were returned from universities and four year colleges which were then placed into four groups—large private, small private, large public and small public institutions. Within these four groups were two success levels based on the percentage of enrolled students awarded study abroad credit.

Significant chi-square values ($p < .05$) were found between institutional success and a) the location of the study abroad office within academic affairs at both large and small public institutions, b) length of time an institution has had involvement in study abroad, specifically the age of the study abroad office and when the first study abroad programs was offered and c) use of sources other than central funds for the study abroad offices operating budget at both large and small public institutions. No significant chi-square values were found between a) the presence of a centralized structure for international education reporting to a senior academic administrator whose primary responsibility is for international education, b) faculty status of the director of the study abroad office, and c) the academic qualifications of the director. Pearson product-moment correlations were also performed, and significant values were found between institutional success and number of study abroad programs offered at large private ($r = .209$) and large public ($r = .578$) schools. No significant values were found between institutional success and the degree of centralization of study abroad administration within the study abroad office.

Qualitative research is recommended at the most successful institutions since aggregate data easily overlook unique responses that have proven successful. Both qualitative and quantitative research is needed at community colleges.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

In 1979, following a year-long investigation, the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies issued a scathing critique of the state of international studies and language training in the U.S. The Commission stated the need to maintain a "first-class apparatus to enable Americans to cope with a changing world" (p. 4). It was their opinion that this apparatus was woefully inadequate and diminished U.S. capability in the areas of diplomacy, foreign trade, and the understanding U.S. citizens have of the world in which they live and compete. Their report stated:

A nation's welfare depends in large measure on the intellectual and psychological strengths that are derived from perceptive visions of the world beyond its own boundaries. On a planet shrunk by the technology of instant communications, there is little safety behind a Maginot Line of scientific and scholarly isolationism. In our schools and colleges as well as in our public media of communications, and in the everyday dialogue within our communities, the situation cries out for a better comprehension of our place and our potential in a world that, though it still expects much from America, no longer takes American supremacy for granted. Nor, the commission believes, do this country's children and youths, and it is for them, and their understanding of their own society, that an international perspective is indispensable. Such a perspective is lacking in most educational programs now. (p. 2)

The Commission found that 40% of 12th graders were unable to place Egypt correctly on a map and that 20% were equally ignorant of France and China. Only 15% of American high school students studied a foreign language, and this had dropped 24% since 1965. It concluded that "Americans' incompetence in foreign language is nothing short of scandalous" and that "our schools graduate a large majority of students whose

knowledge and vision stops at the American shoreline, whose approach to international affairs is provincial, and whose heads have been filled with astonishing misinformation" (p. 7).

Almost ten years after the Commission's report, the situation remained largely unchanged. The Report of the Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange (1988) contains some very revealing statistics suggesting that, while the U.S. continued to become increasingly interdependent with other nations, little progress had been made to educate our students to compete globally. The report notes:

- The U.S. is the only major world power with no language requirement for entering its foreign service. Key posts are filled by ambassadors who do not speak the local language and cannot read the local newspaper.
- Forty percent of American foreign-area scholars cannot conduct research in the language of their specialty.
- Only three percent of American high school graduates and only five percent of our college graduates reach a meaningful proficiency in a second language—despite the fact that many of them come from bilingual homes.
- As recently as three years ago, 33 states did not require any foreign language study in high school, and one of every five high schools did not offer any foreign language instruction at all.
- The U.S. continues to be one of the only nations in the world where a student can graduate from college without ever having studied a foreign language.
- Fewer than one percent of the U.S. military personnel stationed abroad are able to use the language of their host country.
- Thirty-four states require no world history course in their high schools. (p. 4)

Brademas (1987), former congressman from Indiana and President of New York University, noted that Americans' deficiency in knowledge of international affairs has serious foreign policy implications:

Unfortunately for the United States and the world, the current scandal surrounding U.S. actions in Iran is but the latest in a series of foreign policy failures that have marred the past 40 years of American history—all of these lapses are traceable in part to our ignorance of other countries. Poor planning and lack of essential information defined the early dealings of the Eisenhower and Kennedy Administrations with Fidel Castro's Cuba. In Southeast Asia and throughout the Middle East, incomprehension has too frequently characterized American policy, with tragic consequences. Indeed, no postwar Administration—Republican or Democratic—has been free of serious setbacks in guiding American relations with other countries of the world. (p. 6)

Brademas argues that the U.S., because it is the strongest democracy and peopled by immigrants with deep interests in other lands, has a special responsibility to know about other countries. Further, he argues that it is in our national interest to know more about other nations. He states:

The globe we inhabit is small, interdependent, and fragile, physically and politically. Hostages in Lebanon; terrorism in Paris; civil strife in Central America; a nuclear disaster in the Ukraine; a toxic chemical spill in Switzerland; rising resistance to apartheid in South Africa; secret, illegal arms sales to Iran—the consequences of such developments reach beyond national borders. (p. 7)

DiBiaggio (1988), former President of Michigan State University, calls for a reverse in our "... national decline into ignorance about the world and international affairs" (p. 2). He argues that the need for international and foreign studies has never been greater because patterns of global interaction are increasingly complicated. This situation calls for leaders of industry, commerce and government who are able respond effectively to international challenges. This knowledge will be gained, for the most part, during the college years. He states:

Some of the issues our graduates will be facing are approachable only on a global basis. Even if we leave aside our economic and political concerns, as tied as they are to forces beyond our national borders, the issues of serious environmental degradation that will face humanity generally cry

our for international approaches. The serious issues of disease control, AIDS being but one example, call for a global perspective and international measures.

A global perspective will also be required in any serious attack on the problems that illegal drugs present to our society. Absent international efforts and a comprehensive perspective, the issues of migration, illegal immigration, and ethnic conflict will continue to impact on our nation. In fact, given our nation's role in the world and the nature of our interdependence with many other countries near and far, we should ask, Are there any issues or problems in our society that do not have international, even global, significance or that can be approached successfully without an international or global perspective? (p. 4)

The National Governors' Association (1989) Report of the Taskforce on International Education in, an attempt to articulate the role of the state in the provision of international education, states:

Twenty years ago, states were bystanders as international events changed the economic landscape. That too has changed. Our boundaries are no longer the borders of our states, but every corner of the globe

How are we to sell our products when we neglect to learn the languages of the customer? How are we to open overseas markets when other cultures are only dimly understood? How are our firms to provide international leadership when our schools are producing insular students?

The imperatives are clear:

It is time to learn languages.

It is time to learn geography.

It is time to change our thinking about the world around us. For we cannot compete in a world that is a mystery. (pp. 9-10)

In emphasizing the role of international education for U.S. economic competitiveness, the report recommended seven objectives for state action that would impact the provision of K-12 and post-secondary education and the relationship between education and the business community. With reference to higher education, the report stated as an objective that "All college and university graduates must be knowledgeable

about the broader world and conversant in another language" (p. 10). In order to realize this objective, the report suggested states can:

- Increase language and social studies requirements for admission to state colleges and universities.
- Require an international element in all majors.
- Reward programs that have an international emphasis. Incentives can be an effective means for states to encourage new and varied programs with an international focus.
- Help institutions of higher education share their academic expertise with school districts and the business community.
- Develop opportunities for students to participate in international exchange study programs and for international students to study in the United States. (p. 28)

While the obvious weakness of U.S. education to prepare students for a complex and interdependent world is increasingly recognized, the philosophical orientations of international education advocates are diverse. Aigner et al. (1992) argue these can be divided into three distinct orientations including: an emphasis on international security, economic competitiveness, and the need to foster human understanding. While these orientations have existed for some time, the last fifteen years have seen a coming together of various interest groups who have been both more urgent and compelling in their appeals for greater internationalization of education.

The pressure to internationalize emanates from a rare alliance between conservatives who feel that in order to compete economically, we need to know more about the world, and liberals who feel that the future of humankind depends on our ability to cooperate. All are agreed that our citizenry in general and our educational institutions in particular are insufficiently alert to changes in the world and inadequately prepared to deal with them. (Tonkin and Edwards, 1990, p. 14)

Most efforts to better prepare our students internationally, including the President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (1979), the Commission on National Challenges in Higher Education (1988), the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (1988), and the National Governors' Association (1989) recognize the need to increase the number of students who study abroad. The President's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (1979) states: "For students, whatever their field of interest, carefully planned experience abroad can have a lifelong impact on values and on concern for and understanding of other cultures" (p. 102).

More recently, a number of reports have been published citing the need for dramatic increases in rates of study abroad participation. The Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange (1988), the Liaison Group for International Educational Exchange (1989), and the National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad (1990) all call for the number of U.S. students studying abroad to be raised to 10% of the total college and university student population. Currently, less than 2% of college students study abroad for college credit.

This is a lofty goal and one that may or may not be achievable; however, it is clear that there is growing support for this type of activity within academia and increasing interest on the part of students to incorporate study abroad into their undergraduate education. It is timely, therefore, to begin to evaluate the administration of study abroad to determine those models that appear to be most successful.

Statement of the Problem

There is little research on the administration of study abroad at U.S. colleges and universities. Much of what exists has been incorporated into studies that have a broader focus—specifically, international education and the internationalization of the campus. There are two important studies on these topics that are germane to this discussion and are briefly described below in order to provide some background.

Harari's 1983 study Internationalizing the Curriculum and the Campus: Guidelines for AASCU Institutions provides a series of recommendations based on the results of a 34-item survey instrument sent to members of the Association of American State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) in the Fall of 1980. The survey elicited a response rate of 77.19% or 264 institutions and was supplemented by data available to AASCU. The study attempts to capture the degree of internationalization of each campus, arriving at four categories with increasing degrees of internationalization. A fifth category was also included denoting international development programs with less- developed countries. Variables included, but were not limited to, seeking of grants and success rates, existence of ethnic and international studies, size and location of the institution, international requirements for graduation, institutional and international budgets, study abroad programs, international students, etc.

Lambert's (1989) International Studies and the Undergraduate was less broad in scope than Harari's study, focusing on the provision of study abroad, foreign language instruction, and international studies courses and concentrations. The research, sponsored by the American Council on Education, involved the review of 10,467 internationally-focused courses offered at 42 institutions; the transcript analysis of 8,439 students in the 1986 graduating classes of 34 institutions; a survey questionnaire to determine current

status of international studies mailed to 500 representative colleges and universities; and site visits to 45 institutions.

These studies, and conventional wisdom amongst professionals, support the notion that the internationalization of a campus needs a multifaceted approach. With regard to just one aspect of international education, internationalizing the curriculum, Harari and Reiff (1993) illustrate interdependence of these elements.

Success appears where the concept of internationalization is accepted as an integrated and multifaceted package rather than as a series of unconnected strands. Failure looms where internationalization of the curriculum is attempted in isolation from the design and implementation of study-abroad programs, from the involvement of international students and their rich mosaic of cultures in the classrooms, from training and study/travel programs designed to provide faculty members with international experience and professional growth, from the involvement of international scholars in the life of the institution and the surrounding community, or from a multitude of other activities such as welcoming visiting scholars, business persons, diplomats, and artists.

Where the holistic concept of internationalization is recognized and pursued it tends to produce more effective and viable international programs. (1993, p. 16)

According to Backman (1984), the various elements that fall under the umbrella of international education include internationalizing the curriculum, international students, student exchanges, study abroad, faculty exchanges, faculty development, English as a second language, campus based international activities, outreach activities, and development assistance projects.

The literature on internationalizing the campus (American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1988; Arum, 1987; Association of International Education Administrators, 1988; Backman, 1984; Harari, 1983 & 1989; Harari & Reiff, 1993; Smuckler & Sommers, 1988; Lambert, 1989 & 1990) emphasizes the importance of support from top administrators.

Irrespective of the size, location or resources of a campus, it is clear that the institution needs to have a locus of responsibility and leadership for its international activities. It ranges all the way from a very small institution where the President or the Dean might wish to play personally that role with the part-time or full-time assistance of a faculty or staff member, all the way to a large institution with its panoply of international services and contracts and its larger staff. In all cases, however, the commitment, tangible and otherwise, of the top leadership will play a critical role in promoting the desired institutional change. (Harari, 1989, p. 6)

Lambert echoes this sentiment when he states:

Since the demands of international studies are pan-institutional, meeting them calls for leverage from the highest level. This usually means a president and/or a provost, and, if you are lucky, a trustee. I used to predict the overall strength of international studies on a campus by how highly placed a zealot for internationalization was on a campus. (1990, p. 8)

Additionally, a number of authors (American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1988; American Council on Education, 1984; Backman, 1984; Harari, 1983 & 1989; Kelleher, 1991; Leinwald, 1983; Smuckler & Sommers, 1988) have argued that the process of internationalization works best when the various components that constitute international education are coordinated by a central office. Leinwald states:

In this process [internationalizing the campus], administration, faculty, students, even community, alumni, legislature, and the board of trustees all need to be encouraged to participate or, at least, they need to be kept informed. But for specific change to take place, that is, to add new courses, to develop new programs, to create new opportunities for faculty exchanges with other countries, to develop faculty expertise in global affairs, to attract new foreign students to the campus, and to make better provision for them—some centralized administrative structure may be needed. On the assumption that which is the responsibility of all (administration, students, faculty, and so on) readily becomes the responsibility of none, then action leading to the internationalization of the curriculum and the campus would be likely to benefit from the presence of an Office of International Programs. All indications are that an Office of International Programs, properly staffed and located conveniently to serve the campus, can provide a basis of information, coordination, leadership, and initiative.

The establishment of such an office will, in most cases, require additional resources (a remote possibility during these austere days) or diverting institutional priorities (a step that if not sensitively handled can cause widespread distention and trigger faculty/administration bickering and interdepartmental strife). Yet, if institutional commitment to the international is to be achieved, then there should be a general willingness to establish such a centralized office. (1983, pp. 15-16)

These offices assume a variety of names including Office of International Programs, or Center for International Education, etc. Harari (1983) provides a range of activities for which such offices might have responsibility:

1. Supporting efforts to internationalize the curriculum;
2. Acting as a liaison to other units within the institution that administer international activities;
3. Administering study abroad programs;
4. Administering international (foreign) student programs;
5. Promoting student, faculty, and staff exchange programs and other incentives for engaging in international education activities;
6. Negotiating and implementing contracts and grants with foreign universities, governments, and businesses;
7. Cooperating with international interests in the community, including citizenship-education programs and business activities;
8. Supporting regional, national, and international associations and consortia;
9. Preparing proposals to foreign agencies, foundations, business, and other entities to help implement the institution's international commitment; and

10. Interpreting national and international trends and opportunities and providing leadership for the institution.

Harari (1983 & 1989) argues that such an office should be directed by an individual with faculty rank who has had experience with internationalizing the curriculum and who can relate to faculty as an equal. Additionally, the director of such an office should have good administrative and entrepreneurial skills and be adept in cross-cultural communication. This individual should report directly to the Provost or Vice President for Academic Affairs. In addition to the Director, the office should be staffed by a full-time secretary and additional full-time professional and support staff depending on the office's range of responsibilities.

Lambert (1989, 1990), while not specifically stating the need for an Office of International Programs, recommends greater coordination of activities related to international studies which is not inconsistent with the development of such an office. He also believes strongly the need for international studies administrators to be firmly established in academic affairs rather than student affairs.

International studies is one of those educational enterprises that requires an overarching intellectual framework and pan-institutional planning and initiative. ...the trouble is that the special quality of our collegiate educational system, what distinguishes it from more centrally-planned systems in other parts of the world, is its emphasis on autonomy, diversity, and productivity. The central problem is clear: how do we accomplish the aggregate goals that we might decide on in a system in which disaggregation of education decisions is the dominant motif.

I believe that this is the next major challenge for international studies administrators. To meet it, you must cross over from the student services sector—usually a mixture of functions relating to international visitors and faculty, foreign students, and study abroad—into the educational mainstream of the institution. (Lambert, 1990, pp. 6-7)

While it may be highly desirable to tackle internationalization on a variety of coordinated fronts from a study abroad perspective, is this necessary in order for an institution to be successful in sending students to study abroad? Are study abroad offices more successful when they are part of a centralized administrative unit reporting to a senior level administrator? Taking some of Harari's argument to another level, should study abroad itself be centralized with the study abroad office responsible for administering the majority of programs sponsored by the institution? Further, since study abroad has curricular ramifications, should the director of the study abroad office have faculty rank, or at least a Ph.D.? Finally, in these difficult budgetary times, are study abroad offices less dependent on central funding more or less successful in sending students abroad than those offices with a greater reliance on this source of income?

With these questions in mind, the following research questions have been developed:

1. Is there a relationship between the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy (academic affairs, student affairs, etc.) and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?
2. Is there a relationship between the presence of a centralized structure incorporating a variety of international educational functions, including study abroad, reporting to a senior academic administrator (provost, vice provost, academic vice president, etc.) whose primary responsibility is for international education across campus and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

3. Is there a relationship between the degree of centralization of study abroad program administration and institutional success in sending students to study abroad ?
4. Is there a relationship between the number of programs an institution sponsors and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?
5. Is there a relationship between the faculty status of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?
6. Is there a relationship between the academic qualifications of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?
7. Is there a relationship between the length of time an institution has been involved in study abroad and its success in sending students to study abroad?
8. Is there a relationship between the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from central funds and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

Significance of the Study

There has been no systematic research of study abroad administration. Further, a literature search failed to identify studies that might help shed light on the central issues of concern to this researcher. At a time when higher education is endeavoring to respond to the challenges of increased international interdependence and instant global communications, the need for more American students to study abroad is generally recognized within academia. It is timely, therefore, to investigate the organizational structure and practices of study abroad administration within U.S. universities to determine what can be learned from institutions that send the highest proportion of their students abroad. Since the size of the institution, and whether it is public or private, can play a significant role in the administrative response to creating opportunities for students to study abroad, a wide cross-section of institutions was surveyed.

The study provides administrators with an overview of current structures and practices in the field of study abroad administration. Further, it identifies structures and practices that have proven successful at a variety of institutional types. The results can be utilized by professionals in the field of study abroad to strengthen their own programs and ultimately to increase the number of students studying abroad from their institution. In short, the study will provide important information that is currently missing in the literature.

Definition of Terms

1. Study Abroad - formalized learning opportunities outside the United States for which American students earn academic credit that is applied toward their U.S. undergraduate degree.

2. Study Abroad Advisor - a designated college or university official responsible for advising students on study abroad and related opportunities, and either or, for the development and administration of study abroad programs.
3. Study Abroad Office - the administrative office on campus staffed by a Study Abroad Advisor(s) where students find information and receive advice on study abroad programs, related opportunities, and institutional procedures.
4. International Education - a term encompassing a variety of international activities that fall within three areas: 1) the curriculum, 2) the international movement of scholars, and 3) technical assistance and educational cooperation abroad.
5. Administrative Practices - operations, programs, processes, and services performed and provided by individuals and offices.
6. Central Funds - moneys allocated by the institution's central administration for the operating budget of the study abroad office.

Assumptions and Limitations

Certain assumptions were considered in the design of this study. The first was that the individuals who received and completed the questionnaires directed the study abroad office on their campus. A second was that individuals completing the

questionnaire did so accurately. Finally, it was assumed that non-respondents did not differ significantly from respondents on those variables pertinent to the stated research questions, thus allowing the researcher to infer findings to the population. A comparison of selected variables of non-respondents with respondents would have enabled the researcher to eliminate any doubt concerning this matter. Unfortunately, time and costs prevented this follow-up and, consequently, this is a limitation of the study.

The researcher surveyed all the institutions with membership in NAFSA: Association of International Educators affiliated with the Section on U.S. Students Studying Abroad (SECUSSA). This included four year colleges, universities, community colleges, music institutes, medical and dental schools, and graduate schools. The response rate was such that data from only four year colleges and universities were used in the study. Consequently, the findings of this study are limited to these institutions.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature and the relevant research related to this study. The literature search was completed by reviewing journal articles, books, reports, dissertations, and an ERIC literature search. The review is organized as follows:

1. Overview of literature on the history of study abroad
2. A review of literature on the impact of the study abroad experience
3. Organization of study abroad administration
4. Summary

The History of Study Abroad

The Beginnings

The history of study abroad is intertwined with the history of higher education. The structure, organization, and curricula of universities and colleges as we know them today in the United States of America, Europe, and in many parts of the world, are indebted to students and scholars who throughout antiquity, and during more recent times, have traveled far from their homes in search of wisdom. It was not for the love of travel that these scholars ventured abroad, for travel posed hardships and risks. It was because, for long periods of time, students in search of higher education had little choice but to study abroad.

Institutions of higher learning became possible with the development of comparatively wealthy civilizations. Perhaps the first of these institutions occurred in India in the forest Ashrams. These schools date back to 1500 B.C. when the literary memorial of the early Aryan settlers was being written—the Rig-Veda. Teachers would

retire to these forest clearings, away from the distractions of the settlements, bringing with them young men interested in a life of contemplation and philosophical discussion (Fletcher, 1968).

In ancient Athens, boys attended elementary school from the ages of 7 - 14 years. This education comprised of reading, writing and counting on the abacus; however, by the fifth century B.C. elementary education had developed beyond these rudimentary beginnings to include poetry and music. Students wishing further study would listen to the periodic courses offered by sophists. In many cases, students would travel significant distances to hear the lectures of these peripatetic scholars. By the fourth century B.C., permanent schools had begun to challenge the position of the sophists. Essentially, there existed three types of schools catering to boys 14 - 18 years of age. They included: 1) the philosophical types, which are best represented by Plato's Academy, the Peripatetic School founded by Theophrastus (a follower of Aristotle), the Stoic school, and the Epicurean school founded by Epicurus; 2) the broad rhetorical type, represented by the school of Isocrates, which emphasized character as much as eloquence and aimed to train cultured gentlemen; and 3) a narrow rhetorical type conducted by the lawyers or *logographoi*. (Cole, 1931).

With the exception of the Stoic school, which had no fixed location and no specific property of its own, all the schools in Athens (the Academy, the Peripatetic, and the Epicurean) started with a certain amount of property and were on their way to becoming self-supporting. The Academy and the Epicurean schools began in the homes of their founders. Plato later bequeathed his house and belongings to the Academy before he died in 347 B.C. Periodically, bequests were made by generous patrons; however, after a while it became necessary to assess fees, which were collected by teachers following in the tradition of the sophists of the fifth century. It was to these schools, for

three hundred years after their foundation, that students came in great numbers from all over the Greek and western world (Walden, 1913).

One of the great monuments to Greek education and learning was to be found in the city of Alexandria in Egypt. There, in 332 B.C., the Library and Museum were established by Ptolemy and a statesman named Demetrius of Phalerum. So widespread was its influence that it attracted students from all over Europe, Asia Minor, and North Africa. By 150 A.D. the Library had become a center for the advancement of science and contained approximately 700,000 volumes. The Museum became a center for scholarly activity and remained so until the Islamic conquests in the seventh century A.D. Its students included such notables as Euclid, Archimedes, and Hero (Fletcher, 1968).

One of the earliest records of the need to provide certain rights and responsibilities to foreign students is given in an address by the Emperors Valentinian, Valens, and Gratian, Augusti to the Prefect of the City of Treves.¹ It is interesting to note

¹ The Emperors Valentinian, Valens, and Gratian, Augusti to Olybrius, Praefect of the City

All those who come to the city in the pursuit of learning should present to the master of the Census in the first place a letter from the provincial judges whose function it is to give them permission to come. The letter will mention the towns, the birth, and the merits of the individuals concerned. Thereupon, on their first entrance, they shall declare to what studies in particular they propose to devote their attention. In the third place, the office of the Censuales shall carefully take note of their residences, to ensure that they direct their endeavours towards the end which they have claimed to pursue. The men should avoid a shameful and dishonourable reputation, and associations which we regard as bordering upon crime; and that they should not go too often to the spectacles, nor frequent untimely banquets. Nay, rather, if any one has not conducted himself in the city in such a way as the dignity of the liberal studies demands, we give power that he be publicly beaten with rods, expelled from the city, and at once placed on shipboard and returned to his home. But to those who carefully devote their attention to their studies, permission is given to remain at Rome until the twentieth year of their age; but, after this time, he who shall have neglected to withdraw voluntarily shall be sent back to his country by the care of the prefect even though his education be unfinished. But fear that these measures should be taken in a perfunctory way, your high Sincerity is to instruct the Office of Censuales to take note every month of the names of the students, whence they come, and which ones ought to be sent back to Africa or other provinces because of the time of their sojourn, those only being exempted who are attached to the offices of corporations. Similarly notes will be addressed every year to the archives of our Mansuetudo, in order that we may be able to know the merits and aptitudes of each, and judge how and when they will be serviceable to us.

Given the fourth of the Ides of March, at Treves, in the third consulate of Valentinian and Valens, Augusti 12th March, A.D. 370 (Cole, 1931, pp. 88 & 89).

the requirement for students to return home upon reaching their twentieth birthday unless they are deemed useful to the empire.

With the barbarian conquests and the decline and ultimate collapse of the Roman empire, the great municipal schools of law and rhetoric that had flourished under Roman rule disappeared. From the sixth to the twelfth centuries, it was left to the cathedral schools and monasteries to provide higher learning (Cole, 1931). Meanwhile, in the Roman lands that had passed into the hands of the Arabs, the classical knowledge of science and philosophy was both preserved and added to by the Arabs who brought their own traditions of learning in mathematics and science, medicine, law, philosophy, and literature. "The result was the rise of great centers of higher education in Baghdad, Damascus, Jerusalem, Cairo and Alexandria. These were generally centered on mosques like Al Azhar in Cairo. In the eleventh century A.D. there was great intellectual unity in this world of learning and immense journeys from Spain to Mecca or from Malines to Baghdad were often undertaken by young men who left their homes, generally penniless, to sit at the feet of a chosen master" (Fletcher, 1968, p. 13).

The Medieval University

Universities as we know them today are the product of the Middle Ages. While we know that the Greeks and Romans had higher education, and certainly their instruction in such areas as law, rhetoric, and philosophy has been rarely equaled, it was not organized into permanent institutions of learning.

Only in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries do there emerge in the world those features of organized education with which we are most familiar, all the machinery of instruction represented by faculties and colleges and courses of study, examinations and commencements and academic degrees. On all these matters we are the heirs and successors, not of Athens and Alexandria, but of Paris and Bologna. (Haskins, 1957, p. 1)

The emergence of the university came about as a result of a number of factors. Between 1100 and 1200 A.D., there was a great influx of learning in Western Europe. This came partly from Italy and Sicily but primarily through the Arab scholars in Spain. This knowledge reintroduced to western Europe the works of Aristotle, Euclid, Ptolemy, and the Greek physicians, new arithmetic, and the texts of Roman law which had been hidden since Roman times.

In addition to the elementary propositions of triangle and circle, Europe now had those books of plane and solid geometry which have done duty in schools and colleges ever since; instead of painful operations with Roman numerals – how painful one can readily see by trying a simple problem of multiplication or division with these characters – it was now possible to work readily with Arabic figures; in the place of Boethius, the "master of them that know" became the teacher of Europe in logic, metaphysics, and ethics. In law and medicine, men now possessed the fullness of ancient learning. This new knowledge burst the bonds of the cathedral and monastery schools and created the learned professions; it drew over mountains and across the narrow seas eager youths who, like Chaucer's Oxford clerk of a later day, "would gladly learn and gladly teach," to form in Paris and Bologna those academic guilds which have given us our first and our best definition of a university, a society of masters and scholars. (Haskins, 1957, p.5)

Prior to a discussion of the part played by foreign students in the genesis of medieval universities, it might be useful to acquaint the reader with a number of useful terms. University is derived from the Latin *universitas*, meaning a plurality or an aggregate of persons. It did not mean a school encompassing all the branches of knowledge which we today associate with the term university. By the end of the twelfth century, the term was applied to corporations of masters or of students as well as to newly formed guilds and municipalities. Applied at first to academic guilds, it was used interchangeably with terms such as community or college (Rashdall, 1936).

Studium generale is the term that most nearly corresponds with our notion of a university. Rashdall (1936, Vol. 1, p. 7), ascribes the following characteristics to a

studium generale: "... 1) that the school attracted or at least invited students from all parts, not merely those of a particular country or district; 2) that it was a place of higher education; that is to say, that one at least of the higher faculties – theology, law or medicine - was taught there; 3) that such subjects were taught by a considerable number - at least a plurality - of masters". By the fifteenth century, however, the original distinction between *universitas* and *studium generale* was lost, and the former became a synonym for the latter.

The first *studium generale* appeared in the city of Bologna in the twelfth century. A medical school had existed in Salerno, approximately a day's journey south of Naples, since the middle of the eleventh century and for two hundred years after that time remained the most renowned medical center in Europe. However, it was the *studium generale* at Bologna, and later the one at Paris, that were to have a more profound impact on the structure and organization of the university movement in Europe.

The emergence of a *studium generale* at Bologna occurred at a time of growing trade in Europe. Bologna was well placed geographically, at an intersection of important trading routes, to take full advantage of this increasing prosperity. With the revival of trade and town life, the study of law became more important. Further, the intellectual Renaissance of the twelfth century saw Italian cities entering the struggle for independence. This, combined with the political Renaissance, which was merely the other side of the coin, provided career opportunities for males who had little interest in the church or soldiering. It should come as no surprise, therefore, that Bologna became an important center for the study of law.²

² Roman law did not entirely disappear with the invasion of the Germanic tribes. Its influence, while greatly reduced, survived as the customary law of the Roman population in elementary manuals that became thinner with time. Legal study persisted also, but only as apprenticeships in the drafting of documents and applied rhetoric. The study of law at Bologna heralded a radical departure from this practice (Haskins, 1923).

At Bologna, as at Paris, a great teacher stands at the very beginning of the history of the university. Irnerius, perhaps the most famous of professors of law in the Middle Ages, is credited with developing Bologna's reputation. Rashdall argues that it was Irnerius who may have been the first lecturer on the whole Digest and may have been the first glossator on any part of it.³ The time of Irnerius also marks the beginning of a closer critical, contextual, and more professional, study of original sources. This included the systematic study of the whole *Corpus Juris Civilis*, which became the regular curriculum of a standard legal education during this period. We can trace to this period the differentiation of law studies and law students from the faculty of liberal arts, as the *Corpus Juris Civilis* required the undivided attention of its students. Finally, it was in the age of Irnerius, or shortly thereafter, "... that men of mature age – men of good birth and good position – beneficed and dignified ecclesiastics or sons of nobles - flocked from the remotes parts of Europe to the lecture-rooms of Bologna" (Rashdall, 1936, Vol. 1, p. 125).

In Northern Europe, the origins of universities are to be found in Paris, in the cathedral school of Notre Dame. In the twelfth century, learning was not limited to monasteries but was found also in schools attached to cathedrals. Renowned cathedral schools existed at Liège, Rheims, Laon, Paris, Orléans, and Chartres. The most notable of these schools was Chartres. Yet despite the quality of its teachers, particularly in classics and philosophy, it was in Paris, in the cathedral precincts on the Île de la Cité, not at Chartres, where the first *studium generale* in Northern Europe and second after Bologna was established. Paris had the advantage of geography, and it was home to the monarchy. However, as in the case of Bologna, the influence of a great teacher, in this instance Abelard, was also critical.

³ The Digest is the bulkiest and most important section of the *Corpus Juris Civilis*, a seminal text of Roman law, which disappeared from view from 603 -1076 and barely escaped being destroyed (Rashdall, 1936).

With Abelard the great scholastic movement reaches a point at which it begins to identify itself with what we may call the university movement. Most emphatically it must be asserted that universities, even in the most rudimentary form, did not exist till at least a generation after Abelard. But Abelard inaugurated the intellectual movement out of which they eventually sprang. The method of inquiry and of teaching of which he was the originator was the method which essentially characterized the teaching of the mediaeval universities - a method transferred by Abelard from philosophy to theology, and afterwards (in greater or lesser degree) to the whole cycle of mediaeval studies. Even from the point of view of external organization Abelard may in a sense be said to have inaugurated the university movement. (Rashdall, 1936, Vol. 1, p.43)

Despite the genesis of the modern university during the Middle Ages, there were startling differences. One could be easily misled by what we today consider the archetypal university look. The quadrangles, well-manicured lawns, and gothic facades of the famous Oxbridge colleges complete with ivy bear no resemblance to the original, for the original universities owned no property of their own. They possessed no libraries, laboratories, or museums. They had no physical presence except for the community of students and masters that they constituted.

Students came to Bologna because of the reputation of the scholars who resided there. A famous *studium* in an Italian city state must, out of necessity, have attracted many foreign students who were, as individuals, entirely powerless and subject to the profiteering of the townspeople and arbitrary and capricious actions of local officials. Their strength lay in their numbers and the impact their presence had on the local economy. The threat of departure was a powerful weapon and, since the university was without buildings, they were free to move.⁴

⁴ The threat of departure was very real and resulted in the founding of new universities including Vicenza (1204) and Padua (founded in 1222 and partially or wholly abandoned for Vercelli in 1228). These universities owe their origins to student migration from Bologna since these communities were able to offer better terms. The universities of Reggio, Leipzig, and Cambridge also originated in this manner.

By this time [1158] Bologna had become the resort of some hundreds of students, not only from Italy, but from beyond the Alps. Far from home and undefended, they united for mutual protection and assistance, and this organization of foreign, or Transmontane, students was the beginning of the university. In this union they seem to have followed the guilds already common in Italy. (Haskins, 1957, p. 8)

Masters were also subject to the collective boycott of their students, on whose fees they survived. The following excerpt clearly illustrates the power of a united group of students:

The professor was put under bond to live up to a minute set of regulations which guaranteed his students the worth of the money each paid. We read in the earliest statutes (1317) that a professor might not be absent without leave, even for a single day, and if he desired to leave the town he had to make a deposit to ensure his return. If he failed to secure an audience of five for a regular lecture, he was fined as if absent—a poor lecture indeed which could only secure five heads. He must begin at the bell and quit within one minute after the next bell. He was not allowed to skip a chapter in his commentary, or postpone a difficulty to the end of the hour, and he was obliged to cover ground systematically, so much in each specific term of the year. No one might spend the whole year on introduction and bibliography! (Haskins, 1957, p. 11)

The cosmopolitan character of the *studia generalia* is no better illustrated than in the "nations" or *collegia* of scholars, masters or students, that made their appearance between the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries. In Bologna, they make their appearance in the thirteenth century as subdivisions of the *collegia* of foreign law students. Membership in a nation was based according to the country of birth, as seen in the statutes of the ultramontane university in 1306 and repeated in the jurist statutes of 1317 and 1347: "In case of doubt as to the university or nation in which a student belongs, reference is made not to his dwelling place but to the place of his birth, and not to that of his father" (Kibre, 1948, p. 4). By the sixteenth century, the university attached equal

importance to country of residence in determining to which nation a student belonged (Kibre, 1948).

The nations at Bologna formed the larger associations of the *universitas ultramontanorum* for students from outside Italy and the *universitas citramontanorum* for those students from the Italian peninsula and the surrounding islands. By 1265, there were fourteen nations of the ultramontane university including French (from the Île de France), Spanish, Provençal, English, Picard, Burgundian, Poitevin, Tourainian (including students from Touraine and Maine), Norman, Catalanian, Hungarian, Polish, German, and Gascon. By 1432, the number of nations had increased to sixteen, and changes had occurred in their territories. Consequently, the French nation now included the duchy of Normandy, the former Norman nation, Champagne, Valois, Salon (Bouches du Rhône), and Bray. New nations of Berry, including the diocese of Poitou; Savoy, which included the duchy of Chablais, Aosta, and lands of the duchy of Savoy not assigned; and Portugal, which shared a nation with the kingdom of Algrave, were created. The other nations remained the same as those named in the statutes of 1265.

The cisalpine university was comprised of three large nations which in turn were subdivided into smaller units called *consiliariae*: the Tuscan nation, comprised of Florence, Pisa, Lucca, Siena, Spoleto, Ravenna, and Vienne; the Lombard nation of Genoa, Milan, Thessalonica, Langobardia, and Castoria; and finally the Roman nation, including Abruzzi with Tera di Lavoro (ancient Campania felix or the province of Caserta), Apulia and Calabria, one for the upper and one for the lower Aconian March, and Sicily. (Kibre, 1948, pp. 9-11).⁵

⁵ Given the importance of international students at the early *studia*, it should be illuminating to briefly review the status of nations at sites other than Bologna. Padua was originally organized into four nations: the French (Burgundian), Italian, German, and Provençal. In 1260, they divided into the ultramontane and cismontane, each headed by a rector. Perugia, designated a *studium generale* in 1308 by Pope Clement V, was organized into a single university offering law, arts, and medicine, in which ultramontane and cismontane students studied together. The ultramontane nations included French, Germans, and Castalonians. The *studium generale* at Pisa was established in 1338 and included three ultramontane

The nations at Paris were associations of masters within the faculty of arts only and included both local and non-Paris residents. This arrangement differs significantly from that of Bologna and a number of southern European institutions in which the nations were student associations and typically did not include local residents. Further, at Paris the nations had equality of representation whereas in Bologna some nations had two representatives and two votes in the university assemblies. In common with Bologna, Paris attracted students and scholars from many parts of Europe, including France, Italy, Spain, England, the Germanies, and northern and eastern parts of the continent.

The four nations at Paris included the French nation, which in 1349 was comprised of masters from the Île de France, southern France, Spain, Italy, Greece, and the East; the Norman nation, which in 1275 included masters from Rouen and Brittany; the Picard nation consisting of masters from the Low Countries and Northern France; and the English nation, with masters from northern, central and northeastern Europe.⁶ Until the fifteenth century, the English nation was comprised of two groups or provinces, the English and the non-English regions. From the fifteenth century through 1528, three provinces existed: the High German, Low German, and the Scots. After 1528, the number of provinces was reduced to two groups, the continental and insular masters (Kibre, 1948).⁷

nations including German, Spanish, and French. At Florence, a *studium generale* was established in 1321 which, while possessing six nations, had only one containing ultramontane students. At Ferrara, the *studium generale* (created by a papal bull in 1391) contained only one ultramontane and three cismontane nations (Kibre, 1948).

⁶ The names of the four nations were determined by the predominant locality represented, which in turn gave its name to the whole association (Kibre, 1948).

⁷ Perhaps one of the most enduring features of the *studium* in Paris is the college. Present as early as the 1180, the college was originally an endowed hospice or hall of residence. By 1500, there were as many as sixty-eight colleges in Paris. The system survived until the revolution when many of the buildings were destroyed, leaving only the name. However, at Oxford and Cambridge the college became a characteristic feature of university academic and social life. Further, the residential aspect of an Oxbridge education, and English education in general, was adopted from the earliest times in American higher education (Kibre, 1948).

The impact of master and student migration is no better illustrated than in the case of Oxford and Cambridge. According to Rashdall, the beginning of Oxford as a *studium generale* was either 1167 or 1168 and was due to a migration of masters and students from Paris. It is not entirely clear if this migration was voluntary or the result of the expulsion of alien scholars by the French king. However, this coincided with a series of ordinances from Henry II that forbade English scholars to cross the channel without permission of the king. Further, all scholars who possessed revenues in England were required to return in three months. The English certainly formed the largest body of foreign students and scholars in Paris at this time.

Cambridge's origins date back to 1209, when as many as 3,000 masters and scholars left Oxford as a result of the death of a woman at the hands of a scholar who, with a number of clerks, was arrested and subsequently executed. This led to such a deterioration of town-gown relations that the conditions became intolerable in Oxford. For the period of 1209 - 1214, when many of the scholars returned from Cambridge, a good number of the Oxford colleges were required to close.

17th through to the 20th Century

The American colonial period was marked by the founding of nine colleges. With one exception, they were all church related and established to provide the English colonies with religious leaders.⁸ Americans at this time had little choice but to send their children to one of these institutions, or to those further afield, usually in England. It was England and Scotland that were to have the most profound influence on these fledgling

⁸ Harvard College (Anglican, founded in 1636), William and Mary (Anglican, founded in 1693), Yale (Congregationalist, founded in 1701), Princeton (New Lights Presbyterian, founded in 1746), Columbia (Anglican, founded in 1754), College of Philadelphia (primarily secular, founded in 1755), Brown (Baptist, founded in 1765), Rutgers (Dutch Reformed, founded in 1766) and Dartmouth (New Lights Congregationalists, founded in 1765).

institutions, as graduates from the ancient universities in these countries occupied prominent positions within the early institutional hierarchies of the colonial colleges.

The English influence, demonstrated in the residential pattern of Oxford and Cambridge, is evident in the colonial colleges and in modern institutions. By contrast, the Scottish influence at William and Mary, and later at the University of Virginia and the University of Pennsylvania, is characterized as being non-residential, slender in resources, and in part governed by a board of representatives of the community – a *modus operandi* which helped prepare the way for boards of trustees. These patterns are the direct result of scholars who came to the U.S. after having received their education overseas. Later, the German influence on the development of graduate education in America demonstrates the impact that studying abroad had upon U.S. scholars who traveled abroad for their graduate education.

Harvard College was established in 1636 and based on a pattern found at Emmanuel College, Cambridge, which was founded just fifty-two years earlier as a Puritan foundation to provide the Church with a preaching ministry. The replication of this pattern is hardly surprising given the religious background of the pilgrims and that thirty-five members of the Massachusetts Bay Colony and the first president of Harvard College, Henry Dunster, were graduates of Emmanuel College. The mission of Harvard and other colonial colleges was decidedly religious in nature, as the following abstract clearly indicates:

After God had carried us safe to New England, and wee had builded our houses, provided necessaries for our liveli-hood, rear'd convenient places for Gods worship, and settled the Civill Government: One of the next things we longed after was to advance Learning and perpetuate it to Posterity; dreading to leave an illiterate Ministry to the Churches, when our present Ministers shall lie in the Dust. (New England's First Fruits, 1664, in The Story of Harvard: A Short History, 1966, p. i)

The original mission of higher learning at Harvard was "Every one shall consider the Mayne End of his life and studyes, to know to know God and Jesus Christ, which is Eternall life" (Brubacher and Ruby, 1976, p. 8). The president of Yale obviously agreed with this vision of higher learning when in 1754 he stated that "Colleges are Societies of Ministers, for the training up persons for the Work of the Ministry" (Brubacher and Ruby, 1976, p. 8). In short, colonial higher education was primarily designed to prepare men for the ministry. Perhaps the only exception to this characterization was the College of Philadelphia (now the University of Pennsylvania) which maintained primarily secular goals. However, this could easily have been otherwise had the Quakers, the predominant religion in the state, not desired a college in which to educate their clergy during the early colonial period.

Harvard unabashedly styled itself on the Oxford/Cambridge model. Its founders, in the wording of its statutes, borrowed heavily from the Elizabethan statutes of Cambridge. The first Harvard degree formula contains the phrase *pro modo Academicarum in Anglia* (according to the manner of the universities in England), and the names of the four college classes, student discipline, administrative regulations, and degree requirements closely followed the English precedents. Harvard was also a residential college, and it is this feature that has been one of the most enduring legacies of the English influence on higher education in America.

While Harvard styled itself on Oxford and Cambridge, it in turn became the prototype of the American college. Further, as the oldest and most distinguished of American institutions of higher learning, it had a profound impact on their development higher education in the United States, and continues to have an unparalleled influence.

The English were not the only ones to influence the shaping of colonial colleges. A number of prominent Scotsmen played a significant role. They included: John Blair, the first president of William and Mary, who was educated at the University of

Edinburgh; William Smith, first provost of the College of Philadelphia, a graduate of Aberdeen; and at the same institution, Francis Alison, educated at Glasgow, who became the first vice president.

Perhaps the most influential of these early Scottish leaders was John Witherspoon. Educated at Edinburgh, he became president of the College of New Jersey (Princeton) and served in that capacity from 1768 - 1794. One of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, he did much to liberalize the curriculum by introducing a "Scottish common sense version of the Enlightenment ... enabling him to harmonize a Newtonian universe founded on the empirical method with the Christian religion" (Brubacher and Ruby, 1976, p. 15).

The colonial American college was in many ways a blood brother to its English model. Like the latter, it upheld the tradition of a prescribed liberal-arts curriculum, based upon a primarily classical preparatory course; it was more deeply concerned with the forming of character than the fostering of research; it placed great value on a residential pattern of life for students (what Cotton Mather called the "collegiate way of life"); and it was concerned primarily with training a special elite for community leadership. To these fundamental policies it held steadfastly and without essential change for nearly 200 years. (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p.23)

Developments in Germany and an increase in interest within the U.S. in German education, particularly at the graduate level, was one of the reasons for the profound changes that occurred in the U.S. during the latter half of the nineteenth century. This interest was centered on the advances being made in Germany in scholarly research and the notion that higher education should be the workshop of free scientific research. Prior to 1850, German universities were known for the quality of their teaching. After 1850, it was the quality of their research that attracted attention.⁹

⁹ While England had always been a popular destination with Americans seeking undergraduate degrees, the country was late to develop graduate education and it was not until 1917 that Oxford introduced the Ph.D. Two years later the degree was approved by the Senate of Cambridge University and by London University. The introduction of the Ph.D. was an attempt by British universities, in part, to stem the flow of

The increasing prestige and popularity of German universities is demonstrated by the number of international students who studied there. According to the United States Commissioner of Education Report for 1902, 474 international students studied in Germany during 1835-36, representing 4.02% of the entire enrollment. By 1870, this number had increased to 735 or 6.1%. By the turn of the century, the international student population had reached 7.55% of the student population. The first American to graduate with a university degree from Germany was Benjamin Smith Barton, who in 1799 earned an M.D. from the University of Göttingen. Almost one hundred years later, in 1892, there were 415 American students, accounting for 22% of the international student population in Germany.¹⁰

These scholars returned to America with much more than a degree. They returned enthused by their experience and with a desire to use the teaching techniques they had witnessed in German universities in their own institutions. These techniques included the seminar, lecture, and research laboratory.

In the transplanting of these considerably modified forms of the German university to American soil in the later nineteenth century, the decisive role was played by a highly influential group of persons destined to become presidents of the most important universities in the United States. Included in this notable company were Charles W. Eliot, Daniel C. Gilman, Andrew D. White, James B. Angell, William Watts Folwell, G. Stanley Hall, Nicholas Murray Butler, Charles Kendall Adams, and F. A. P. Barnard. All these men had their basic conceptions shaped in one way or another by firsthand experience to advocate a "New Education" for

American and students from the colonies to Germany. When Oxford introduced the Ph.D., the news was enthusiastically reported in the New York Times under the headlines: "Oxford Innovation to draw Americans"; "University to Confer Research Degree of Ph.D. for First Time in England"; "Chance for Rhodes Men"; "Action Taken to Divert Stream of Students This Country Has Sent to Germany" (Simpson, 1983, pp. 135 - 147).

¹⁰ In 1899, there were approximately 6,248 international students resident in Germany. This compared with 1,770 international students in France for 1900, and 2,046 in Britain, 2,673 in the U.S. (not including women) for 1904 (Wheeler et al.). The figures for 1990 reveal a different picture, with the U.S. the largest recipient nation with 407,529 international students accounting for 33.0% of international students worldwide. France placed second with 136,015 or 12.3%, West Germany third with 8.2%, and the United Kingdom fourth with 6.4% (Zikopoulos, 1993).

America. And all of them were agreed upon the vital necessity of building real universities in America which would offer better facilities for professional training and for advanced graduate instruction in the arts and sciences. (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976, p. 178)¹¹

The impact of these influential reformers was to dramatically change the structure of higher education. Perhaps the most influential of this group was Charles W. Eliot. As President of Harvard, he was the most visible, and changes of the magnitude he initiated could not go unnoticed within academia. Eliot was also a man of conviction and of administrative skill, and the length of his tenure as President of Harvard (1869 - 1909) enabled him to outlast many of his most ardent detractors.

Eliot is credited with a number of significant accomplishments. Perhaps the most important of these include: the development of the elective system of studies originally pioneered at Harvard by George Ticknor,¹² strengthening and adding to the professional schools at Harvard, and establishing a graduate school in the German mode as a superstructure on the English-type undergraduate college.

While the Graduate School at Harvard (1870) may have been the first, it took the example of John Hopkins University to invigorate and establish the need for advanced schools of study. Johns Hopkins University, founded in 1876 by Daniel C. Gilman, was the only institution offering graduate programs without the support of an undergraduate

¹¹ Charles W. Eliot (President of Harvard), Daniel C. Gilman (founder and first President of John Hopkins University), Andrew D. White (first President of Cornell University), James B. Angell (President of the University of Michigan), William Watts Folwell (President of the University of Minnesota), G. Stanley Hall (first President of Clark University), Nicholas Murray Butler (President of Columbia University), Charles Kendall Adams (Professor at the University of Michigan), and F. A. P. Barnard (President of Columbia University).

¹² Ticknor was one of the first reformers to have studied in Germany (Universität Göttingen). Ticknor completed his undergraduate degree at Dartmouth and later became Harvard Professor of French and Spanish Languages and of Belle Lettres. His early attempts in introducing a modified elective system met with opposition from a conservative faculty. His ideas were only given an opportunity to prove themselves within his own department. Interestingly, he was succeeded at Harvard by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow who, having completed his undergraduate degree at Bowdoin, also went to Germany to pursue graduate studies.

curriculum. However, by offering fellowships that enticed some of the ablest minds to Baltimore, it quickly established itself as the premier institution for graduate study in the U.S.¹³ By 1926, 243 of the university's alumni were listed amongst the 1,000 most distinguished American scientists. Further, within twenty years of the institution's being founded, in excess of sixty American colleges and universities had three or more of their faculty with graduate degrees from the Baltimore institution (Brubacher and Rudy, 1976).

The Twentieth Century

Historically, studying abroad was essentially an individual response to the need for an education that was unattainable in one's own country. In fact, this was the pattern in Europe that had been established well before the founding of the medieval universities and one that persists in many regions of the world today. Students who studied abroad typically completed a full course of study and graduated with a degree from their host institution. This was the pattern for Americans who studied abroad and remained so until after World War I.

Typically, American students studying abroad in the twentieth century were not, and continue not to be, interested in acquiring foreign credentials, but in applying studies completed abroad toward a degree from a U.S. institution. Group programs sponsored by American colleges offering classes taught by American faculty became the norm. Alternatively, students might matriculate directly in a foreign institution with a resident director, often an American member of the faculty from the sponsoring U.S. institution, on hand to assist in acclimating students to their new environment. The first of these programs, although not necessarily for credit, began to appear in the late nineteenth

¹³ Josiah Royce, Wlter Hines Page, Herbert Baxter Adams, Frederick Jason Turner, John Dewey, J. McKeen Cattrell, Albion Small, John R. Commons, Joseph Jastrow, and Woodrow Wilson all benefitted from these fellowships.

century when groups of female students from coeducational institutions and accompanied by their professors participated in tours of European cathedrals and museums.

According to Bowman (1987), the first bona fide program was sponsored by Delaware College (later the University of Delaware) which, in 1923, established an academic year program in Paris. Beginning with just eight male students, atypical then as it is now, the program began with several months of language training at the University of Nancy, followed by classes, beginning in November, at the Sorbonne in a special institute for foreigners. The program proved so popular with students from Delaware College and from other institutions, that by 1931-32 there were 95 students in the program from 35 institutions.

In 1924, Marymount College in Tarrytown, New Jersey, began an academic year program in Paris. This managed to attract seven students who were accompanied by a member of the faculty and were permitted to visit other cities while staying in facilities operated by religious orders. Other colleges started programs during this period, including Smith College (Paris in 1925 and Florence in 1931), Rosary College (Fribourg, Switzerland), and Delaware College again (Munich, Germany in 1932).

With World War II, these fledgling programs were canceled, and life immediately after the war in Europe was difficult and disorganized. Poor housing, poor communications, and food rationing all conspired to make Europe most unappealing and, according to Bowman, students were encouraged to stay home. However, despite these conditions, a number of colleges quickly reestablished their programs, although not necessarily in the original location. Due to the fact that Switzerland had escaped the destructive impact of the war, it was a natural choice and, in 1946, Smith College reestablished its French program in Geneva, returning to Paris in 1949 but still keeping a program in Geneva. Delaware College also established a program in Geneva in 1946 that operated for two years before it moved back to Paris under the new sponsorship of Sweet

Briar College. Delaware's program in Germany was taken over after the war by the American Council on College Study in Switzerland, which operated a program in Zurich from 1946-1951 and one in Basel from 1948-1950. In 1947, Rosary College also reopened its center in Fribourg (Bowman, 1987).

A survey by Bowman of 82 U.S. colleges and universities reveals that prior to WWII seven programs were opened and from 1946-1960 30 new programs were established. It was, however, during the 1960s that we began to see a proliferation of programs. Between 1961 and 1965, seventy-six programs were established and, during the next four years, another 89 programs emerged. According to Bowman, study abroad programs prior to 1960 were intended for language majors and offered primarily by private East Coast colleges or Catholic institutions with European ties. After this period, a different sort of institution began to emerge with strong commitments to study abroad, institutions that significantly increased the levels of participation and the diversity of the student population.

Stanford University was the first large, prestigious university to develop a commitment to study abroad by establishing centers in Stuttgart (1958), Florence (1960), Tours (1960), and England (1966). Stanford was closely followed by Syracuse which in 1959, 1961, and 1965 started programs in Florence, Madrid, and Strasbourg, respectively. Perhaps more important with regard to the numbers of students studying abroad, and certainly important in democratizing these opportunities, were the emergence of large state institutions and systems in international education.

According to Bowman, the first major state system to engage significantly in study abroad was the University of California. Establishing a Center of International Programs at the Santa Barbara campus under the direction of Samuel Gould, former President of Antioch and innovator in the field of study abroad, the University of California system opened programs in Bordeaux (1963), Göttingen (1963), Padua (1963),

Madrid (1964), Tokyo (1964), London (1965), Bogotá (1965), and Hong Kong (1965). These programs involved direct matriculation into the host institution and required a high level of language proficiency. The U.C. centers abroad were staffed by a resident director, usually a U.C. faculty member, who was available to assist students in their process of adjustment. Following U.C.'s lead, the California State College and University system, based at San Francisco State College, established programs on the U.C. model in France, Germany, Spain, and Japan in 1963, in Sweden in 1964, and in Italy in 1966.

In 1962, Gould left California to become Chancellor of the State University of New York (SUNY). Shortly after, a center of international programs at SUNY was established at Planting Fields for the state-wide development and coordination of study abroad programs. Due to administrative and financial difficulties, the center moved to Albany and continued to play a coordinating role while program development moved to the individual campuses. By 1973, approximately 800 students were participating in SUNY programs in England (seven programs); France (six programs); Italy and Spain (three programs); Israel (two programs); and Canada, Denmark, Germany, Puerto Rico, and Switzerland (one each).

Also during the Sixties, a number of other large universities became engaged in study abroad activities in a significant manner. They included Indiana University, Pennsylvania State University, University of Colorado, Brigham Young University, Rutgers, and Tufts. Private colleges also made substantial commitments to study abroad during this period, specifically Kalamazoo, Beloit, Goshen and Friends World Colleges (Bowman, 1987).

During the 1980s, study abroad continued to grow. A study, sponsored by the Institute of International Education (IIE), by Goodwin and Nacht of the study abroad practices in approximately forty colleges and universities in California, Illinois, Massachusetts, and Texas, revealed that study abroad became in the 80s, an outlet

through which young Americans could satisfy their yearning to understand the world in which they live. This interest was spurred by the strength of the dollar abroad and the rising cost of higher education in the U.S. "American students and their families have simply done in the purchases of higher education what they have done in their consumption patterns: substituted cheaper and perhaps higher quality imports for more expensive and less attractive American products" (Goodwin & Nacht, 1988, p. 3).

Another reason for the growth in study abroad in the 80s, according to Goodwin and Nacht, was the familiarity Americans had with foreign travel either in the armed forces, the Peace Corps, on business, or as tourists. It seemed only natural to incorporate this life-style into undergraduate programs. Finally, the authors noted an altruistic motivation amongst students in their desire to live peacefully with others, stemming perhaps from the trauma of Vietnam.

Thirty years ago there were few cities in which a foreign student could blend easily and be accepted - Paris and a few university towns, perhaps. Today students find it almost as easy to 'hang out' in even Katmandu, as in London or Rome. The itinerant youth of the late Twentieth Century forming bonds across national boundaries constitute a Universalist subculture the significance of which is only just being explored. Clearly, study abroad is for some American students more than a strictly educational experience; It is a ticket to short-term membership in this subculture. (Goodwin & Nacht, 1988, p. 4)

While perhaps overstating their case, there can be no denying that study abroad has moved from being the preserve of the privileged few and has become, to a large extent, democratized. During 1991-92, 71,154 American students earned academic credit from a U.S. institution after returning from their study abroad experience (Zikopoulos, 1993, p. 89).¹⁴ Yet despite the growth of study abroad during the 60s, 70s and 80s,

¹⁴ This figure reported in Open Doors 1991-1992 focuses only on those students who earned academic credit for studying abroad. There are, of course, many other types of experiences available to students including internships, work, study/travel tours, vacations, etc., for which no academic credit is earned. Consequently, this figure does not take into account the many students who travel abroad for reasons other

professionals in the field would argue for significantly increasing the number of Americans who study abroad.

Three reports published in the late 80s and early 90s all indicate the level of dissatisfaction amongst international educators with the then-current state of affairs. Exchange 2000: International Leadership for the Next Century (Liaison Group for International Educational Exchange, 1989); Educating for Global Competence (Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange, 1988); and A National Mandate for Education Abroad: Getting on With the Task (National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad, 1990), all call for a rapid expansion of study abroad.¹⁵

Both the Liaison Group for International Educational Exchange (LGIEE) and the Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange recommend in their reports increasing the number of American students studying abroad to 10% by 1995. The Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange further stated that this number should be 25% by the year 2008. The National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad did recommend that an additional five years should be given to reach the 10% goal.

than formal study. Further, it does not include Americans studying abroad who are earning degrees from non-U.S. institutions or those enrolled in language programs for which U.S. academic credit is not awarded. Finally, given the difficulty collecting this information at the institutional level, those schools that did return the survey instrument (925 out of 1,176 mailed) probably underreported their actual numbers.

¹⁵ The Liaison Group is a non-profit organization founded in 1980. The Liaison Group consists of leadership of major non-profit international exchange organizations and higher education institutions. Its primary concern is increasing public support for international education and cultural linkages. The Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange comprised of a distinguished group of international educators appointed by the Council for International Educational Exchange (CIEE) to make recommendations on the future of study abroad. The National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad was an initiative of the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), CIEE, and the Institute of International Education (IIE) and established in June 1989 to raise the profile of study abroad, to be proactive in developing language to introduce into current legislation that will expand undergraduate opportunities, develop new legislation at the state and federal level, and to set forth an agenda for international education.

Following these recommendations, there was much discussion in the field of study abroad about the desirability of sending 10% of our student body abroad and in regard to the feasibility of achieving this by 1995 or by the year 2000. However, there was little argument over the need to increase the present number. The LGIEE report stated that in 1987-88 fewer than 2% of 12.2 million U.S. college and university students studied abroad for academic credit.

The reports had a number of other common themes. Principle amongst these was the need to increase the diversity of the student body that takes advantage of these opportunities. Efforts need to be made to reach out and increase the number of underrepresented groups, in particular minority students.

Students who study abroad are from a narrow spectrum of the total population. They are predominantly white females from highly educated professional families, majoring in the social sciences or humanities. They are high achievers and risk-takers. Many have had earlier overseas travel or international experience. Whether by their own choice or lack of encouragement to do so, there are fewer men, members of minority groups, students from nonprofessional and less-educated families, or science, education or business majors among undergraduates who study abroad. (Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange, 1988, p. 8)

The other aspect of diversity mentioned in the reports relates to the destination of the sojourners and the need for programs outside the traditional Anglo-European settings. In 1989-90, 76.7% of all U.S. students who studied abroad did so in Europe. A total of 27% studied in the United Kingdom, by far the most popular destination.

It is absolutely essential that college students cultivate an informed and sensitive awareness of those parts of the world in which more than half the global population lives; we need to be sure that our students learn about Latin America as well as Spain, French-speaking Africa as well as France. It is vital to our national interests and therefore our educational interests that American students learn how to co-exist with the Soviet Union and Eastern Europe. At present, the Middle East and the Arab world seem to be nearly as incomprehensible to many Americans as life on another

planet. (Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange, 1988, p. 13)

The third area the reports have in common deals with curricular matters and the need to better integrate the study abroad experience into the home institution's curriculum. Not only do students need to be assured that credit earned abroad will be recognized, but also that it will be treated as an integral part of their degree. Curricular planners need to recognize that study abroad is an asset to the educational program of students and that these students return with a wealth of information that needs to be better utilized in the classroom.

Organizations Involved in Study Abroad

U.S. Government

The growth of study abroad cannot be attributed solely to the initiatives of colleges and universities. The U.S. government, private agencies, and foundations have played an important role in the provision of financial resources, in the development of programs, and in developing a professional body of administrators. The involvement of the U.S. government in educational exchange only began in the twentieth century, the first initiative perhaps taking place in 1909 when President Theodore Roosevelt argued for a portion of the Boxer Indemnity Fund to bring Chinese students to the U.S. for further education. As a result of this initiative, some \$18 million was spent to educate 2,000 Chinese students. However, according to Speakman (1966, p. 31), the official participation of the U.S. government in programs of cultural cooperation began with the signing of the Convention for the Promotion of Inter-American Cultural Relations in 1936. This was the first step toward substantial involvement in developing cultural

relations with Latin America to counter the influence of Nazi Germany and to redress U.S. indifference toward this region of the world.

In 1939, the Inter-Departmental Committee of Cooperation was established to coordinate the efforts of twenty-five federal agencies. The Department of State, which in 1947 assumed the administration of these programs, created the Division of Cultural Affairs which handled programs with Latin America. In 1938, a General Advisory Committee was established as consultant to the Division of Cultural Affairs and changed the Division's emphasis toward technical assistance and economic and social goals. Further, the geographical scope of the program was enlarged to include countries in the Near and Far East. This made it possible in 1942 for 1,700 stranded Chinese students to complete their education in the U.S. and for the exchange of teachers and technical missions to China to occur. Further, since one of the reasons for the creation of the General Advisory Committee was to solicit input from private citizens, it organized four conferences in 1939 in Washington D.C., the largest of which was attended by 600 higher education leaders from 46 states.

In 1940, a third government office was established when Nelson Rockefeller was appointed Coordinator of Inter-American Affairs. Perhaps created to by-pass the bureaucracy of some of the other agencies, focusing on journalists and broadcasting personnel, it managed a larger exchange of people than the State Department. In 1943, some of its cultural programs were transferred to the Bureau of Cultural Affairs.

The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 (G.I. Bill of Rights), motivated by concern for the welfare of returning veterans, and Public Law 550 of 1952, which passed aid to the veterans of the Korean War, together "represented the largest scholarship grant to that point in the history of American higher education. Billions of federal dollars were spent on the higher education of millions of veterans" (Brubacher & Rudy, 1976, p. 231). While the G.I. Bill enabled many more Americans to enter institutions of higher

education, it also made it possible for many of them to study abroad. For most veterans, the war represented their first international experience. While tragic, it did enable them to travel abroad and experience new cultures and traditions. The war transplanted millions of Americans into situations with which they were unfamiliar. For some, this was an exciting time. Those fortunate enough to return to the U.S. did so quite different from the young people who were drafted some months or years before. For some, study abroad provided an opportunity to rekindle some of the excitement of their initial experience abroad in the armed services. It provided an opportunity to explore aspects of the country that were not possible during the war. Certainly, the ranks of students studying abroad during the 40s and 50s were swelled considerably by young men and women who served in both W.W.II and the Korean War. Further, their impact on the following generation of study abroad students, as parents, teachers, and professors, while impossible to measure, is probably quite significant.

By far the most important initiative directly related to international educational exchange was the Fulbright Program, which began in 1946 when Senator Fulbright of Arkansas (a Rhodes Scholar in 1925) proposed an amendment to the Property Acts of 1944. The amendment allowed the use of foreign currency from the sale of U.S. surplus war property abroad to finance Americans wishing to study abroad and the travel costs of international students desiring to come to the U.S. to study. In 1962, this amendment was repealed with the passage of the Fulbright-Hays Act, which extended and enlarged the 1946 amendment. Specifically, it broadened the functions of the Board of Foreign Scholarships (the screening and executive body), created a United States Advisory Commission on Educational and Cultural Affairs, recommended establishing centers for intercultural communication such as the East-West Center in Hawaii, increased the number of cultural presentations by international performers in the U.S. to approximate

the number of American performers traveling abroad, and recommended greater collaboration between international organizations.¹⁶

During the 30s and 40s, there had been an ongoing controversy concerning the independence of educational and cultural relations from foreign policy. To prevent educational exchange programs from becoming part of specific foreign policy objectives of the information program, the two were carefully distinguished in the United States Information and Educational Act of 1948, better known as the Smith-Mundt Act. The Act also recognized the important contribution of private organizations and encouraged their maximum utilization. However, as the cold war intensified, and with the creation of the United States Information Agency in 1953, there was an effort to move educational exchange programs into the Agency. These efforts were thwarted by the intervention of senators Fulbright, Mundt, and Hickenlooper.

The year 1954 saw the passage of the Agriculture Trade Development and Assistance Act (P.L. 480), which was primarily concerned with the financing of foreign purchases of agricultural surplus. The Act permitted the use of foreign currency held in U.S. possession abroad that had accumulated as a result of these purchases to be used for the support of educational exchange agreements and American studies abroad. According to Speakman, the impact of this Act and the Fulbright Amendment was to rationalize lower Congressional appropriations for exchange programs (\$16 million in 1951 to \$10 million in 1954) and to produce a geographical bias in the provision of these programs that resembled the emphasis of U.S. aid programs.

¹⁶ Since its inception, and through to 1991, the Fulbright Program has given approximately 200,000 scholarships. Each year, nearly 3,000 international students and scholars from over 140 countries come to the U.S. on this program. Further, approximately 2,000 Americans travel overseas as Fulbright grantees. The program is administered by the United States Information Agency (USIA), which is assisted by a number of non-profit organizations including The Council for the International Exchange of Scholars, the Institute of International Education, American-Mideast Educational and Training Services, the Latin American Scholarship Program of American Universities, etc. (USIA, 1991).

The 50s and 60s also saw Congressional approval in 1951 for the use of Finnish war debt payments for exchange programs between Finland and the United States and, in 1958, the signing of the first Soviet American Exchange Agreement that permitted a limited number of reciprocal exchanges. However, perhaps the initiative that most captured the imagination of the American people was the creation of the Peace Corps in 1961. This program provides American women and men of all ages the opportunity to use their skills and to promote goodwill and mutual understanding between people of the U.S. and those of developing nations. Typically, recruits serve for a period of 24 months following 3 months of training. During 1991, there were more than 7,000 volunteers and trainees in 90 countries (USIA, 1991).

A recent initiative that received much attention is The National Security and Education Act of 1991, better known as the Boren Bill. The Act created a \$150 million trust in the Treasury with five objectives in mind: 1) to meet the country's national security and education needs; 2) to strengthen teaching in language, area studies, and the international field; 3) to create interest in government jobs; 4) to broaden the nation's international perspective; and 5) to strengthen government advocacy and support of international education. These funds are used for undergraduate scholarships for individual U.S. citizens to study abroad, for a semester or longer, in countries where few U.S. students currently study. Graduate fellowships are available to study in the U.S. or abroad in languages, area studies, and in other areas where U.S. students are deficient. Funds are also available to American colleges and universities to assist in the development of their foreign language and area studies departments.

Students awarded undergraduate scholarships for twelve months or longer, must agree to serve in the Federal government or in education upon the completion of their studies for a period equaling the duration of the scholarship. Graduate fellowship

recipients must agree to serve for one to three times the length of the award. Students failing to honor this obligation will be required to pay back the award, plus interest.

The program is administered through the Department of Defense in consultation with a 13-member National Security Education Board, and chaired by the Secretary of Defense or a designate. Six positions will be filled by members of various Government departments and agencies, and there will be six non-government appointees. Study abroad administrators welcomed increased Government support for international education and the recognition that the Bill has brought to an area in higher education that needed strengthening. There was, however, concern that the Bill ignored the established practice of separating foreign policy and educational exchanges established by the Smith-Mundt Act. Further, by placing the program within the auspices of the Pentagon, the Bill further reinforced this connection.

The \$150 million appropriated by the Boren Bill is, however, a trifle considering the full extent of U.S. government investment in international exchange. The 1991 Report on U.S. Government International Exchange and Training Activities lists 130 international exchange and training programs administered by 22 Federal agencies and departments. The total funding of these programs exceeded \$1,620,061,976 and involved over 69,000 participants.¹⁷

Private Agencies

NAFSA: Association of International Educators, formally known as the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs, is a non-profit association founded in 1948. Headquartered in Washington, D.C., it has over 6,500 individual and institutional members located worldwide in sixty nations and in twelve regional divisions in the U.S.

¹⁷ The actual dollar amount and number of participants could well be much larger since a number of departments were unable to identify funding utilized specifically for international exchanges.

Within the organization, there are five professional sections including the Admissions Section (ADSEC), concerned primarily with issues related to recruitment, admission, evaluation and placement of international students in U.S. institutions of higher education; Administrators & Teachers in English as a Second Language (ATESL), a section for teachers and administrators in ESL programs; Council of Advisors to Foreign Students and Scholars (CAFSS), currently the largest section, concerned with issues related to counseling international students, immigration law, and administration and provision of services; Community Section (COMSEC), concerned with community programming for international students and scholars; and finally, the Section on U.S. Students Abroad (SECUSSA), comprised of professionals working in the field of study abroad for American students.

In the forty-five years the organization has existed, it has been an advocate for international education representing the concerns of its memberships to government agencies and articulating policy implications to practitioners. Through its publications, code of ethics, workshops and conferences, NAFSA can be credited with fostering the development of a body of trained professional administrators knowledgeable about the concerns and issues related to international students and U.S. nationals studying or working abroad.

The Institute for International Education (IIE) was founded in 1919 with a grant of \$30,000 from the Carnegie Endowment. Today, with an annual budget of \$139,200,234, it has become the largest U.S. higher educational agency, employing 342 people and thousands of volunteers worldwide. Headquartered in New York, IIE has offices in Washington, D.C., Chicago, Denver, Houston, and San Francisco, and international offices in Hong Kong, Hungary, Indonesia, Mexico, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. During 1992, the 285 programs administered by IIE enabled more than 10,000 men and women to engage in scholarly activities, practical training, or the provision of

technical assistance. Of these, more than 1,300 U.S. nationals studied, did research, or served as teaching assistants abroad. Many of these Americans were awarded Fulbright grants for Graduate Study Abroad, a program partially administered by IIE for USIA. Also during 1992, there were approximately 3,200 international Fulbright students studying in the U.S.

IIE is a non-profit organization responsible for the design and administration of international programs on behalf of U.S. and foreign governments, corporations, foundations, and international organizations. More than 650 U.S. colleges and universities are affiliated with IIE as Educational Associate institutions. Among the important publications produced by IIE are Academic Year Abroad and Vacation Study Abroad. These two volumes, updated annually, provide the most comprehensive listings of study abroad programs sponsored by U.S. and foreign institutions.

The Council for International Educational Exchange (CIEE) is a non-profit organization founded in 1947 and currently employing over 400 staff in the U.S., with an additional 150 staff overseas. CIEE develops and administers study, work, and travel programs for secondary, undergraduate, graduate students and professionals. During the 1990 academic year, some 30,000 individuals participated in CIEE programs.

CIEE is affiliated with Council Travel Services and Council Charter. Both of these organizations provide travel services specifically for students and faculty.

Impact of Study Abroad

Demographics

Few colleges and universities fully understand the range of international activities in which their students engage. While most institutions keep records of the number of students participating in their own programs, far less know the number of students who

enroll in programs sponsored by other institutions. Fewer still are able to provide accurate information on the number of students who engage in educational activities for which no academic credit is earned.

Reports on the number of international students studying in the U.S. have not suffered from this problem because institutions are required by law to monitor the immigration status of these students. Obtaining accurate numbers nationally has been a relatively straightforward process, and for many years IIE has published the results of an annual census of international students and scholars in their publication Open Doors. Unfortunately, the same cannot be said for the numbers of American students studying abroad. Obtaining accurate data can be a very time-consuming activity for the study abroad advisor since these figures are rarely available from a single source. Consequently, information obtained tends to under-report the actual number of students, and this is magnified at the national level.

The most recent attempts to obtain comprehensive and accurate information on the demographics of education abroad have been sponsored by CIEE and IIE. Based on the assumption that most students traveling abroad will purchase the International Student Identity Card (ISIC), IIE included a specially-developed questionnaire with their 1982-83 ISIC application. The ISIC can be purchased directly from CIEE through the mail or obtained on many campuses, often in their study abroad offices. The purpose of the study " . . . was to provide a base of descriptive information about U.S. students who go abroad for a broad range of reasons" (Koester, 1985, p. 9).

The study was not confined to study abroad and included a broad spectrum of activities students intended to accomplish during their sojourn. Such activities included study with U.S. institutions, direct enrollment in foreign universities, independent study, paid work, voluntary work, visiting friends, travel, educational travel, and other types of experiences. While the study provided a wealth of information on the demographics of

student travelers, their intended activities, and motivations for seeking this type of experience, it was not without limitations which are acknowledged by the author. Perhaps the most significant drawback is that it is a survey of self-reported intentions, which may or may not have been realized. Further, since only students who purchased the ISIC were included in the research, it cannot be considered an accurate count of students who traveled abroad during the period covered.

Taking a different approach, IIE developed a questionnaire to be completed by officials best able to furnish accurate data on study abroad participation at their institutions. The results were published in Open Doors for the years 1985-86, 1987-88, 1989-90, and 1991-1992. These data provide the most comprehensive information available on study abroad activity of American students. However, the study has its limitations, since only the students who received academic credit from their own institution for the successful completion of a study abroad program are counted. Further, the institutional response rate has never been as high as it should be, since a number of institutions failed to respond. Cooper and Grant (1992) suggest that this may be due to confusion over how to count students participating in programs sponsored by other organizations. Further, the problem of obtaining an accurate picture is compounded by the fact that students are counted twice: by the home institution and by the institution sponsoring the program in which they participated. Consequently, the numbers of students reported in the **IIE** survey is very conservative.

Despite these drawbacks, Open Doors does provide the most complete picture of study abroad activity and the documentation of trends within the field. Consequently, I will draw heavily on this source to provide the reader with current information on levels of study abroad participation and the characteristics of students who avail themselves of these opportunities. Since the data make reference to different types of study abroad programs, I will first provide a description of these.

Basic Facts on Study Abroad (Council on International Educational Exchange, Institute for International Education, National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1990), identifies five types of programs from which American students wishing to study abroad can choose. They include:

- 1) Programs sponsored by a U.S. college or university.
- 2) Special programs for international students at a foreign university.
- 3) Direct enrollment in a foreign university as a degree candidate, occasional, or special student.
- 4) Programs sponsored by an organization other than a college or university
- 5) Enrollment in a U.S. or international college abroad.

The vast majority of students who study abroad do so on programs sponsored by their own institutions or other American colleges and universities. During the 1991-92 academic year (the period for which the most recent records are available), 71,154 students are reported to have studied abroad. Of this group, 81.6% participated in programs sponsored by U.S. institutions, 8.1% chose to enroll directly in a foreign institution, and the remaining 10.3% selected other options (Zikopoulos, 1993).

Students overwhelmingly select programs sponsored by U.S. institutions, most often their own university or college, because of the ease of credit transfer, the amount of information available on these programs, the use of teaching and evaluation techniques with which they are familiar, and the general convenience of enrolling in these programs. Further, these programs are particularly suited to students interested in a study abroad experience of limited duration since many of them may only last three to five weeks. Academic Year Abroad (Steen, 1995), and Vacation Study Abroad (Steen, 1995), two publications from IIE, list 3,898 study abroad programs between them (2,250 and 1,648,

respectively). The vast majority of the entries in these two volumes are programs sponsored by U.S. universities and colleges.

The IIE survey only identifies three options for studying abroad. It appears likely that direct enrollment in a foreign institution would include categories 2 and 3 in Basic Facts of Study Abroad. In all three cases, students would enroll directly into a foreign institution; however, in option 2 they would participate in a program specifically designed for non-native students. For instance, this might include courses taught in English in non-English speaking countries that are not part of the regular curriculum of the university, or language courses designed for non-native speakers. Option 3 includes programs in which students enroll in courses that are part of the regular curriculum of the university. These would be taught in the standard language of instruction by faculty from that institution. It might be the intention of the student to pursue a degree offered by the foreign institution or, as is more often the case, apply the credit earned abroad toward a degree from a U.S. college or university.

Not all study abroad programs are sponsored by colleges and universities. Many U.S. students attend language centers not affiliated with either an American or foreign university. These centers may provide excellent and state of the art instruction; however, since they have no affiliation with a recognized degree-granting institution, they are unable to award academic credit acceptable to the majority of U.S. colleges and universities. Students can, in many cases, receive recognition for the learning that has taken place by simply testing out. A further example of this option is programs sponsored by profit and non-profit organizations which are not in themselves colleges or universities, but whose programs may be based at one or more college or university. The sponsoring organization may provide group travel, housing, a resident director, on-site orientation, enrollment into the host institution abroad, and a wide variety of services. It is, however, the affiliated academic institution that awards the credit.

Finally, U.S. students may enroll in U.S. or international colleges abroad. The former include the overseas campuses of U.S. colleges or universities. Alternatively, students might enroll in colleges which, while located abroad, are accredited in the U.S. Typically, these institutions resemble small private liberal arts colleges and enroll international and U.S. students, the majority of whom pursue a four-year degree. Also within this option are a number of Asian and Middle Eastern institutions which were founded by U.S. organizations and provide a U.S.-style education. Despite their origins, they form part of the educational system of the host country, providing a U.S.-style education for the citizens of that country. Nevertheless, U.S. students may enroll in these institutions, although some may have quotas.

Tables 1 and 2 clearly demonstrate the preference for Europe (71.3% in 1991-92), and the United Kingdom in particular, as the destination of the majority of students. While study abroad advisors might wish for a greater number of students to venture beyond Europe, this continent is an obvious choice given the cultural and ancestral ties that bind Europe and the U.S. Further, the common language of the U.S. and the United Kingdom and the popularity of French and Spanish in post-secondary education also add to the attraction of the United Kingdom, France and Spain.

It is interesting to note that the percentage of students studying in Europe fell from 79.6% to 71.3% during the period 1985-86 to 1991-92. Most of this decline can be attributed to a smaller percentage of students selecting the United Kingdom; however, France, Italy and Germany also experienced small declines. The other regions of the world, with the exception of the Middle East, have attracted increasing percentages of students, the most notable increase being Latin America (Zikopoulos, 1993).

The data in Table 3 clearly illustrates the preponderance of students majoring in humanities/liberal arts, social sciences, and foreign languages, engaged in study abroad activities.

Table 1

Host Region of U.S. Study Abroad Students, 1985-86 to 1991-92

Host Region	% Of Study Abroad Students			
	1985-86	1987-88	1989-90	1991-92
Africa	1.1	1.2	1.3	1.8
Asia	5.4	6.1	5.0	5.9
Europe	79.6	75.4	76.7	71.3
Latin America	7.0	9.2	9.4	12.3
Middle East	4.0	4.7	2.7	2.7
North America	0.9	1.4	0.8	0.9
Oceania	0.9	1.2	1.9	3.1
Multiple Regions	1.0	0.8	2.2	2.1

Note. From *Open Doors 1991-1992* (p. 87) by M. Zikopoulos, (Ed.), 1993, New York: IIE

Table 2

Leading Host Countries of U.S. Study Abroad Students, 1985-86 to 1991-92

Host Region	% Of Study Abroad Students			
	1985-86	1987-88	1989-90	1991-92
United Kingdom	29.3	28.5	27.0	23.3
France	13.7	12.0	12.8	11.5
Spain	8.8	7.9	10.4	10.0
Italy	7.8	7.7	8.4	7.5
Mexico	4.2	5.3	5.0	6.5
Germany	6.1	5.0	4.7	4.9
Japan	2.5	2.2	2.1	2.8
Australia	0.5	1.0	1.6	2.8
Israel	4.0	3.5	2.6	2.6
Austria	3.9	3.1	3.0	2.5
Russia	1.1*	1.3*	-	1.9
Costa Rica	0.7	0.8	1.5	1.8
Ireland	0.9	0.9	1.1	1.6
Greece	0.6	0.6	1.0	1.2
Switzerland	1.5	1.0	1.6	1.1

* Country of destination for these years was the U.S.S.R.

Note. From *Open Doors 1991-1992* (p. 88) by M. Zikopoulos, (Ed.), 1993, New York: IIE

Table 3

Fields of Study of U.S. Study Abroad Students, 1985-86 to 1991-92

Field of Study	% Of Study Abroad Students			
	1985-86	1987-88	1989-90	1991-92
Agriculture	1.0	0.7	0.4	0.7
Business & Management	10.9	11.1	10.9	12.0
Education	4.1	4.0	4.6	5.7
Engineering	1.6	1.4	1.3	1.6
Fine and Applied Arts	6.9	6.4	6.1	9.9
Foreign Language	16.7	14.8	12.5	14.0
Health Sciences	1.7	1.4	1.1	1.1
Humanities/Liberal Arts	26.0	31.9	31.8	21.1
Math & Computer Science	1.3	1.2	0.8	1.1
Physical & Life Sciences	3.8	2.5	3.7	3.8
Social Sciences	13.7	14.0	16.6	17.3
Undeclared	4.2	3.8	3.4	4.1
Other	8.2	6.8	6.8	7.6

Note. From *Open Doors 1991-1992* (p. 89) by M. Zikopoulos, (Ed.), 1993, New York: IIE

As a group (these majors are often housed in the same college) accounted for 52.4% of the 1991-92 total. Outside this group of majors, business and management comprised the next largest group accounting for 12.0% of the 1991-92 total.

A cautionary note should be made in interpreting these figures. Since the first group often represents the largest number of students on the majority of campuses, it would be expected they should represent the largest portion of study abroad students. However, despite this, they do appear to be over-represented, and students majoring in agriculture, education, and engineering are most certainly under-represented. It is during part of the junior year when most students elect to study abroad (38.3% in 1991-92). Programs offered during the summer (30.8% in 1991-92) or single semester (37.5% in 1991-92) are ones that most students prefer. Academic year programs are also popular accounting for 15.9% (1991-92) of students who study abroad. Finally, and

overwhelmingly, it is females (63.0% in 1991-92) who constitute the vast majority of U.S. students who study abroad (Zikopoulos, 1993).

The demographics of the U.S. student population that studies abroad stand in stark contrast to the international student population in the U.S. The most obvious difference is the discrepancy in numbers. According to Zikopoulos (1992), during 1991-92 there were 419,590 international students attending U.S. colleges and universities. This figure dwarfs the 71,154 Americans who studied abroad during the same period. Of these international students, 58.7% came from Asian countries, and 50.1% of full-time students were studying at the undergraduate graduate level compared with 44.5% who were graduate students. The majority of internationals were male (58.4% of undergraduates and 69.4% of graduate students), and the most popular undergraduate majors were business and management (20.1%), engineering (17.7%), and math and computer science (8.7%). The typical profile of the U.S. student who studies abroad (female undergraduate majoring in the liberal arts group of majors) is almost the exact opposite of the typical profile of the international student.

Further, the institutional pattern of study abroad participation is very uneven.

If you are at a Ph.D. granting university (32 percent of all full-time students), your chances are very high that the institution will sponsor at least one study abroad program, and probably many. However, the chances are less than one in ten that you will go on one. If you are at a comprehensive institution (26 percent of all full-time students) or a baccalaureate college (11 percent of all students), the number of institutionally sponsored programs available will probably be less, but your chance of picking an institution that has a higher percentage of students studying abroad is greater, particularly if you can get into a highly selective, private liberal arts college. If you attend a community college (24 percent of all full-time students), the chances that the institution will have a program, or that you will go on one if it does are slim. (Lambert, 1989, p. 18)

Impact Studies

The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Article 26.2 states:

Education shall be directed to the full development of the human personality and to the strengthening of respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms. It shall promote understanding, tolerance and friendship among nations, racial or religious groups, and shall further the activities of the United Nations for the maintenance of peace. (Sieghart, 1986, p. 176)

Echoing this sentiment, Coelho (1962, p. 67) states, "...cross-cultural education, in a democratic and open society, is committed to facilitate the process of education of the whole person as an international student and as an individual." Hull and Lemke (1975, p.) also state, "Education includes the development of both intellectual facilities and moral responsibilities."

Abrams and Hatch (1960) summarize the goals of study abroad programs under three sets of value concerns which include: 1) the intellectual and professional development of the students in their specialized field; 2) the general knowledge of the students specifically related to their knowledge of international affairs, an appreciation of their own cultural heritage, value clarification, language learning, and self-reliance and maturity; and 3) the furthering of international understanding. Coelho (1962) outlines four general goals of study abroad programs that are very much in agreement with those of Abrams and Hatch. They include: 1) international understanding; 2) technical and specialty training; 3) personal growth; and 4) general education. According to Sell (1983), the general goals outlined by Coelho hold true for goals listed in a number of articles published both before and after Coelho's.

Expanding the value of international education beyond individual gains to include the benefits to the nation, institution, and discipline, Sanders and Ward (1970, p. 4) summarized the rationale for these activities as:

1) The national need. We need specialists on foreign areas, men and women skilled in languages, cultures, psychology, and attributes of people in other countries. Such specialists, with insights as to how other people

perceive the world can enable the U.S. to develop more realistic and enlightened policies essential to fulfillment of its responsibility as a world power. There is also national need for a larger portion of the electorate to be well informed on international affairs and for an accompanying sensitization of public officials to the opinions of a better informed electorate.

2) The college or university as an institution. In short, a university whose curriculum is not universal hardly lives up to its name. Scholarship should not be limited to that of Western countries. It should also draw upon the resources of scholars everywhere.

3) The discipline. If the principles of any discipline (economics, sociology, political science, etc.) do not hold true for all parties of the world, then the discipline itself needs to become more comparative and more international. Fitting new data from other countries into the analysis of problems studied by those in the discipline is an essential part of that discipline's growth.

4) The individual as a world citizen. Those who have broadened their perspective about other peoples during their college days usually feel a greater satisfaction in following news events, in participating in cultural activities which draw on foreign art forms and in discussing travel, world religions, or varying family systems. Study abroad programs contribute to the individual's understanding of foreign nations and also provide deeper insight into the U.S. and its unique role in the world.

Despite the claims of its proponents, relatively little is known about the impact on students resulting from their study abroad experience (Smith, 1970; Hull, Lemke, & Houang, 1977; Nash, 1976; Marion, 1980; Carlson, Burn, Useem, & Yachimowicz, 1990). According to Sell (1983), most of the studies that relate to intercultural experiences have focused on the international student population in the U.S., while few have focused on Americans abroad.

At present, little is known about the impact of the collegiate education upon individual's affective concepts or values. When the American undergraduate who studies off campus is specifically considered, even less is known. As has been publicly admitted about overseas programs in particular: obviously we are working on faith because we really have very little evidence of what happens as a result of international educational experience. I see no reason to be quite so ignorant as we now are, having been in the business twenty years. (Hull et al., 1977, p. 111)

Some six years later, the situation remained essentially the same.

... study abroad programs involve substantial expenses for both the students and the sponsoring educational institution: hence, information about the types of effects on student participants associated with study abroad would be useful. What happens to American students when they study abroad, and how do they adapt to this experience so that it is beneficial to their personal development? Do changes identified in the literature persist? Which of the changes that take place during the study abroad are relatively transient in nature and which ones continue as enduring parts of one's personality? How do changes identified in students who study abroad compare with students who do not study abroad? Because these questions remain largely unanswered, there seems to be considerable need for more research on study abroad programs. (Kauffmann, 1983, pp. 9-10)

According to Koester (1985), studies that have looked at the American student abroad have either focused on "attitude change variables" or other more "personal consequence effects." In the first category, researchers have investigated the impact of the sojourn experience on worldmindedness, ethnocentrism, tolerance for ambiguity, internationalism, radicalism-conservatism, attitude toward one's own country, and understanding of one's own culture. In regard to "personal consequence effects", researchers have investigated changes in self-concept, self-esteem, and self-confidence. Further, they have investigated changes in academic interests and performance, and interest in world affairs and in future careers. Unfortunately, these studies have failed to "... produce unequivocal support for the benefits of international exposure for U.S. students" (Koester, 1985, p. 5).

A number of studies (Davis, 1974, Hull & Lemke, 1975; Kauffmann, 1983) divide impact studies into two groups: 1) those that utilize existing "standardized" instruments, and 2) those that utilize instruments specifically developed for the study. For the purpose of providing an overview of these studies, I will employ the same system.

Studies Utilizing Existing Standardized Instruments

Examining the impact of intercultural experiences on attitude and behavior change, and the influence of pre-existing attitudes on subsequent attitude changes, Smith (1955) developed a questionnaire that included the World-Mindedness Scale, California Public Opinion Scale, and the Democracy Scale. These were mailed to four experimental groups who spent a summer in Europe (136 students who lived with families, 26 volunteer workers, 44 tourists, and 44 students travelers) and to three campus based control groups consisting of comparable individuals. Individuals in each of the groups were also mailed a questionnaire after the conclusion of the summer sojourn. Smith found that changes in "international-oriented behavior" occurred only in the experimental groups. Further, he was unable to detect significant changes in conservatism, ethnocentrism, authoritarianism, political-economic conservatism, and belief in the democratic group process. He concluded that ". . . a relatively brief experience in another culture had a limited impact on general attitudes" (1955, p. 475). Perhaps the most significant finding, and one that has been supported by subsequent research (Leonard, 1964; Morgan, 1972; Hull et al., 1977; Hensley & Sell, 1979), was the influence of pre-sojourn attitudes on post-sojourn attitudes.

What a person's general attitudes will be after such a heterogeneous experience as being in another country is determined more by what his attitudes are like before he leaves home than by what happens to him while he is away. (Smith, 1955, pp. 474-475)

Four and a half years later, Smith (1957) sent a questionnaire, containing many of the same scales as the original study, to the experimental and control groups and received 156 responses. All students in the experimental groups experienced significant decrease in worldmindedness and ethnocentrism, while individuals in the control group experienced a significant decrease only in ethnocentrism. Further, Smith found that

program participants became less authoritarian and more conservative in regard to political and economic affairs; however, he attributed these to the effects of aging rather than to the long-term effects of the sojourn.

McGuigan (1958) investigated the impact of a semester in Paris on various personality facets of 49 female Hollins College students who studied at the Sorbonne or the British Institute. The students lived with French families and traveled throughout Europe during their summer vacation. Students who participated in the program during 1955-1956 ($n = 22$) and 1956-1957 ($n = 27$) formed the sample for the first study, which also employed the use of control groups ($n = 53$ in 1955-1956 and $n = 51$ during 1956-57). The Study of Values, F Scale, Security-Insecurity Inventory, and Social Distance Scale were administered on three occasions (before, during, and after the sojourn) to the first group. The Political-Economic Conservatism (PEC) Scale, Ethnocentrism (E) Scale, World-Mindedness Scale, Philips Attitude Toward Self and Others Questionnaire, Adjustment Inventory, Personality Inventory, and the Social Distance Scale were administered to the 1956-1957 group.

McGuigan found that of the 24 psychological components measures, only two (development of higher social values, and development of more submissive social development) proved to be significant. Repeating the experiment with the 1957-1958 Hollins group ($n = 31$) and with a control group ($n = 148$), McGuigan (1959) used the Social and Personal Distance Scale, Scale of Hostile Feelings Toward "Typical" Americans, Social Options Inventory, and the Navran Dependency Scale. On this occasion, a greater number of significant differences was found. Specifically, the effects of a year abroad were:

- a) a decrease in Ethnic Distance; b) a consistent increase in Xenophilic tendencies throughout the year; c) development of "hostile" feelings toward Americans as shown by a tendency to ascribe fewer positive traits to them than to Europeans throughout the year, and also to ascribe

relatively more negative traits to them than to Europeans throughout the year; and d) less dependency. (McGuigan, 1959, p. 248)

Utilizing the C-R Opinionnaire developed by Theodore F. Lentz, Leonard's study (1964) investigated the impact of a study abroad experience on participants' receptivity to new values. Groups of Adelphi University students ($n=85$) who studied abroad between 1957 and 1961 were given the test immediately upon entering a semester long pre-departure orientation course of two hours a week, and immediately upon returning from overseas. While abroad, students initially enrolled in short summer courses with international students followed by free travel and eventually direct matriculation into preselected universities in England, Spain and Italy.

The C-R Opinionnaire attempts to measure the extent to which an individual strives for new values or conserves old ones. Lentz discovered that seniors ($n = 580$) averaged five points less than freshmen on the C-R Opinionnaire, indicating a shift toward greater receptivity to new values. Students on the Adelphi program dropped, on average, eight points in less than one year. Of the 85 students, 52 had lower scores with an average shift of 18 points and 26 had higher scores with an average shift of 9.5 points. The study revealed that the greatest shift in the liberal direction was more pronounced amongst the more conservative students with the most liberal quartile of students actually recording a slight shift in the conservative direction. Interestingly, students with a higher IQ were more liberal initially but registered less change in the liberal direction. From the data, Leonard concluded that personality is a better predictor of change than the nature of the overseas experience.

Kafka (1968) studied the impact of a ten-week intensive overseas educational experience on 81 sophomores from Justin Morrill College (an experimental college with a cross-cultural focus within Michigan State University). Using a control group ($n = 127$), Kafka administered Sampson and Smith's "World-Mindedness Scale,"

Rokeach's "Dogmatism Scale," and Price's "Differential Values Inventory" both before and after the sojourn. In addition, a number of variables relating to academic performance, cultural immersion, and self-image were taken into consideration. Kafka failed to find any variables related to changes in "world-mindedness" or a significant increase in "worldmindedness" by the experimental group. He felt that the "World-Mindedness Scale" was possibly an insufficiently sensitive instrument for this type of research. He also cited the relatively brief period abroad as a contributing factor.

A study by C. T. Smith (1970) attempted to link changes in values and interests of a group of students who participated in Kalamazoo College programs in Africa, France, Germany, and Spain during the 1966-67, 1967-68, and 1968-69 academic years with the specific characteristics of those programs. Using data collected from the College Entrance Examination Board's foreign language reading and listening tests, Allport-Vernon-Lindzey's "Study of Values," Kalamazoo College's evaluation forms, and Educational Testing Service's "College Student Questionnaire," Smith found six program characteristics productive of value and attitude change. Of these, the most powerful were "Breadth of Exposure to Non-Americans" and "The Presence of an American subculture". Smith's data revealed that students who interacted with both Americans and non-Americans alike experienced the greatest amount of change. In addition, students who lived with host families experienced greater change than those who lived in dormitories, as did those students who received instruction in English, or a combination of English and the host language, than those students who received all their instruction in the host language.

A study by Morgan (1972) of three groups of American college students who studied in Switzerland ($n = 44$) during their junior year revealed only one significant change for the total sample, and for males in particular, on the aesthetic scale of the Study of Values. In addition to the Study of Value Scale, Morgan administered the Rokeach

Value Scale, and the Rokeach Dogmatic Scale both before and after the sojourn. Finding only one significant difference, Morgan argued that aggregate values can mask individual changes and, using multidimensional scaling and hierarchical clustering of interview and observation data, he developed a typology of five adaptation styles. These ranged from the "cultural relativist" (type A) to the "cultural opposites" (type E), each adapting differently to the cross-cultural experience. The "cultural relativists" were able to cope, adapt, and empathize with people different from themselves while adaptation for the "cultural opposites" meant closer ties with their American friends, intense nostalgia for home, and heightened sense of nationalism.

In a study to determine attitude changes among twelve American college students who participated in a fourteen-week program at the Tarkio College center in Alexandria, Egypt, Bower (1973) employed the This I Believe (TIB) and the Conceptual Systems Test developed by O. J. Harvey of the University of Colorado. These tests, which were administered both before and after the sojourn, measured change in thirteen dimensions and factors related primarily to attitudes of openness and flexibility. Case data were obtained from the Personal Opinion Questionnaire (Rokeach) and Profile of Values (Allport, Vernon, & Lindzey). Further data were obtained from application statements, activity resumes, and interviews. A control group was not used for this study.

The results of the study showed that almost an equal number of students indicated a change in the direction of greater openness, flexibility, and sensitivity to change (39%) as those who displayed a change in the opposite direction (38%). A further 23% of the sample indicated no change. Bower acknowledges that, given the sample size, this cannot be construed as a statement of statistical significance and, therefore, generalizability; however, he does conclude:

It appears that a fourteen week "center" program in Alexandria, Egypt, served to produce attitude change among twelve American college

students. The change in attitudes was nearly as great in a negative direction as in a positive direction. The amount of positive change compared to negative change and no change appears to be so small as to challenge assumptions of Study Abroad which argue that tendencies toward openness, flexibility and sensitivity to change are fostered by Study Abroad. (pp. 387-386)

Critical of the studies investigating the impact of study abroad, Nash (1976) maintains few researchers have employed a sufficiently rigorous experimental design. Using the argument forwarded by proponents of study abroad that the experience produces an individual who is able to ". . . increasingly differentiate himself from his or her surroundings and develop an expanded, more tolerant, and flexible self-structure adjusted to a changing, ambiguous, transcultural environment. He or she will be more assured and confident and display greater objectivity towards his or her self and the world" (1976, p. 195), Nash developed a series of hypotheses regarding the outcome of the study abroad experience on the personality of student sojourners. Employing a design that utilized an experimental group ($n = 41$) and a control group ($n = 47$) of comparable students who remained at home, Nash administered a series of tests before and after the study abroad experience that included: 1) a series of "I am . . ." statements; 2) scales to assess "liberal" or "anti-authoritarian" tendencies; 3) scales measuring tolerance of ambiguity; and 4) the Rosenberg Self-Evaluation Scale to measure self-confidence.

The results of Nash's study showed that the experimental group exhibited increased tolerance and expansion and differentiation of self. The study did not indicate whether the experimental group showed a significant increase in tolerance, flexibility, self-assurance, or confidence. Further, using less than adequate data, the study suggests that the personality changes did not persist upon return to the U.S.

Studies Utilizing Specifically Developed Instruments

During the winter of 1972-73, James (1976) interviewed 52 students studying in Europe. Of this group, 4 students were studying independently at a French university while the others were randomly selected from three institutions with programs in Vienna, Florence, Montpellier, Avignon, and London. Prior to the sojourn, the Omnibus Personality Inventory was administered to determine how these students compared with their counterparts who remained in the U.S. During the on-site interview, information was collected on participants' attitudes toward personal goals, aspirations, and values. Finally, a follow-up questionnaire was mailed one year later so participants could report on changes and developments.

Over 90% of those interviewed responded positively toward the value of the experience of studying abroad. The most significant changes were related to self-confidence, self-esteem, appreciation of one's capabilities and worth, improved interpersonal skills, and an understanding of the American culture in comparison to other countries'. Further, most students considered their sojourn to be a highly significant experience with lasting benefits.

Utilizing a similar methodology, Carsello and Creaser (1976) talked with students, primarily in their junior year, studying in Italy, Spain, and Switzerland in programs sponsored by Loyola, Trinity, Rosary, Georgetown, Providence, Sweet Briar, Hamilton, and Tulane. In addition, a self-assessment was administered to determine changes in interests, attitudes, or skills in thirty areas relating to academic or personal concerns. A total of 209 students was involved in the study, which did not include the use of a control group.

From the data, Carsello and Creaser constructed two tables—one of "Positive Changes in Order of Diminishing Percentages" and a second of "Negative Changes in Order of Diminishing Percentages". Generally, a negative correlation existed between

the two tables so those variables high on one list were usually low on the other.

Variables high on the list of positive changes, in rank order, included: interest in travel, interest in arts, interest in foreign languages, interest in architecture, and self-concept. Study habits, ability to concentrate, reading newspapers, reading periodicals, reading fiction, physical health, and peace of mind were some of the variables, listed in rank order, on the second table. Carsello and Creaser noted that 63% of participants reported a positive change in self-concept while only 8.1% reported a negative one.

In a study of off-campus (domestic) and overseas programs, Hull et. al. (1977) sought to identify specific program objectives and to determine the extent to which participants perceived these objectives as having been realized. The overseas programs investigated were those offered by a single university in Northern Europe and East and West Africa. The off-campus domestic programs were selected on the basis of their reputation as good urban programs for undergraduates. The study utilized three forms of the Individual Opinion Inventory (IOI) developed by the authors for the purpose of this study. The IOI was administered prior and immediately following the sojourn, which typically lasted 11-16 weeks. Variations of the IOI were developed specifically for the three types of experiences investigated. Form A was administered to participants in the overseas programs resulting in 657 usable pre-sojourn responses and 442 usable post-sojourn responses. Form B was administered to the domestic sojourners and resulted in 270 usable pre-sojourn responses and 257 usable post-sojourn responses. Form C was administered to sophomores and juniors from three universities (a large campus of an Eastern state university system, a private Midwestern liberal arts college, and a campus of a major Western state university system) and resulted in a baseline sample of 630 responses.

The results of this study tended not to be supportive of the claims of study abroad proponents.

First, it was quite clear that individuals changed and were changed drastically during and by various programs overseas, within the United States and at the home campuses; but the changes could not be attributed to the factor of location. Change seemed rather to be a factor of individual receptivity, motivation, openness, personal psychology, and chance experiences.

Second, in this study, no clear or general superiority of off-campus overseas programs was demonstrated over off-campus domestic programs in altering student-reported perceptions of affective areas under consideration.

Third, in a surprising number of instances, more change was indicated as occurring during domestic programs than during overseas programs on variables long considered to be in the semi-exclusive domain of international programs. (Hull et al., 1977, p. 49)

In addition, students questioned the need for foreign language preparation for participants in programs not specifically for foreign language majors. Finally, while participants in off-campus programs, both domestic and international, recommended these programs to other students, they unanimously considered them to be academically inferior to standards prevalent at their home campuses. Hull et al. attributed this to a tendency to view academics in the strictest sense and not to consider experimental or developmental education.

Two studies, Abrams (1979) and Pelowski (1979), investigated the lasting impact of the study abroad experience. Abrams surveyed 424 former Antioch students from the 60s, of which 330 had participated in study abroad programs sponsored by the college. The remaining 94 students stayed in the U.S. Of the students who had studied abroad, 79% felt extremely positive about the experience and 78% felt they had become significantly involved in another culture. As a result of the sojourn, 80% reported an ability to communicate well with host nationals and 92% that the experience had challenged many of them in regard to their perceptions of themselves as Americans. In comparison with those students who remained in the U.S., the study abroad group displayed a greater academic propensity and entered graduate schools and earned

doctorates in higher numbers. Further, they traveled abroad more and showed greater involvement in international activities and greater interest in international affairs. Finally, they read more in a foreign language.

Pelowski's study (1979) investigated the impact of the Winter Term Abroad, a requirement for graduation, on students from Lake Erie College for Women who graduated between 1954 to 1978. Pelowski was interested to know the significance of the cross-cultural experience on alumnae as many as 25 years after the event and the variables that contribute to the importance of this experience in their later lives. Finally, he wanted to understand the impact of four independent variables on the quality of the sojourn experience. The four variables identified were: 1) the type of center attended, specifically the predominant language of instruction; 2) area of concentration, specifically foreign language majors compared with other majors; 3) length of time at Lake Erie College, specifically comparing transfer with four-year students; and 4) the General Studies Program, a single course taught each year that stressed the relationship of the individual to what was happening around her, to compare those who participated in this program with those who did not.

A 20% stratified random sample of students, by class, who completed the full four year program at Lake Erie College ($n = 462$) and an additional 123 transfer students were mailed a questionnaire. Of the 251 questionnaires returned, 235 were usable. In order to increase the response rate, Pelowski mailed 151 abbreviated questionnaires to the non-respondents and, of these, 78 were returned. Like Abrams' study (1979), Pelowski's data revealed the importance of the sojourn experience to alumnae of these programs.

In general, all alumni assign very high personal value to the sojourn experience. They feel that the term abroad was an integral part of their education and cite personal and social growth as outcomes more often than academic or intellectual outcomes. The variable which seems to play a significant role in the sojourn is the quality of the host family relationship with the student. In this study there is a positive correlation between

degree of comfort in the host family and the alumna's assigned value of the sojourn experience. (Pelowski, 1979, Abstract)

Part of the Winter Term Abroad program required students to complete an independent study project while abroad. Pelowski found that projects that required interaction with the host nationals resulted in alumnae having more positive feelings about the sojourn experience. Further, alumnae who attended the foreign language centers, who participated in the General Studies Program, or who were transfer students regarded the sojourn experience more highly than those students who attended the English language centers, did not participate in the General Studies Program, or who completed the four year program at Lake Erie College. Pelowski concludes:

The term abroad has made a difference in the lives of Lake Erie's alumnae and continues to be an experience from which alumnae find both cognitive knowledge and personal resources in their lives. The sojourn is not something that happened last year nor twenty-five years ago: it is continually recreated as a singular event from which further meaning is found as life experiences evolve. (Pelowski, 1979, Abstract)

Kauffmann (1983), in his study of the impact of study abroad on personality change, investigated the influence of Goshen College's Study Service Trimester (SST) on 126 students who participated in programs primarily located in the Caribbean and Central America during Fall 1980 ($n = 58$) and Spring 1981 ($n = 68$). The SST program lasted 14 weeks and included a seven-week program of study in which students became acquainted with the host culture through lectures, fieldtrips, seminars, language instruction, and directed reading. The second half of the program involved volunteer work such as teaching, community development, and assisting in medical work.

Since all students at Goshen College participated in the SST, Kauffmann employed a control group randomly selected from a comparable group of students

studying at two other Mennonite colleges (Eastern Mennonite, $n = 42$, and Bethel College, $n = 39$). The Omnibus Personality Inventory - Form F (OPI) was administered to both groups before and immediately after the sojourn and approximately one year later. In addition, the Debriefing Interview Guide (DIG), an instrument specifically developed for the investigation, was used to guide the interaction between counselor and student during the debriefing sessions. During February 1981, 37 of the Fall study abroad students agreed to be interviewed by 22 specially-trained faculty interviewers. The fall experiment was replicated during the winter, and the OPI was administered to 68 students before and after the sojourn.

The data revealed the SST experience was most influential in three personality functioning dimensions: 1) a change in world view and interest in reflective thought in the arts, literature and language; 2) an increased interest in the welfare of others; and 3) an increased self confidence and sense of well being. Further, the significant differences in thinking, introversion, and altruism appeared to have persisted one year later. Of the students interviewed, 60% felt the OPI accurately depicted the dimension and magnitude of change. An additional 25% indicated that while the OPI had recognized the dimension, the magnitude of change was greater than indicated. Thirty-two percent of students reported enhanced intellectualism and tolerance for ambiguity and 62% felt the service component to be the most significant aspect of the program (Kauffmann & Kuh, 1985).

Two of the conclusions of this study, increased affective and cognitive growth and interest in the liberal arts, imply that liberal arts colleges can use a study/service term abroad as an important component of general education. (Kauffmann, 1983, p. 147)

A study by Carlson and Widaman (1988) to assess changes in attitudes and perceptions toward international understanding involved the use of a post-test design with

a control group. A questionnaire mailed to students asked for retrospective views prior to the junior year and those presently held. The experimental group consisted of students ($n = 450$) spent their junior year in the Federal Republic of Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Sweden, and/or the United Kingdom on programs sponsored by the University of California. Data on this group were drawn from the 304 questionnaires that were returned. A comparison group ($n = 800$) was comprised of randomly selected seniors with 3.00 GPA or above at seven U.C. campuses. A response rate of 65% was achieved with this group.

The results of this study were in the expected direction, with the sojourn group showing higher levels of international political concern, cross-cultural interest, and "cultural cosmopolitanism." Students who studied abroad reported more significantly positive, if more critical, attitudes towards the U.S. than the control group. Further, those students with no previous experience abroad reported significantly greater gains than those students with prior international experience. In this regard, the sojourn experience served an equalizing function, bringing the groups closer together in relation to the variables under study. However, this was not true for female students and humanities majors, who maintained their relative advantage. Finally, the sojourn group reported higher scores on the "cultural cosmopolitan" dimension than the control group with females and humanities, social and behavioral science majors scoring higher than males and majors in the biological and physical sciences.

A two-volume, five-country (France, Federal Republic of Germany, Sweden, United Kingdom, and United States) study conducted by Oppen, Teichler, and Carlson (1990) presents what is perhaps the most extensive investigation of study abroad undertaken. This work represents the findings of the Study Abroad Evaluation Project (SAEP) which was launched in 1982, in part a follow-up to the President's Commission on Foreign Languages and International Studies which emphasized the importance of

study abroad. A separate publication by Carlson, Burn, Useem, and Yachimowics (1990), described here, focuses on the SAEP findings as they relate to U.S. students, specifically those from the University of California (UC) campuses at Berkeley, Los Angeles, and Santa Barbara, the University of Colorado at Boulder, the University of Massachusetts at Amherst, and Kalamazoo College. Among these schools, twelve programs were offered in Western Europe (counting all the programs of one U.S. institution in a given country as a single program).

The five instruments used in the SAEP study included: 1) an institutional profile; 2) a departmental profile of each department sponsoring a program (departmental sponsorship more common in Europe than the U.S. and was little used by the U.S. team); 3) a study abroad program profile; 4) student questionnaires administered before and after the sojourn, or equivalent period spent in the U.S. for the control group. This instrument solicited information on students' background, motivation, learning style, language proficiency, knowledge and views of other countries, and career objectives. The questionnaire administered after the sojourn provided data specifically on the study abroad experience; 5) While the European study used questionnaires, the U.S. team utilized in-depth telephone interviews of students who had studied abroad 5, 10, 15, and 25 years prior focusing on career choices, income and lifestyles, and social and cultural points of view.

The pre-junior year questionnaire was administered Spring 1984 and mailed to 649 students who had chosen to participate in year-long programs that were primarily of the total immersion type; of these, 482 were returned. The post-measure questionnaire was mailed to 647 students in Fall 1985, and 251 were returned. A control group comprised of students from the U.C. campuses and the University of Massachusetts, Amherst, who remained in the U.S. but who met the academic and GPA criteria, were

also sent questionnaires. Of the 820 control questionnaires mailed in Spring 1984, 355 were returned, as were 157 out of 310 mailed in Fall 1985.

The academic majors of students who studied abroad in the SAEP investigation reflected the general pattern identified in Open Doors. Of the experimental group, 81% were majoring in the humanities, social sciences, business, and education. Only 19% were majoring in science, mathematics, and engineering. This compared with 60% and 40% respectively for the control group. Interestingly, students in the experimental group had, on average, 59% of their total college expenses paid for by their parents, compared to 64% within the control group. The experimental group also differed in other respects from the control group in so far as they had a strong interest in other countries, prior experience abroad (62%), prior foreign language study, and a high motivation to experience another culture. While a significant proportion of the control group expressed an interest in studying abroad, perceived relevance to their academic program and the possibility of having the sojourn result in a delay in graduation were major deterrents.

The academic gains from the study abroad experience identified by the SAEP included: 1) an increase in foreign language proficiency from the intermediate to the advanced level, based on the results of oral interviews developed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and using a rating scale provided by the ACTFL and the Foreign Service Institute of the Department of State; 2) an increased interest in international affairs; and 3) a dramatic increase in knowledge of the host country.

The study reveals the effect of integration into the host culture and institution on academic outcomes and subsequent satisfaction with the study abroad experience. The authors state:

While academic accomplishments constitute only one dimension of the study abroad experience, the data suggests that it, along with language

accomplishments, is perhaps the most important dimension of the students' sojourn abroad, exercising a powerful effect on the students' general evaluation of the study abroad experience. In addition, integration into the academic life of the host institution is facilitated by academic and linguistic success as well as integrated living arrangements. Accordingly, emphasis on academic accomplishments as well as on social and living situations designed to maximize contact with host national students could contribute significantly to the sense of integration that American students gain while abroad. (Carlson et al., 1990, p. 83)

The authors found the data did not support the expectation that the study abroad experience would result in increased levels of self confidence. Both the control and experimental groups were similar in this regard before and after their junior year. However, the experience did have a very positive impact on the sojourners.

...study abroad returnees are more independent-minded, intellectually inclined, and able to cope with ambiguity than they were before going abroad. More important to them after their study abroad experience are interdisciplinary approaches to learning and independent work. It is striking that in their period abroad, (an academic year for most of the SAEP students), these students in large measure achieved a number of goals of a liberal education in terms of personal and intellectual development. (Carlson, et. al., 1990, p. 114)

Seventy-six of 158 randomly selected students who had studied abroad five years or longer ago agreed to be interviewed. Since this was a very small sample, the authors advise that the results should be considered suggestive rather than conclusive. They note that the overall characteristics of this group did not differ greatly from the general population from which they were drawn; however, their educational attainments greatly exceeded the norm. All the sample completed the bachelor's degree and 80% of men and 64% of women continued onto post-bachelor's degree study. Seventy-two percent of men and 66% of women earned a master's degree, and 48% of men and 34% of women who studied beyond the bachelor's level earned a doctorate. Of the group, 92% were in occupations that were either professional/technical or managerial/administrative.

The authors categorized 59.2% of the group interviewed as *maximizers*, those "... who incorporated their European study abroad and other significant transnational experiences into their career values and employment practices" (p. 96). The remaining 40.8% were categorized as *minimalists*, those "... who reported their student and subsequent foreign country experiences, if any, are valued in retrospect but feel that they are not appreciably relevant to their own work life" (p. 96).

In summary, research on the impact of the study abroad experience has rendered inconclusive results. There has been little conformity in design, use of instruments, or agreement on what should be measured. Further, there has been very little replication of studies. While language acquisition can easily be quantified, intellectual development and personality changes associated with the overseas experience are much more difficult to measure. Davis (1974) further argues that research that has involved the use of standardized instruments has failed to adequately measure significant differences and runs the risk of an investigation designed to fit that instrument. Studies that have utilized specifically designed instruments may result in dubious findings because of questions concerning the validity of the instrument.

Despite these concerns, the research does suggest that studying abroad can result in academic and personal gains that remain significant throughout a person's life. Clearly, more research is needed in order to fully understand the impact of this important educational experience so programs can be designed to maximize the educational and personal gains that can ensue from studying abroad.

Organization of Study Abroad Administration

Study Abroad within the Administrative Hierarchy

Study abroad is but one aspect of international education and is often incorporated into other units that serve a broader international education function. Consequently, to comprehend the organization and administration of study abroad programs, it is helpful to understand the other facets of international education. Arum and Van de Water (1992) point out, however, that the term "international education" is a cause of confusion since it is used in a variety of ways by both professionals and non-professionals. They state that international education is

. . . seldom used to refer to the international aspects of the curriculum, programs and services of a college of education. Its use is in a broader framework, referring to the international dimensions of the entire institution's curriculum and diverse programs, services and activities that are international in focus. (p. 200)

Sanders and Ward (1970) identified seven categories of international education activity:

1) Area and Language Studies - A formal program of interdisciplinary study concentrating on a foreign area or country. It is usually under an administrative unit (committee, institute, or center) and may or may not grant a degree or certificate.

2) Topical and Comparative Studies - An interdisciplinary center or program of study or research in the social sciences or humanities concentrating on broad international problems such as population and

urbanization. Also included in this category are internationally focused programs in professional schools, such as tropical agriculture and international business administration.

3) Faculty and Student Exchange - A continuing program involving either U.S. faculty and students teaching or studying overseas, or foreign faculty and students studying or teaching in American institutions.

4) Training - A program which is not part of the normal educational sequence and is operated for foreign or U.S. teachers, businessmen, or other professionals on the home campus or overseas. This category also includes in-service training for U.S. students abroad and orientation programs for foreign students on campuses in the U.S.

5) Technical Assistance (Institutional Development) - A formal program through which a U.S. university assists a foreign institution or government primarily through the provision of American professionals to the host institution.

6) Institutional Cooperation - An organized program between a foreign and an American institution involving mutually beneficial activities. Such a program can include a two-way flow of faculty, students and /or administrators, books, periodicals, and other scholarly materials.

7) Study Abroad - A formal program of academic study abroad, generally for undergraduates, during the summer or academic year.

Bachman (1984) identified at least seven areas that fall within the realm of international education. He included: international studies, global education, foreign language study, exchanges, study abroad, area studies, comparative education in his broad definition of international education.

While the components of international education identified by Sanders and Ward and by Bachman provide an overview of the range of activities encompassed, Harari's (1972) definition of international education is perhaps more illustrative of the manner in which its various components are organized.

International education is an all-inclusive term encompassing three major strands: a) international content of the curricula, b) international movement of scholars and students concerned with training and research, and c) arrangements engaging U.S. education abroad in technical assistance and educational cooperation. (Harari, 1972, p. 3)

Using the tripartite format of Harari's definition, Arum and Van De Water incorporate a number of other definitions including those of Spaulding and Singleton (1968), Butts (1969), Deutsch (1970), and Harari (1972), finally arriving at the following:

1. International Studies - is equivalent to Singleton's and Watson's "education for international and cross-cultural understanding" and Butts' "the study of the thought, institutions, techniques or ways of life of other peoples and of their interrelationships," and Deutsch's "the study of non-Western cultures; education for world understanding", and Harari's "international content or the curricula."
2. International Educational Exchange - is equivalent to Singleton's and Watson's "cross-national movements of . . . students, teachers" or Deutsch's "programs of educational exchange, of both students and teachers," and Harari's "international movement of scholars and students concerned with training and research."
3. Technical Cooperation - is equivalent to Singleton's and Watson's "cross national movements of educational materials, . . . consultants, and aid" and Butts' "the transfer of educational institutions, ideas and materials from one society to another" or Deutsch's "university programs such as educational technical assistance and institution building in developing nations," and

Harari's "arrangements engaging U.S. education abroad in technical assistance and educational cooperation programs." (p. 197)

It is clear that study abroad belongs to the category of activity that Arum and Van De Water call "International Educational Exchange" and what Harari calls the "international movement of scholars and students." From an institutional standpoint, it is the movement of students across national boundaries that constitutes the most significant activity in this category, and to a very large measure it is the international student population in the U.S. that dominates. From an organizational perspective, services provided to international students on U.S. campuses and the provision of study abroad programs and services to American students are frequently seen as two sides of the same coin and are, consequently, often part of the same administrative unit. To be sure, while the foci of these activities, the import and the export of students, are very different, many of their activities are complementary and supportive of one another. For example, study abroad offices managing programs involving the exchange of students between the U.S. institution and one abroad can call upon the international student office for assistance in acquiring appropriate visas for incoming students and in the orientation of these students once they have arrived on campus. Similarly, international students traveling outside the U.S. may need information on visas, airfares, accommodation, etc., that is readily available at the study abroad office. Further, international students are a valuable resource for Americans who travel abroad.

This is by no means the only arrangement, and study abroad offices can be found in a variety of locations within the organizational structure. Even within the example provided, there may be a variety of reporting lines. The directors of such units may report jointly to student affairs and academic affairs, or to just one of the two. Study abroad offices may be separate from the international student office and report either to

academic affairs or student affairs. Alternatively, they may be part of an administrative unit that might include area studies and international students and scholars. In addition to the variety of locations in which study abroad offices are found within the administrative hierarchy, they also perform a variety of roles which will vary from one office to the next. Many offices advise students on programs sponsored by their own institution as well as those sponsored by other schools. In addition, they may also develop and administer their own programs. On some campuses, the dual functions of advising and of program development and administration may be housed in separate offices. This arrangement does have the advantage of eliminating an ethical dilemma that faces many advisers, specifically, how to maintain the integrity of the advising process while ensuring appropriate levels of enrollment in programs sponsored by the home campus.

According to the SECUSSA Sourcebook:

Location within the institution is a crucial question and influences all other considerations of the office. . . . Should the office be under academic affairs, it will probably have more prestige within the institution and more support from faculty and administration. On the other hand, if the office is under student services, it may serve the needs of the student better as it will be primarily concerned with student needs and trends. However, under student services the office may well be more restricted in its functions and be more student oriented than academically oriented. (Frank, 1975, p. 17)

Role of the Advisor

According to Brown and Larsen (1993), the study abroad advisor has a number of roles that include "Advocate/Facilitator", "Liaison/Broker", and "Educator/Consultant". The SECUSSA Sourcebook (Frank 1975), lists the additional role of Evaluator. In the role as Advocate/Facilitator, the advisor promotes study/work and travel opportunities abroad and endeavors to create a campus climate that is supportive of these activities. As Liaison/Broker, the advisor is the information link among students, faculty, and campus

offices to ensure that appropriate academic and institutional procedures are followed and initiated where necessary. In the role of Educator/Consultant, the advisor helps students to become better informed about the available options and assists them in determining their personal priorities, developing reasonable expectations, and ensuring they follow the procedures of the institution regarding study abroad. As an Evaluator, the advisor develops methods of assessing the quality of programs so that ones that are unsatisfactory can be identified and avoided.

Many professionals within the field of study abroad have primary responsibility for advising students about opportunities to study or work abroad. Study Abroad: Handbook for Advisors and Administrators (NAFSA, 1979), lists twelve activities that fall within the realm of advising. They include:

1. Advising students on investigating and planning for study abroad.
2. Providing help to students interested in travel, work, technical training, or volunteer services.
3. Program planning, policy determination, selection of directors, recruitment, selection and orientation of students, developing cost estimates, maintaining contact with students while abroad, and making advance arrangements for registration and housing for when they return.
4. Interpreting to students, faculty and staff the institutional policy related to study abroad.
5. Identifying sources of financial aid.
6. Planning and conducting workshops.
7. Advising faculty and staff in identifying opportunities abroad.
8. Conferring with academic advisors, department heads, etc., on students' interest in study abroad and with admissions and registrar's office on the evaluation and transfer of credit.
9. Involving returned students and faculty in activities designed to enrich the curriculum and extracurricular life of the campus.

10. In cooperation with international student advisor, utilizing international students and faculty as resources for Americans interested in overseas study.
11. Making available aids to Americans planning to study abroad such as ISIC and Youth Hostel Passes, and travel information and guides.
12. Advisor may assist various campus groups planning trips outside the U.S. (pp. 5-6)

For some professionals advising, represents much of what they do; however, while being a time-consuming activity, it requires appropriate resources if it is to be done well. This usually requires an extensive array of printed and video material. According to Gammon and Soneson (1993), a well-stocked study abroad library is likely to contain information on institutional policy as it relates to education abroad, information on scholarships and grants, reference books including but not limited to Academic Year Abroad and Vacation Study Abroad, catalogs and brochures, program evaluations, magazines, videos, films and slides, and catalogs from foreign institutions. In the near future, students will be able to use interactive computer programs to assist them in identifying appropriate types of programs, and continually updated computer databases will provide a wealth of information on specific programs. Since students who use the study abroad library are interested in more than just the academic component of their program, libraries may contain a variety of travel guides and information that is relevant to the international traveler. Offices that advise students about programs sponsored by other institutions will typically contain more information than those offices primarily concerned with program development and administration.

In addition to advising students about study abroad opportunities and related institutional procedures, the advisor is ethically responsible for ensuring they are well-prepared for the study abroad experience. Students with a good grasp of conditions they will encounter abroad and who understand the "nuts and bolts" of international travel will

have an image of the study abroad experience grounded in reality. This will prepare them for a successful sojourn. Students without this knowledge start with a decided disadvantage. An orientation program is typically the responsibility of the program sponsor, and most programs do provide an on-site orientation. Unfortunately, since students need a considerable amount of information before they arrive on-site, a pre-departure orientation is also desirable; however, it is only feasible for program sponsors to offer this when they recruit locally. Consequently, there is a need for the study abroad advisor to help those students participating in programs sponsored by other institutions as well as for those in programs sponsored by their own campus. Pre-departure orientations vary in content, duration, and in the amount of work expected from the student. In some cases, it may be a requirement for participation in a program; in others, it may be voluntary. Some advisors are able to award academic credit for their programs and can therefore expect much more from the students in terms of in-class participation and out-of-class assignments.

A reentry orientation is offered by many institutions to help students adjust to life back in the U.S. A good reentry program should begin before the students leave to study abroad. In discussing the effects and ways to manage culture shock during the sojourn, it is important that students understand the difficulties they may encounter upon returning. The advisor is particularly well placed to help students manage these concerns and to connect them with other students who may be experiencing some of the same difficulties or who have worked through them. A few institutions have developed reentry programs for which they are able to award academic credit.

The range of services provided by study abroad offices varies greatly and reflects the role the offices play within the institution and local community. Many offices sell the International Student Identity Card, which provides a number of benefits to the student traveler. In addition, they may also sell Youth Hostel Cards, passport photographs,

Eurail and BritRail passes and, in a few cases, they may be agents for Council Travel (the travel section of CIEE) and issue airline tickets. These activities can be a source of much-needed revenue that can be used to augment university funding. However, while there may be a certain logic in providing these services, the advisor needs to be concerned about the amount of time they consume. Further, the study abroad professional should be cognizant of the views of local travel agents who may view the university's involvement in this activity as unfair competition. There are a number of instances where offices have stopped issuing tickets due to pressure from the private sector. Finally, offices receiving central funding should be concerned that earnings from the sale of travel items do not begin to influence allocations from central sources.

The advisor plays an important role in informing students about financial aid and how this might be applied toward the cost of their program. According to Stubbs (1993), advisors need to be able to answer the following questions:

- What is financial aid?
 - How do students qualify for it?
 - How is financial aid given to the student?
 - Can financial aid be used for study abroad? For other forms of education abroad?
 - What are the best strategies for the education-abroad advisor to help make financial aid available to students?
 - Can funds be raised specifically for education-abroad students?
- (Stubbs, 1993, p. 39)

Since the 1992 reauthorization of the Higher Education Act allows the cost of study abroad to be used to determine how much aid a student should receive, the study abroad office can play an important role in determining the actual cost of studying abroad which may not be reflected in the stated program fee. Advisors should have access to information on airfares, currency exchange rates, room and board costs, etc. In addition, the study abroad professional may need to be an advocate for the use of

financial aid for study abroad at those institutions that take a more restrictive view on the use of these funds, particularly those originating from private and institutional sources. In some instances, the study abroad office may offer scholarships from revenue generated from the sale of travel items or from administrative fees they collect.

Most study abroad offices advise students about a range of activities that are non-academic in nature. Given the range of travel information contained in their libraries, students who have vacation plans overseas may stop by the office for information on airfares, train schedules, accommodation, health insurance, passports and visas, etc. They may also request help in planning their vacation to determine what can reasonably be accomplished within a given amount of time. Increasingly, students are searching for internships and short-term work opportunities abroad. In many cases, information on these options may be found only in the study abroad office. It is often the case that students who have either studied or worked abroad seek information about international careers, and the study abroad office is one obvious location to house these resources. Since these offices perform a variety of roles that extend beyond study abroad, they may have names that better reflect the range of their activities. Office of Education Abroad, or International Opportunities Center are examples of such names.

On many campuses, the development of study abroad opportunities is a piecemeal process. Faculty make contact with colleagues in institutions abroad that later develop into student exchange programs or group programs led by those faculty. Often, these programs develop with little regard to the priorities of the university or to existing study abroad options. Particularly in large institutions, the study abroad advisor may be the only person who is aware of all the programs sponsored by the institution. The advisor is consequently well placed to evaluate the provision of such programs and to determine in which subjects and geographical areas new ones should be developed. Further, the advisor should also be knowledgeable about potential student interest in new programs.

The study abroad office can play a leading role in the development and administration of programs. The role played by the office will depend on the expertise of the study abroad professional(s), staffing, and the location of the office in the administrative hierarchy. At the very least, the office can encourage faculty to develop programs in areas where perceived gaps exist. Unfortunately, at many institutions the reward structure provides little incentive for faculty to spend their time and energy in developing these programs. The office can assist these faculty by offering their expertise in matters relating to group travel, accommodation abroad, on- and off-campus promotion, and in developing budgets. By helping faculty in these matters, even taking responsibility for these aspects of the program, the advisor frees faculty to concentrate on the academic components of the program. By offering this service, the study abroad office may encourage more faculty to become involved in program development thereby adding to the range of available options.

In addition to encouraging faculty to develop programs, the study abroad office can assume this role and then hire faculty to teach. This approach enables the office to respond to perceived needs in the provision of programs which may not be being met by faculty initiatives. Further, it removes most of the burden from faculty who may, as a result, be less reluctant to lead group programs. Despite some of the obvious benefits, this approach places a heavy responsibility on the study abroad office which it may be ill equipped to handle. Staffing and resources may preclude this type of activity. Also, it may be perceived as inappropriate if the office is student service oriented.

Rather than independently developing new programs, institutions can form partnerships with other colleges and universities. As Navari and Soneson (1993) point out, a single institution may have insufficient students to be able to mount its own program. This could be a particular concern with new programs in non-traditional sites. By joining with other schools, the program has access to a larger pool of potential

participants. Further, fixed costs can be reduced because they are distributed amongst a larger number of students. Also, with a larger groups of students, consortia may have greater leverage than single institutions in contract negotiation with agencies providing services. The additional advantage to the institution of joining a consortium is the access it provides to a variety of new programs already operating that it can call its own.

According to Navari and Soneson, joining a consortium may not be without problems. With this arrangement, individual members surrender a certain amount of autonomy, and the administration of these programs can be cumbersome. Regular meetings of consortium representatives need to be arranged to determine matters of policy and, where appropriate, select faculty and students. Further, if programs are administered from a central location, this may be rotated periodically in order that this responsibility is shared by member institutions. The lack of administrative continuity can be the cause of some problems.

While no research exists on the financing of study abroad administration, it is possible to identify a number of ways by which this is accomplished. There are relatively few sources from which funds come into the study abroad office. They include:

- Central administration
- Income generated by the office through the sale of travel related items
- Administrative fees
- Grants
- Private gifts

Typically, offices will have more than one source of funding; however, for those offices with primarily an advising role, it will be funds from central administration that constitute much of their operating and salary budgets. The sale of travel items, with the

exception of airline tickets and rail passes, will generate relatively small amounts of revenue. For those few offices that sell rail passes and airline tickets, substantial income can be generated, the use for which they may have considerable discretion. A number of offices also assess administrative fees to students participating in programs they manage. An administrative fee, for the purpose of this discussion, is one that is designed to cover the cost of administering the program and may include such items as: advertising, travel, telephone charges, postage and possibly staff salaries. The administrative fee may be one facet of the program fee which students pay to participate in programs and which may also include tuition, room and board, transportation, materials and supplies, etc.

While grants and gifts are perhaps the least significant sources of revenue, they are becoming increasingly important as institutions face difficult economic times. Consequently, study abroad advisors may feel increased pressure to submit grant applications and seek alumni contributions. The advisor needs to be careful in applying for grants that the grant's purpose is central to the mission of the office and can be adequately undertaken without detriment to the quality of services provided. Gifts to the study abroad office tend to be few and small. Since alumni and corporate contributions tend to be made to the colleges, the study abroad advisor needs to work with the development officers to ensure new scholarship money can be used by students while they study abroad. The advisor might also wish to play a more active role by developing a study abroad alumni association. This can serve to inform alumni of developments in study abroad at their alma mater and to remind them of the importance of this type of experience. In the long-term, it may result in gifts that are specifically designated for study abroad.

Summary

Study abroad has a long history that dates back well before the creation of institutions of higher education as we know them today. Scholars who have studied abroad have played an important role in the shaping of higher education in the U.S. This began when colonial colleges, modeled on European archetypes, were established in the sixteenth century. In many cases, the founders and early leaders of these institutions were educated abroad. During the nineteenth century, scholars who were subsequently to rise to the very pinnacles of academia pursued graduate work in Germany. They were to return to the U.S. determined to change the very nature of higher education and to a large measure succeeded in transforming universities into the institutions we know today.

Since World War II, the number of American students who study abroad has risen dramatically. Students, for the most part, no longer study abroad to earn degrees from foreign institutions but apply credit earned abroad toward a degree awarded by their home institution. Despite the increase in students from all socio-economic classes who study abroad, relatively few students take advantage of these opportunities. As a result, a number of reports have highlighted the need to increase the level of international understanding and language skills of college graduates. The argument has been framed in terms of national security and national interest. There is a desire on the part of professionals in international education to dramatically increase still further the number of our students who study abroad.

Research on the impact of the study abroad experience has been inconclusive. Despite the fact that this type of experience is not fully understood, there is evidence to support the argument that for some students it can be a profound experience and one that has lasting effects. More research is needed on the short- and long-term impact of studying abroad that focuses perhaps more on individual rather than aggregate changes.

The results of such research could provide a powerful argument for increasing institutional support for study abroad activities.

A review of the literature on study abroad administration reveals little. Much that has been published focuses on the organization of international education at universities and colleges. What this literature does reveal is the variety of roles and responsibilities for which study abroad advisors are responsible. Further, study abroad offices can appear in numerous locations within administrative hierarchies. Given the various recommendations of the Liaison Group for International Educational Exchange, The National Task Force on Undergraduate Education Abroad, and The Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange to substantially increase the number of American students who study abroad, it is now time we gain a better understanding of how study abroad is administered, particularly at those institutions that have been successful in sending a high percentage of their students abroad.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology employed in the present study. The three major subheadings in this section are population, instrument, and procedures for data analysis.

Population

The population for this study included 661 four year colleges and universities in the United States of America who are members of NAFSA: Association of International Educators and affiliated with the Section on U.S. Students Studying Abroad (SECUSSA). This population consisted of 346 private colleges and universities and 315 public colleges and universities. All were surveyed by means of a questionnaire. Also surveyed, but later eliminated from the study, were 75 community colleges and 25 institutions that included art or music institutes, medical and dental schools, and graduate schools.

Instrument

Data from this study were obtained from a six-part questionnaire (see APPENDIX A) developed by the researcher. Part I of the instrument, Institutional Profile, consisted of seven questions designed to solicit general information about the institution and the title of the person completing the questionnaire. Although the mailing labels obtained from NAFSA contained the names and titles of individuals to whom the questionnaire was mailed, this was not always the person who completed the questionnaire and who directs the study abroad office.

The second part of the questionnaire, Administrative Structure, consisted of four questions designed to provide the researcher with data concerning the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy of the institution. Further, one question provided information on the presence of a senior level administrator whose primary responsibility is for international education across the campus. In addition, the question provided details on the range of responsibilities within international education held by this individual.

Staffing, Qualifications and Experience comprised the third section of the questionnaire. This section was designed to solicit information on the educational background of staff in the study abroad office and the range of responsibilities of its director. This section had twelve questions, many of which consisted of multiple items.

The fourth section, Programs and Services, consisted of twelve questions dealing with the number of study abroad programs offered by the institution and the number administered by the study abroad office. In addition, this section was concerned with the range of services provided by the study abroad office and institutional policy regarding financial aid and credit transfer. Finally, this section solicited a key variable: the number of students awarded study abroad credit by the institution. This information, along with institutional enrollment, determined whether an institution was categorized as successful or unsuccessful in sending students to study abroad.

The fifth section consisted of a series of nineteen statements requiring a response on a scale of one to five (one being "strongly agree" and five being "disagree strongly"). The first three items consisted of statements that refer to study abroad in general. These were followed by sixteen statements for which a response was solicited on the extent to which the respondents felt these statements accurately reflected the situation at their institution. Following these items, the respondents were asked to rank four of eleven

variables which have had the most positive impact and the most negative impact on the development of study abroad at their institution.

The sixth section of the questionnaire, Funding Sources, consisted of six questions designed to provide information on the source and size of operating funds, staff salaries, and the percentage of the operating budget spent on marketing. Finally, the last question invited the respondents to comment on aspects of study abroad administration they felt were important at their institution but had not adequately been explored in the questionnaire.

Preliminary Revisions and the Pilot Study

The questionnaire used in this study underwent a series of revisions. Most of these occurred in consultation with professional staff in the Statistics Laboratory at Iowa State University. A draft of the questionnaire was shared with the chair of the researcher's graduate committee, who suggested refinements.

After these preliminary revisions, the questionnaire was mailed to twelve institutions that represented both large and small, public and private, universities and colleges. These institutions were selected because they represented a cross-section of institutions and because the individuals to whom the questionnaires were mailed have considerable knowledge and experience in the field. Consequently, these respondents were able to provide the researcher with valuable feedback. The purposes for conducting the pilot study were: 1) to test for clarity or ambiguity of instructions; 2) to determine completion time; 3) to determine the appropriateness of the questions to stated research objectives; and 4) to seek the respondents' suggestions on ways to improve the instrument. As a result of the pilot study, further refinements were made.

The design and layout of the questionnaire employed many of Dillman's (1978) recommendations described in his authoritative work Mail and Telephone Surveys: The

Total Design Method. The questionnaire was printed as a booklet on three sheets of legal size (8 1/2 x 14 inch) white paper. The questions were printed on both sides of the paper which, when folded in half, created twelve 8 1/2 x 7 inch pages. The cover for the questionnaire consisted of a heavier stock (80 lbs cover weight) sandstone colored recycled paper. Again, legal size paper was used but printed only on one side — the outside of the questionnaire. The booklet was stapled twice in the middle.

On the front cover were the title of the research, date, professional affiliation of the researcher, identification number of the questionnaire, and a graphic to provide aesthetic appeal. On the back cover were the return address and the business reply mail permit number. This eliminated the need to include a stamped, self-addressed return envelope and therefore reduced the weight and cost of the outbound mailing. Respondents were asked upon completion of the questionnaire to staple the booklet and place it in the mail. This was both convenient and reduced mailing costs, since only those that were returned incurred a postage charge. The heavier stock cover had a number of advantages over the 20 lbs covers since it provided greater rigidity to the booklet and better protection from handling and inclement weather during the return mailing.

Great care was taken in the design and layout of the questionnaire since it was critical it have a professional appearance. In order to obtain this effect, the questionnaire used a graphic on the cover to attract the interest of the respondent. Further, the questionnaire was printed rather than photocopied to further enhance its appearance and legibility. Questions were ordered in a logical sequence to minimize confusion and build a sense of flow and continuity. Finally, a vertical flow was established so answers provided formed a vertical line. This reduced inadvertent omission and was easier for the respondent, who was not required to move across the page.

Page layout was achieved on a Macintosh computer using Aldus PageMaker (version 4.2). This software provided maximum flexibility in the placement and size of text and graphics. Of particular use was the ability to adjust the vertical space between individual lines of text (leading). This played a critical role, insuring questions did not straddle pages. This made the text easier to read and reduced omissions and mistakes. It was this capability that was the major reason for selecting desktop publishing software over a word processor. All questions were printed in 10 point Times Roman. Rotated text employed in some of the questions was accomplished using Aldus Freehand (version 3.1) and imported into the PageMaker document (the ability to rotate text is now a feature of Aldus PageMaker version 5.0). The final camera-ready document was printed on a laser printer at 600 dots per inch.

Mailings

The final version of the questionnaire was mailed on September 23, 1994. In addition to the questionnaire, the mailing included a cover letter (see APPENDIX B) which complied with Dillman's (1978) recommendations regarding content and form. In addition, the cover letter met the four conditions established by Dillman (1978, pp. 172-173) in preparing a cover letter for transmittal; specifically, it included 1) the date the letter was mailed; 2) individualized name, address, and salutation; 3) stationary of the sponsoring organization – U.S. letter size (8 1/2 x 11 inches) was used instead of monarch size (7 1/4 x 10 1/2 inches); and 4) the researcher's signature using "pressed blue ball point pen" method. Finally, the questionnaire and cover letter were mailed first class (Dillman, 1978, p.175).

One week later, a postcard (see APPENDIX B) was mailed to recipients of the first mailing thanking those who had completed and returned the questionnaire and reminding those who had not. In order to provide aesthetic continuity with the

questionnaire, and to reinforce the connection, the postcard carried the globe graphic used on the cover of the questionnaire. Further, each card was signed using the "pressed blue ball point pen" method.

On October 31, 1994, a second letter (see APPENDIX B) and questionnaire were mailed to those who had failed to respond to the previous mailings. Dillman (1978, p. 183) recommends that this be mailed out three weeks after the original mailing; however, the researcher waited just over five weeks since a steady flow of questionnaires was being returned and costs could be reduced. Dillman (1978, p. 183) recommends a third and final follow-up mailing, including a cover letter and questionnaire, be sent by certified mail seven weeks after the original mailing. Since the cost was prohibitive, the October 31 correspondence represented the final mailing.

Unfortunately, not all the returned questionnaires were complete and a number had important information missing. Twenty-eight respondents failed to indicate the number of students awarded study abroad credit by their institution (see APPENDIX A, question 24). Consequently, a letter and response card (see APPENDIX B) were mailed to these individuals thanking them for their assistance with the survey and stressing the importance of this particular piece of data. Given the difficulty of obtaining precise information on the numbers of students who study abroad, the letter indicated an estimate would be satisfactory. Question 24 of the questionnaire was printed on the back of the postcard using the exact wording in the questionnaire. A space under the question was provided for the response. The postcard was self-addressed and stamped.

Eighteen cards were returned with the desired information. The remaining ten respondents were telephoned and a standard format was used in this procedure. Specifically, the respondents were thanked for their assistance with the survey, and the importance of this missing information was stressed. Further, the respondents were told that, in the absence of exact data, an estimate would be sufficient. Following this,

question number 24 from the questionnaire was read aloud. Although it was necessary to call some respondents a number of times, data from eight of the remaining ten respondents were obtained.

Another example of missing information involved pages being skipped, specifically, pages four and five or pages ten and eleven. Of returned questionnaires, seven had no answers on pages ten and eleven, and an additional four had not entered data for pages four and five. Again, a letter (see Appendix B) was sent to these respondents thanking them for their support of the research, and a possible explanation for the omission was offered. The relevant pages from the questionnaire were reproduced and attached to the letter. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was included in the mailing. Only four of eleven respondents failed to provide this information.

With questionnaires, the researcher has to assume the accuracy of the responses. However, in thirty-three cases the answers to questions concerned with the level of staffing looked questionable. In all these instances the responses seemed high in light of the number of students to whom the respondents indicated their institution had awarded study abroad credit. It appeared to the researcher that the respondents had included staff who, while perhaps employed in the office, had responsibilities other than for study abroad. For instance, a number of offices combined study abroad and advising international students. The researcher suspected that in some instances the international student advisors had been included.

On March 16, a letter (see APPENDIX B) was mailed to these thirty-three respondents thanking them for their assistance in completing the questionnaire and sharing with them the researcher's suspicions. A photocopy of their original responses to questions 20-22 was included with the letter, and the respondents were asked to confirm their answers and to make any changes directly on the photocopy. A self-addressed, stamped envelope was included in the mailing. The researcher failed to obtain data from

only four of the original thirty-three respondents. Further, the researcher's suspicions proved correct since twenty-eight respondents indicated their original staffing responses had been too high. In a number of instances, the respondent indicated international student advisors had been included in the original figures.

Response Rate

Many questionnaires ask for responses by a given date. The researcher had also considered this option; however, on the recommendation of professionals in the Statistics Laboratory at Iowa State University, this was not included since once the deadline has passed there is no reason for the respondent to complete and return the questionnaire. As a result, many questionnaires were returned months after the initial mailing. The last questionnaire to be returned arrived March 29, 1995, just over six months after the initial mailing. The reasons for the lateness of some of the responses are numerous: busy schedules, a number of respondents were out of the country, lost questionnaires, delay in finding the most appropriate person to complete the survey, and the questionnaire languishing on the desks of individuals. Regardless, the researcher felt the omission of a response deadline greatly assisted in the securing of a high response rate.

Of the population of 661 four year colleges and universities, 348 usable questionnaires were returned representing a response rate of 52.6%. A further 8 questionnaires were returned which were unusable because of the absence of critical data, and 10 institutions wrote to explain they did not have a study abroad office. In addition 5 questionnaires came from institutions that included art or music institutes, medical and dental schools, and graduate schools. Since this was such a small group (a total of 25 institutions were surveyed) of dissimilar institutions which could not easily be incorporated into the other groups, all were eliminated from the study. Also, 19 usable questionnaires were returned from community colleges (75 community colleges were

mailed the questionnaire); however, since relatively few community colleges replied, this group of institutions was also eliminated from the study.

Procedure for Analysis of Data

Data gathered from the survey instrument were analyzed by utilizing the Statistical Analysis System (SAS). The data were first submitted to a frequency count to control for coding errors and to determine how the subjects responded to certain questionnaire items from which the researcher formulated specific research questions.

For the purpose of analysis, institutions were organized into one of four institutional types based on private/public status and size. They included: Large Public institutions with enrollments of 12,000 and above; Small Public institutions with enrollments of less than 12,000; Large Private institutions with enrollments of 2,000 and above; and finally Small Private institutions with enrollments less than 2,000).

The third variable to be considered was institutional success in sending students to study abroad. This was determined by dividing the number of students to whom an institution awarded study abroad credit by the total student enrollment of the institution. This figure was then multiplied by 100 to arrive at a percentage. This was deemed a fairer measure of institutional success than just the number of students awarded study abroad credit, since it took into consideration the size of the institution. Consequently, an institution with an enrollment of 1,000 that awards 200 students study abroad credit has a success rate of 20% and is therefore arguably more successful than an institution of 2,000 that awards study abroad credit to 300 students and has a success rate of 15%.

Two levels of success were calculated for each of the four groups. As was the case with institutional size, the researcher was concerned that the levels of success reflected naturally-occurring breaks in the data rather than a purely arbitrary or

convenient break; however, this was tempered by the need to have sufficient numbers of institutions in each of the groups for the purposes of analysis. The criteria for placement in one of the two levels of success varied by group which to a large measure reflected differences between groups (see Table 4).

Table 4

Enrollment and Success Level Criteria for Each Institutional Type

Institutional Type	Enrollment	Success Level	
		Level 1 (High)	Level 2 (Low)
Large Private	$\geq 2,000$	$\geq 2.0\%$	$< 2.0\%$
Small Private	$< 2,000$	$\geq 5.0\%$	$< 5.0\%$
Large Public	$\geq 12,000$	$\geq .8\%$	$< .8\%$
Small Public	$< 12,000$	$\geq .5\%$	$< .5\%$

Finally, to determine if success Level 1 (high) institutions differed from success Level 2 (low) institutions on a variety of variables, chi-square analysis was performed. It was thus possible to determine if there was a relationship between institutional success in sending students to study abroad and the variable under study. Pearson product-moment correlations were performed when continuous data were available (Research Questions 3 and 4).

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to determine the organizational structures and practices which appear to characterize successful study abroad operations in U.S. institutions of higher education. Further, the researcher was interested to know if these differ from the structures and practices of schools less successful in sending students to study abroad. To achieve this goal, four year colleges and universities with membership in NAFSA: Association of International Educators, and affiliated with the Section on U.S. Students Studying Abroad (SECUSSA), were surveyed by means of a questionnaire. This constituted a population of 661 institutions and generated 348 usable questionnaires representing a response rate of 52.6%. Community colleges and specialized institutions were also surveyed but subsequently eliminated from the study.

The questionnaire was sent to institutions in every state in the nation, and responses were received from at least one institution in every state with the exception of New Mexico, South Dakota, and Wyoming (see Table 5). States returning the most questionnaires included New York, California, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Ohio. With the exception of California, returns from the other four states were heavily weighted in favor of private institutions. The next five states returning the most questionnaires included Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, North Carolina, and Texas; however, there is a more even distribution between private and public institutions and it is this pattern that predominates in other states with the exception of those sending relatively few questionnaires where public institutions tend to dominate.

Table 5

Distribution by State of Institutions Returning Questionnaires Used in this Study

State	Private	Public	Total
Alabama	2	3	5
Alaska	0	1	1
Arizona	1	2	3
Arkansas	1	3	4
California	14	10	24
Colorado	3	1	4
Connecticut	2	2	4
Delaware	0	1	1
District of Columbia	1	0	1
Florida	4	2	6
Georgia	1	6	7
Hawaii	0	1	1
Idaho	0	1	1
Illinois	6	5	11
Indiana	5	4	9
Iowa	6	3	9
Kansas	1	4	5
Kentucky	3	5	8
Louisiana	2	2	4
Maine	2	1	3
Maryland	2	3	5
Massachusetts	16	2	18
Michigan	6	7	13
Minnesota	8	5	13
Mississippi	2	2	4
Missouri	1	4	5
Montana	1	1	2
Nebraska	2	2	4
Nevada	0	2	2
New Hampshire	2	2	4
New Jersey	5	5	10
New Mexico	0	0	0
New York	20	8	28
North Carolina	7	6	13
North Dakota	0	3	3
Ohio	12	5	17
Oklahoma	0	1	1
Oregon	4	2	6
Pennsylvania	18	6	24
Rhode Island	4	2	6
South Carolina	1	1	2
South Dakota	0	0	0
Tennessee	0	4	4
Texas	5	8	13
Utah	1	1	2
Vermont	3	1	4
Virginia	4	6	10
Washington	3	6	9
West Virginia	1	3	4
Wisconsin	4	7	11
Wyoming	0	0	0
Total	182	166	348

The remaining tables in this section provide general information concerning questionnaire response rate by institutional type and success level (Table 6), enrollment data for Fall 1993 (Tables 7 & 8), and data on numbers of students receiving study abroad credit for the academic year 1993-94 (Tables 9 & 10). The reader should be reminded that the criterion for placement into either the large or small institution categories varies according to private or public status and that Large Private schools are generally considerably smaller than their public equivalents. In fact, many Small Public institutions are larger than Large Private schools.

Table 6

Returned Questionnaires by Institutional Type and Study Abroad Success Level

Institutional Type	Frequency	% of Returned Questionnaires
Large Private (success level 1)	40	11.5%
Large Private (success level 2)	54	15.5%
Small Private (success level 1)	37	10.6%
Small Private (success level 2)	51	14.6%
Large Public (success level 1)	40	11.5%
Large Public (success level 2)	44	12.6%
Small Public (success level 1)	43	12.4%
Small Public (success level 2)	39	11.2%
Total	348	100.0%

Table 7

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for Enrollment at Private Institutions for Fall 1993

	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Mean	5,618.95	6,770.93	1,407.30	1,217.65
Mode	2,700.00	3,200.00	1,400.00	1,100.00
<i>SD</i>	5,533.71	6,041.49	420.09	446.99
100%	30,000.00	38,000.00	2,000.00	2,000.00
75%	6,032.50	8,000.00	1,750.00	1,462.00
50%	3,413.00	4,797.50	1,450.00	1,153.00
25%	2,450.00	3,200.00	1,100.00	990.00
0%	2,010.00	2,150.00	450.00	263.00
<i>N</i>	40.00	54.00	37.00	51.00

Table 8

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for Enrollment at Public Institutions for Fall 1993

	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Mean	20,985.75	20,532.20	7,295.56	7,788.23
Mode	16,000.00	12,500.00	8,000.00	9,500.00
<i>SD</i>	6,423.99	6,707.08	3,099.28	2,808.80
100%	39,000.00	35,161.00	12,000.00	12,000.00
75%	25,000.00	25,945.00	9,590.00	9,900.00
50%	20,500.00	17,894.00	7,800.00	8,013.00
25%	16,000.00	14,350.00	6,000.00	5,700.00
0%	12,500.00	12,100.00	430.00	1,700.00
<i>N</i>	40.00	44.00	43.00	39.00

Table 9

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for the Number of Students Awarded Study Abroad Credit at Private Institutions for the 1993-94 Academic Year (including Summer 1994)

	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Mean	336.17	47.76	144.84	15.53
Mode	110.00	20.00	160.00	1.00
SD	343.14	45.23	70.30	15.27
100%	1,550.00	200.00	358.00	70.00
75%	374.00	79.00	169.00	25.00
50%	227.00	29.00	125.00	10.00
25%	117.50	14.00	94.00	4.00
0%	68.00	0.00	60.00	0.00
N	40.00	54.00	37.00	51.00

Table 10

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for the Number of Students Awarded Study Abroad Credit at Public Institutions for the 1993-94 Academic Year (including Summer 1994)

	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Mean	327.72	65.20	142.09	15.13
Mode	150.00	100.00	40.00	10.00
SD	179.71	50.12	123.22	13.98
100%	900.00	201.00	451.00	55.00
75%	400.00	100.00	210.00	25.00
50%	286.00	50.00	90.00	10.00
25%	200.00	28.50	62.00	4.00
0%	125.00	0.00	5.00	0.00
N	40.00	44.00	40.00	39.00

The data in tables 9 & 10 show similarities between private and public institutions at the same level. For the most part, the actual numbers of students awarded academic credit for study abroad remain very consistent as do the means and standard deviations. The only exceptions are the Large Private Level 1 and Large Public Level 1 institutions where there are major differences between the highest number of students earning academic credit for study abroad (1,550 compared with 900) and in the standard deviations (343.14 compared with 179.71); however, even in these instances, the means are still similar to one another.

It should be noted that, during the coding stage, response categories in a number of questions in the survey instrument were collapsed because few respondents indicated the categories were characteristic of their institution. Further, in those instances where a number of respondents provided similar or the same information in the OTHER category, new categories were established. Consequently, the categories shown in the preceding tables do not always correspond exactly with those in the questionnaire. For example, Question 8 in the survey instrument, which asks the respondent to best describe where the study abroad office is located in the administrative hierarchy, has five response categories whereas the corresponding table (Table 11) shows six. For the purpose of chi-square analysis; however, there was a need to collapse categories to ensure a sufficient number of observations in each cell - at least five. As a result, Table 12 shows only two possible locations, Academic Affairs Only, and Other. Finally, the total number of respondents may differ when comparing the frequency tables with the contingency tables. This is the result of the need to remove non-respondents for the purpose of analysis.

According to Krejcie and Morgan (1970), 348 is a sufficiently large sample to be representative of a population of 661. Ideally, a sample of the non-respondents should be compared with those who did respond to determine if significant differences existed amongst the variables studied. Given the response rate, and assuming that there are no

differences between respondents and non-respondents, rather than confine the discussion to the sample this section will concern itself with the population.

The remainder of this chapter is organized into eight sections, one for each research question. At the beginning of each section the research question is restated and frequency tables used to complement the discussion. Where appropriate, contingency tables are used to summarize the results of the chi-square analysis.

Research Question 1

Is there a relationship between the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy (academic affairs, student affairs, etc.), and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

As tables 11 and 12 illustrate, study abroad offices are located within a variety of administrative areas within institutions. Overwhelmingly, however, they are located within academic affairs. The range varied from 83.72% at Small Public Level 1 institutions to 47.73% at Large Public Level 2 schools. Well behind academic affairs, student affairs was the next most popular location. The remaining location options account for between 27.27% at large public level 2 institutions to 10% at large private level 1 schools. It is interesting to note that at level 2 institutions these location options represent a higher percentage of responses than their counterpart level 1 schools, indicating a slightly greater diversity in the manner institutions respond to the location issue.

Table 11

Location of Study Abroad in the Administrative Hierarchy of Private Institutions

Location	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Student Affairs	3 ^a 7.50% ^b	10 18.52%	6 16.22%	8 15.69%
Academic Affairs	33 82.50%	37 68.52%	26 70.27%	35 68.63%
Student Affairs & Academic Affairs	2 5.00%	1 1.85%	4 10.81%	4 7.84%
Admissions/Enrollment Management	0 0.00%	4 7.41%	0 0.00%	1 1.96%
International Programs/Studies	1 2.50%	1 1.85%	1 2.70%	2 3.92%
Other	1 2.50%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	1 1.96%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 12

Location of Study Abroad in the Administrative Hierarchy of Public Institutions

Location	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Student Affairs	3 ^a 7.50% ^b	11 25.00%	1 2.33%	8 20.51%
Academic Affairs	29 72.50%	21 47.73%	36 83.72%	24 61.54%
Student Affairs & Academic Affairs	3 7.50%	1 2.27%	2 4.65%	1 2.56%
Admissions/Enrollment Management	0 0.00%	1 2.27%	0 0.00%	1 2.56%
International Programs/Studies	4 10.00%	3 6.82%	0 0.00%	2 5.13%
Other	1 2.50%	7 15.91%	4 9.30%	2 5.13%
No Response	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	1 2.56%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

Perhaps reflecting the fact that the majority (69.25%) of study abroad offices are administrative units within academic affairs, the directors of these offices overwhelmingly stated their preference for this arrangement (see APPENDIX D, Tables 41 & 42). Of the 346 who responded, 80.12% indicated they either strongly agreed or agreed somewhat with the statement that study abroad should be an administrative unit within academic affairs. It is interesting to note that Level 1 institutions typically reacted more agreeably to the statement than their Level 2 counterparts.

For the purpose of analysis, the original six location options were collapsed to two, these being Academic Affairs Only, and Other. A 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was

then performed for each of the four types of institutions to investigate whether a relationship existed between location of the study abroad center and institutional success in sending students to study abroad. As Table 13 illustrates, there were no significant chi-square values ($p < .05$) between these variables at either Large Private or Small Private institutions; however, both Large Public and Small Public institutions showed significant chi-square values. This indicates that, as far as public institutions are concerned, there is a relationship between the location of the study abroad office within academic affairs and institutional success.

Table 13

2 X 2 Contingency Tables for Location of the Study Abroad Office within the Administrative Hierarchy by Institutional Type

Location	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Academic Affairs Only	Large Private		Small Private	
	33	37	26	35
Other	7		11	
	17		15	
	$\chi^2 = 2.363$		$\chi^2 = 0.001$	
Academic Affairs Only	Large Public		Small Public	
	29	21	36	24
Other	11		7	
	23		14	
	$\chi^2 = 5.337, p < .05$		$\chi^2 = 4.442, p < .05$	

Research Question 2

Is there a relationship between the presence of a centralized structure incorporating a variety of international educational functions, including study abroad, reporting to a senior academic administrator (provost, vice provost, academic vice

president, etc.) whose primary responsibility is for international education across campus, and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

The most striking piece of information presented in Tables 14 & 15 is that only 70 institutions (20.11%) have the administrative structure described in Research Question 2, and we find a disproportionate number of these (51.42%) within Large Public institutions. Here, this structure is found in 50% of Level 1 schools and 36.36% of Level 2. The percentages are considerably lower at Small Public institutions (16.28% and 20.51% in Level 1 and 2, respectively), and Large Private institutions (17.50% and 14.81% in Level 1 and Level 2, respectively). They are lower still at Small Private schools (2.70% and 5.88% in Level 1 and Level 2, respectively).

Table 14

Presence of Senior Administrator (Dean or above) whose Primary Responsibility is for International Education Across Campus at Private Institutions

Senior International Education Administrator	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Yes	7 ^a 17.50% ^b	8 14.81%	1 2.70%	3 5.88%
No	33 <u>82.50%</u>	46 <u>85.19%</u>	36 <u>97.30%</u>	48 <u>94.12%</u>
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 15

Presence of Senior Administrator (Dean or above) whose Primary Responsibility is for International Education Across Campus at Public Institutions

Senior International Education Administrator	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Yes	20 ^a 50.00% ^b	16 36.36%	7 16.28%	8 20.51%
No	20 50.00%	28 63.64%	36 83.72%	31 79.49%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Despite the relative rarity of this type of organizational structure, it is clear that the directors of study abroad offices believe that the various international education functions all benefit when administered by a central office (see APPENDIX D, Tables 43 & 44). In fact, 90.58% of all who responded to the question either strongly agreed or agreed somewhat with statement. Further, when asked to respond to the statement that study abroad should be part of a centralized office with broad responsibilities for international education, 92.69% of those who responded either strongly agreed or agreed somewhat (see APPENDIX D, Tables 45 & 46). Consequently, there does appear to be overwhelming support for a centralized structure for international educational activities including study abroad.

However, is there evidence to support the notion that a relationship exists between this administrative structure and success in sending students to study abroad? In order to determine whether there is a relationship, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for

three of the four institutional types (the analysis could not be performed for Small Private schools due to insufficient responses in one of the four cells).

As Table 16 illustrates, there was no significant relationship between these variables ($p < .05$). It is possible to conclude, therefore, that the presence of a centralized structure incorporating a variety of international educational functions, including study abroad, reporting to a senior academic administrator (provost, vice provost, academic vice president, etc.) whose primary responsibility is for international education across campus, by itself, has no bearing on whether an institution will be successful in sending students to study abroad.

Table 16

2 X 2 Contingency Tables for the Presence of Centralized Office Reporting to a Senior Level Administrator whose Primary Responsibility is for International Education Across Campus by Institutional Type

	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
Senior Administrator	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Large Private				
Yes	7	8		
No	33	46		
	$\chi^2 = 0.725$			
Large Public				
Yes	20	16	8	8
No	20	28	35	31
	$\chi^2 = 1.591$		$\chi^2 = 0.047$	

Note. A count less than 5 in 50% of the cells in Small Private Institutions invalidated the use of the χ^2 test.

Research Question 3

Is there a relationship between the number of programs an institution sponsors and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

At Large Private schools the maximum number of programs offered is 98, at Large Public institutions the number is 80, falling to 55 and 50 at Small Private and Small Public schools respectively (see Table 17). Further, there are institutions that offer no study abroad programs within each of the institutional types. If the means are compared, it is Large Public schools where the average number of programs is the highest, followed by Large Private, Small Public, and finally Small Private institutions.

Table 17

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for the Number of Study Abroad Programs Sponsored by Institutions During 1993-94

	Private Schools		Public Schools	
	Large	Small	Large	Small
Mean	9.46	4.09	16.46	5.51
Mode	0.00	0.00	3.00	2.00
SD	16.32	7.46	17.89	7.80
100%	98.00	55.00	80.00	50.00
75%	10.00	5.00	25.00	7.00
50%	3.00	2.00	9.00	3.00
25%	1.00	0.00	4.00	1.00
0%	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
N	86.00	85.00	81.00	74.00

In order to determine if the availability of more study abroad programs is matched by an increase in institutional success in study abroad, Pearson product-moment correlations were performed between measures of institutional success and numbers of

programs offered for each institutional type. T-Tests on a transformation of the correlations (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989) were performed to determine the p value.

These results, shown in Table 18, are somewhat surprising since it might reasonably be expected that more study abroad programs translate into higher numbers of students studying abroad which in turn result in strong positive correlations. In only two instances do we find significant r values ($p < .05$), these being at Large Private institutions (a low positive correlation), and Large Public institutions (a moderate correlation). The small institutions show low positive correlations but not at the $p < .05$ level of significance.

Table 18

Pearson Product-Moment Correlations Between Measures of Institutional Success in Study Abroad and Numbers of Study Abroad Programs Offered by Institutional Type

Institutional Type	r Value
Large Private	0.209 (0.040) ^{a*}
Small Private	0.202 (0.058)
Large Public	0.578 (0.001)*
Small Public	0.203 (0.067)

Note.

a p values given in parenthesis

* $p < .05$

Research Question 4

Is there a relationship between the percentage of study abroad programs sponsored by institutions which are administered within their study abroad offices and institutional success in sending students to study abroad ?

As Table 19 illustrates, the means and standard deviations for institutional types show a remarkable degree of consistency which is still more pronounced within the private and public categories. All four institutional types have institutions whose study abroad offices administer all the programs the school sponsors and offices that administer none of these programs.

Table 19

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for the Percentage of Programs Sponsored by Institutions Administered by the Study Abroad Office

	Private Schools		Public Schools	
	Large	Small	Large	Small
Mean	67.41	64.73	70.44	72.16
Mode	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
SD	42.83	43.56	38.23	37.81
100%	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
75%	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
50%	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
25%	20.00	7.27	46.15	50.00
0%	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
N	69.00	61.00	75.00	62.00

In order to determine if there is a relationship between the percentage of study abroad programs sponsored by institutions which are administered within their study abroad offices and institutional success in sending students to study abroad, Pearson product-moment correlations were performed on these variables, and T-Tests on a

transformation of the correlations (Snedecor & Cochran, 1989) were performed to determine the p value.

As indicated in Table 20, there were two very low positive correlations (Large Private and Large Public institutions) but neither one was significant at $p < .05$. There were no systematic relationships found between the variables under study and institutional success at either Small Private or Small Public schools. How an institution decides, or fails to decide, the manner and the extent to which study abroad programs are administered within the study abroad office has no bearing on institutional success in study abroad.

Table 20

Pearson Product -Moment Correlations Between Measures of Institutional Success in Study Abroad and Percentage of Programs Sponsored by Institutions Administered by the Study Abroad Office

Institutional Type	r Value
Large Private	0.1591 (0.1917) ^a
Small Private	0.0550 (0.6738)
Large Public	0.1718 (0.1405)
Small Public	-0.0790 (0.5415)

Note.

a p values given in parenthesis

Research Question 5

Is there a relationship between the faculty status of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

As tables 21 and 22 illustrate, the majority of directors of study abroad offices (58.77%) do not hold faculty appointments. Another 7.31% are either adjunct faculty or instructors. It is possible to conclude, therefore, that 66.08% of directors of study abroad offices have little or no teaching responsibilities. Of the remaining faculty, Assistant Professors are the least represented (4.97%). This is probably due to the fact that they are generally newcomers to the faculty ranks and need to focus their energies on gaining tenure. The remaining directors are fairly evenly divided between Associate Professors (13.45%) and Professors (15.44%).

Table 21

Faculty Status of Individuals who Direct Study Abroad Offices at Private Institutions

Faculty Status	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Non Faculty	25 ^a	36	24	28
	62.50% ^b	66.67%	64.86%	54.90%
Adjunct Faculty or Instructor	3	4	3	3
	7.50%	7.41%	8.11%	5.88%
Assistant Professor	1	2	1	3
	2.50	3.70	2.70%	5.88%
Associate Professor	4	6	3	9
	10.00%	11.11%	8.11%	17.65%
Professor	6	4	5	8
	15.00%	7.41%	13.51%	15.69%
No Response	1	2	1	0
	2.50%	3.70%	2.79%	0.00%
Total	40	54	37	51
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 22

Faculty Status of Individuals who Direct Study Abroad Offices at Public Institutions

Faculty Status	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Non Faculty	26 ^a 65.00% ^b	25 56.82%	19 44.19%	18 46.15%
Adjunct Faculty or Instructor	6 15.00%	2 4.55%	1 2.33%	3 7.69%
Assistant Professor	3 7.50%	3 6.82%	2 4.65%	2 5.13%
Associate Professor	2 5.00%	6 13.64%	12 27.91%	4 10.26%
Professor	3 7.50%	7 15.91%	9 20.93%	11 28.21%
No Response	0 0.00%	1 2.27%	0 0.00%	1 2.56%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

Given that there are curricular implications involved with study abroad, and that faculty command greater respect and credibility than do administrators amongst students and other faculty, it is reasonable to suppose that there would be a relationship between faculty status of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students abroad; however, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis of these two variables found no such relationship at the $p < .05$ level amongst the four institutional types (Table 23).

Table 23

2 X 2 Contingency Tables for Faculty Status of Individuals who Direct Study Abroad Offices by Institutional Type

Faculty Status	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Non-Faculty	Large Private		Small Private	
	28	40	27	31
Faculty	Large Public		Small Public	
	11	12	9	20
	$\chi^2 = 0.310$		$\chi^2 = 1.919$	
Non-Faculty	Large Private		Small Private	
	32	27	20	21
Faculty	Large Public		Small Public	
	8	16	23	17
	$\chi^2 = 2.986$		$\chi^2 = 0.618$	

Research Question 6

Is there a relationship between the academic qualifications of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

From tables 24 and 25 we can conclude the highest academic qualification of most respondents was a masters degree (43.97%) closely followed by a doctorate (41.09%). Only 14.94% of respondents had less than a master's degree. A major in the

Table 24

Highest Degree Held by Individuals who Direct Study Abroad Offices at Private Institutions

Degree	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
No Degree (less than a BA)	0 ^a 0.00% ^b	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Bachelors	7 17.50%	5 9.26%	3 8.11%	12 23.53%
Masters	14 82.50%	31 85.19%	19 51.35%	17 33.33%
Doctorate	19 47.50%	17 31.48%	15 40.54%	22 43.14%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 25

Highest Degree Held by Individuals who Direct Study Abroad Offices at Public Institutions

Degree	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
No Degree (less than a BA)	0 ^a	0	1	1
	0.00 ^b	0.00	2.33	2.56
Bachelors	4	6	6	3
	10.00%	13.64%	13.95%	7.69%
Masters	20	20	12	20
	50.00%	45.45%	27.91	51.28%
Doctorate	16	16	24	14
	40.00%	36.36%	55.81%	31.48%
No Response	0	0	0	1
	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	2.56%
Total	40	44	40	54
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

humanities proved the most popular subject area, accounting for 38.66% of respondents (see APPENDIX D, tables 47 and 48). The second most popular subject area was education (24.13%) closely followed by social science (22.38%). The major difference between private and public institutions appears to be a bias in favor of humanities majors at private institutions and in favor of education majors at public institutions.

Since there are curricular implications involved with study abroad, and that a doctorate is the *entré* into faculty ranks, it is reasonable to assume that the directors of study abroad offices would have more credibility within the university community if they possessed a doctorate. To test if a relationship exists between academic qualifications of directors of study abroad offices and institutional success in sending students to study

abroad, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed on each of the institutional types. The results, summarized in Table 26, show there were no significant chi-square values between these variables at $p < .05$. Whether or not the director of the study abroad office has a doctorate appears to have no bearing on the institutional success in sending students to study abroad.

Table 26
2 X 3 Contingency Tables for Academic Qualifications of Individuals who Direct Study Abroad Offices by Institutional Type

Degree	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Master's Degree or Less	Large Private		Small Private	
	21	37	22	29
	19	17	15	22
Doctorate	$\chi^2 = 2.495$		$\chi^2 = 0.059$	
Master's Degree or Less	Large Public		Small Public	
	24	27	19	24
	16	16	24	14
Doctorate	$\chi^2 = 0.068$		$\chi^2 = 2.915$	

Research Question 7

Is there a relationship between the length of time institutions have been involved in study abroad, and their success in sending students to study abroad?

This question is answered in two parts. In the first, the researcher is interested to know if a relationship exists between the number of years there have been study abroad offices at institutions and their success in sending students to study abroad and, in the second, if there is a relationship between the number of years ago the first study abroad program was offered by institutions and their success in sending students to study abroad.

Number of Years There Has Been a Study Abroad Office

Of responses to the question concerning the age of the study abroad office (Tables 27 and 28), 63.43% of all study abroad directors indicated their office had existed no more than 15 years. Of the 175 private institutions responding to this question, 63.43% indicated their study abroad offices were no more than fifteen years old compared to 72.61% of public institutions. This suggests that the private schools were ahead of public colleges and universities in the institutionalization of study abroad through the establishment of an administrative unit with responsibility for study abroad. The number

Table 27

Number of Years There Have Been Study Abroad Offices at Private Institutions

Number of years there have been Study Abroad Offices	Large Private		Small Private	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Less Than 5 Years	2 ^a	18	4	25
	5.00% ^b	33.33%	10.81%	49.02%
5 - 9 Years	9	11	4	9
	22.50%	20.37%	10.81%	17.65%
10 - 15 Years	8	8	7	6
	20%	14.81%	18.92%	11.76%
16 - 20 Years	6	3	9	6
	15.00%	5.56%	24.32%	11.76%
21 - 25 Years	6	3	6	1
	15.00%	5.56%	16.22%	1.96%
26 - 30 Years	3	3	3	0
	7.50%	5.56%	8.11%	0.00%
Longer Than 30 Years	4	5	4	2
	10.00%	9.26%	10.81%	3.92%
No Response	2	3	0	2
	5.00%	5.55%	0.00%	3.92%
Total	40	54	37	51
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 28

Number of Years There Have Been Study Abroad Offices at Public Institutions

Number of years there have been Study Abroad Offices	Large Public		Small Public	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Less Than 5 Years	2 ^a 5.00% ^b	13 29.55%	9 20.93%	20 51.28%
5 - 9 Years	9 22.50%	13 29.55%	7 16.28%	7 17.95%
10 - 15 Years	8 20.00%	7 15.91%	11 25.58%	8 20.51%
16 - 20 Years	3 7.50%	3 6.82%	4 9.30%	0 0.00%
21 - 25 Years	9 22.50%	2 4.55%	6 13.95%	1 2.56%
26 - 30 Years	5 12.50%	2 4.55%	4 9.30%	0 0.00%
Longer Than 30 Years	3 7.50%	0 0.00%	1 2.33%	0 0.00%
No Response	1 2.50%	4 9.09%	1 2.33%	3 7.69%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

of institutions that have had study abroad offices longer than 30 years is particularly revealing (15 private and 4 public) and clearly demonstrates the early lead private institutions had in the field.

In order to determine if a relationship exists between the length of time there has been a study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for three of the four institutional types (the analysis could not be performed for Small Public schools due to insufficient number of observations in one of the four cells). As Table 29 illustrates, there were significant

relationships between these variables ($p < .05$) for each of the institutional types for which the analysis was performed.

Table 29

2 X 2 Contingency Tables for Number of Years There Have Been Study Abroad Offices by Institutional Type

Number of Years	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
	Large Private		Small Private	
0 - 15 Years	19	37	15	40
More than 15 Years	21	17	22	11
	$\chi^2 = 4.215 \ p < .05$		$\chi^2 = 13.135 \ p < .05$	
	Large Public			
0 - 15 Years	19	33		
More than 15 Years	21	11		
	$\chi^2 = 6.719 \ p < .05$			

Note. A count less than 5 in 25% of the cells in Small Public Institutions invalidated the use of the χ^2 test.

First Study Abroad Program

Of study abroad directors who responded to this question (see tables 30 and 31), 49.07% indicated their first study abroad program was offered within the last 15 years. At private institutions this is slightly lower (47.06%) and slightly higher at public institutions (51.30%). Perhaps more revealing are the number of institutions offering study abroad programs over 30 years ago. As with the establishment of study abroad offices, the data reveals the early lead held by private institutions, 15 of which offered programs during this period compared to 4 public schools.

Table 30

Number of Years Ago the First Study Abroad Program was Offered at Private Institutions

Number of years the first Study Abroad Program Offered	Large Private		Small Private	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Program Never Offered	0 ^a 0.00% ^b	1 1.85%	1 2.70%	1 1.96%
Less Than 5 Years	3 7.50%	9 16.67%	2 5.41%	13 25.49%
5 - 9 Years	6 15.00%	9 16.67%	1 2.70%	8 15.69%
10 - 15 Years	3 7.50%	13 24.07%	1 2.70%	9 17.65%
16 - 20 Years	8 20.00%	3 5.56%	6 16.22%	3 5.88%
21 - 25 Years	5 12.50%	7 12.96%	6 16.22%	4 7.84%
26 - 30 Years	6 15.00%	5 9.26%	6 16.22%	0 0.00%
Longer Than 30 Years	8 20.00%	6 11.11%	11 29.73%	6 11.76%
No Response	1 2.50%	1 1.85%	3 8.11%	7 13.73%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 31

Number of Years Ago the First Study Abroad Program was Offered at Public Institutions

Number of years ago the first Study Abroad Program Offered	Large Public		Small Public	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Program Never Offered	0 ^a 0.00% ^b	1 2.27%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Less Than 5 Years	1 2.50%	5 11.36%	0 0.00%	10 25.64
5 - 9 Years	4 10.00%	5 11.36%	6 13.95%	10 24.64%
10 - 15 Years	4 10.00%	11 25.00%	16 37.21%	6 15.38%
16 - 20 Years	4 10.00%	7 15.91%	5 11.63%	5 12.82%
21 - 25 Years	9 22.50%	0 0.00	7 16.28%	2 5.13%
26 - 30 Years	11 27.00%	7 15.91%	3 6.98%	1 2.56%
Longer Than 30 Years	6 15.00%	2 4.55%	5 11.63%	1 2.56%
No Response	1 <u>2.50%</u>	6 <u>13.64%</u>	1 <u>2.33%</u>	4 <u>10.26%</u>
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

In order to determine if a relationship exists between when the first study abroad program was offered and institutional success in sending students to study abroad, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for three of the four institutional types (the analysis could not be performed for Small Private schools due to insufficient responses in one of the four cells). As Table 32 illustrates, there were significant relationships between these variables ($p < .05$) for Large Private and Large Public institutions.

With the exception of Small Public institutions, on the two measures for the length of institutional involvement with study abroad all chi-square values were

significant. It is possible to conclude, therefore, that there is a relationship between length of involvement an institution has with study abroad and its current success in sending students to study abroad.

Table 32

2 X 2 Contingency Tables for Number of Years Ago The First Study Abroad Program was Offered by Institutional Type

	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
Number of Years	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Large Private				
0 - 15 Years	12	31		
More than 15 Years	28	23		
	$\chi^2 = 6.955 \ p < .05$			
Large Public			Small Public	
0 - 15 Years	9	21	22	26
More than 15 Years	31	23	21	13
	$\chi^2 = 5.808 \ p < .05$		$\chi^2 = 2.025$	

Note. A count less than 5 in 25% of the cells in Small Private Institutions invalidated the use of the χ^2 test.

Research Question 8

Is there a relationship between the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from central funds and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

As tables 33 and 34 indicate, the operating budgets of study abroad offices are relatively small. Of the private institutions that responded to this question, 50.89% indicated they had operating budgets less than \$5,000. This group of institutions is primarily composed of Level 2 schools (83.72%). At public institutions, 38.26% fall into this category and again it is Level 2 schools that constitute the largest group

Table 33

Study Abroad Office Operating Budgets at Private Institutions

Operating Budget	Large Private		Small Private	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Less Than \$5,000	5 ^a 12.50% ^b	32 59.26%	9 24.32%	40 78.43%
\$5,000 - \$9,999	4 10.00%	4 7.41%	6 16.22%	6 11.76%
\$10,000 - \$14,999	5 12.50%	1 1.85%	2 5.41%	2 3.92%
\$15,000 - \$19,999	2 5.00%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
\$20,000 - \$24,999	2 5.00%	4 7.41%	4 10.81%	0 0.00%
\$25,000 - \$29,999	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
\$30,000 - \$34,999	2 5.00%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
\$35,000 - \$49,999	1 2.50%	2 3.70%	5 13.51%	0 0.00%
50,000 Plus	14 35.00%	5 9.26%	9 24.32%	0 0.00%
No Response	4 10.00%	4 7.41%	2 5.40%	3 5.88%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 34

Study Abroad Office Operating Budgets at Public Institutions

Operating Budget	Large Public		Small Public	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Less Than \$5,000	5 ^a	19	8	25
	12.50% ^b	43.18%	18.60%	64.10%
\$5,000 - \$9,999	1	8	6	3
	2.50%	18.18%	13.95%	7.69%
\$10,000 - \$14,999	5	5	8	0
	12.50%	11.36%	18.60%	0.00%
\$15,000 - \$19,999	4	1	2	5
	10.00%	2.27%	4.65%	12.82%
\$20,000 - \$24,999	3	1	2	0
	7.50%	2.27%	4.65%	0.00%
\$25,000 - \$29,999	2	1	4	0
	5.00%	2.27%	9.30%	0.00
\$30,000 - \$34,999	2	1	0	0
	5.00%	2.27%	0.00%	0.00%
\$35,000 - \$49,999	4	2	4	1
	10.00%	4.55%	9.30%	2.56%
\$50,000 Plus	11	1	4	1
	27.50%	2.27%	9.30%	2.56%
No Response	3	5	5	4
	7.50%	11.36%	11.63%	10.26%
Total	40	44	43	39
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.^a Number of respondents in this category^b Percent of respondents in this column

(77.19%). Not surprisingly, it was the Large Level 1 schools that responded in greater numbers in the \$50,000 Plus category; however, it is the Large Private schools that have the edge with 38.89% of these institutions reporting operating budgets of \$50,000 Plus compared with 29.72% of Large Public schools.

Of all institutions reporting they had operating budgets (see tables 35 and 36), 69.31% were funded through central funds at the 76% - 100% level. This was true for 76.52% of private institutions and 61.74% of public institutions. Interestingly, tables 35 & 36 also reveal that, with the exception of Small Public Level 2 institutions, either in

Table 35

Percentage of Study Abroad Offices' Operating Budget (not including salaries) from Central Funds at Private Institutions

Percentage of Operating Budget from Central Funds	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
None	6 ^a	2	3	2
	15.00% ^b	3.70%	8.11%	3.92%
Less than 10%	0	0	3	1
	0.00%	0.00%	8.11%	1.96%
11% - 25%	3	2	0	1
	7.50%	3.70%	0.00%	1.96%
26% - 50%	2	2	1	2
	5.00%	3.70%	2.70%	3.92%
51% - 75%	1	2	3	0
	2.50%	3.70%	8.11%	0.00%
76% - 100%	26	37	25	30
	65.00%	68.52%	67.57%	58.82%
Zero Budget	0	4	1	12
	0.00%	7.41%	2.70%	23.53%
No Response	2	5	1	3
	5.00%	9.26%	2.70%	5.88%
Total	40	54	37	51
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 36

Percentage of Study Abroad Offices' Operating Budget (not including salaries) from Central Funds at Public Institutions

Percentage of Operating Budget from Central Funds	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
None	6 ^a	3	7	1
	15.00% ^b	6.82%	16.28%	2.56%
Less than 10%	5	1	3	0
	12.50%	2.27%	6.98%	0.00%
11% - 25%	1	2	4	0
	2.50%	4.55%	9.30%	0.00%
26% - 50%	6	1	3	1
	15.00%	2.27%	6.89%	2.56%
51% - 75%	6	3	1	3
	15.00%	6.82%	2.33%	7.69%
76% - 100%	16	26	20	30
	40.00%	59.09%	46.51%	76.92%
Zero Budget	0	3	2	3
	0.00%	6.82%	4.65%	7.69%
No Response	0	5	3	1
	0.00%	11.36%	6.98%	2.56%
Total	40	44	43	39
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

second place or sharing that position were institutions that received no funds from central sources. Further, Level 1 institutions outnumbered Level 2 schools by almost three to one.

To determine if a relationship exists between the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from central funds and institutional success in sending students to study abroad, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed. The numbers of responses necessitated the collapsing of categories to form just two, these being: 1) 0% - 75% of the operating budget from central funds and 2) 76% - 100% of

operating budget from central funds. As Table 37 indicates, there were no significant chi-square values for the private institutions; however, both large and small public schools showed significant values at $p < .05$. It can be concluded that, as far as public institutions are concerned, there is a significant difference in the level of utilization of non-central funds in the operating budgets of Level 1 and Level 2 schools, and that Level 1 institutions will utilize these sources to a greater extent than Level 2 schools.

Table 37

2 X 3 Contingency Tables for Percentage of Operating Budget (Excluding Salaries) from Central Funds by Institutional Type

Percentage of Operating Budget from Central Funds	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
	Large Private		Small Private	
0% - 75%	12	8	10	6
76% - 100%	26	37	25	30
	$\chi^2 = 2.146$		$\chi^2 = 1.441$	
	Large Public		Small Public	
0% - 75%	24	10	18	5
76% - 100%	16	26	20	30
	$\chi^2 = 7.957 \ p < .05$		$\chi^2 = 9.240 \ p < .05$	

Sources of Income other than Central Funds

After central funds, it is fees assessed students who study abroad that is the next major source of income for study abroad offices (see APPENDIX D, tables 51-54). With the exception of Small Public Level 2 institutions, each institutional type, regardless of level, has at least one school whose operating budget depends on this source of income at the $\geq 75\%$ level (see tables 38 and 39). In fact, there are 11 Large Public Level 1 institutions whose operating budget is supported at this level by fees assessed students

Table 38

Percentage of Study Abroad Offices' Operating Budget (not including salaries) from Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad at Private Institutions

Percentage of Operating Budget from Fees	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
None	24 ^a 60.00% ^b	35 64.81%	25 67.57%	28 54.90%
Less than 10%	3 7.50%	4 7.41%	1 2.70%	4 7.84%
11% - 25%	1 2.50%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
26% - 50%	1 2.50%	1 1.85%	4 10.81%	1 1.96%
51% - 75%	2 5.00%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
76% - 100%	7 17.50%	3 5.56%	5 13.51%	3 5.88%
Zero Budget	0 0.00%	4 7.41%	1 2.70%	12 23.53
No Response	2 5.00%	5 9.26%	1 2.70%	3 5.88%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 39

Percentage of Study Abroad Office's Operating Budget (not including Salaries) Which Come from Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad at Public Institutions

Percentage of Operating Budget from Fees	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
None	13 ^a 32.50% ^b	23 52.27%	15 34.88%	30 76.92%
Less than 10%	4 10.00%	7 15.91%	6 13.95%	3 7.69%
11% - 25%	4 10.00%	2 4.55%	4 9.30%	0 0.00%
26% - 50%	6 15.00%	1 2.27%	2 4.65%	0 0.00%
51% - 75%	2 5.00%	2 4.55%	3 6.98%	2 5.13%
76% - 100%	11 27.50%	1 2.27%	8 18.60%	0 0.00%
Zero Budget	0 0.00%	3 6.82%	2 4.65%	3 7.69%
No Response	0 0.00%	5 11.36%	3 6.98%	1 2.56%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

who study abroad. Overall, 63.70% of institutions responding to this question and indicating they had operating budgets received no funds from fees assessed students who study abroad. At private institutions this figure was 61.53%, and 54.36% at public schools.

To determine if a relationship exists between the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from fees assessed students who study abroad and institutional success in sending students to study abroad, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed. The numbers of responses necessitated the collapsing of categories to form

just two, these being 1) 0% - 75% of the operating budget from fees assessed students who study abroad and 2) 76% - 100% of operating budget from fees assessed students who study abroad. As Table 40 indicates, there were no significant chi-square values for the private institutions; however, both large public and small public schools showed significant values at $p < .05$. It can be concluded that, as far as public institutions are concerned, there is a significant difference between Level 1 and Level 2 schools in the percentage of their operating budgets that come from fees assessed students.

Table 40

2 X 3 Contingency Tables for Percentage of Operating Budget (Excluding Salaries) from Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad by Institutional Type.

Percentage of Operating Budget from Fees	Study Abroad Success		Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
None Up to 100%	Large Private		Small Private	
	24	35	25	28
	14	10	10	8
	$x^2 = 2.142$		$x^2 = 0.378$	
None Up to 100%	Large Public		Small Public	
	13	23	15	30
	27	13	23	5
	$x^2 = 7.488 \ p < .05$		$x^2 = 16.476 \ p < .05$	

To summarize, at public institutions there does appear to be a relationship between institutional success in study abroad and at least on two measures of reliance on central funds for the study abroad offices' operating budget. It can be concluded that Level 1 public institutions depend less on central funds and more on fees assessed students who study abroad than do Level 2 public institutions. No such relationship was found for private schools

Summary

In order to minimize the impact of institutional size, the number of students awarded study abroad credit was expressed as a percentage of institutional enrollment, further, institutions were divided into two groups based on enrollment (see Table 4). In this way a fairer measure of institutional success in study abroad could be obtained, and differences in responses to the research questions that might be affected by institutional size, could be minimized. Further, it was then possible to determine if differences existed based on size of the institution.

Of the eight research questions, there were no significant relationships at private institutions between institutional success and a) the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy, b) the presence of a centralized structure incorporating a variety of international educational functions, including study abroad, reporting to a senior academic administrator (provost, vice provost, academic vice president, etc.) whose primary responsibility is for international education across campus, c) number of programs an institution sponsors (at Small Private institutions only), d) the percentage of study abroad programs sponsored by institutions which are administered within their study abroad offices, e) faculty status of the director of the study abroad office, f) the academic qualifications of the director of the study abroad office, g) the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from central funds.

At private institutions, significant relationship ($p < .05$) were evident between institutional success and a) number of programs an institution sponsors (Large Private schools only), and b) the length of time an institution has been involved in study abroad as measured by the number of years there has been a study abroad office, and when the first study abroad program was offered (insufficient observations for small private institutions invalidated the use of chi-square analysis).

At public schools, of the eight research questions, there were no significant relationships established between institutional success in study abroad and a) the presence of a centralized structure incorporating a variety of international educational functions, including study abroad, reporting to a senior academic administrator (provost, vice provost, academic vice president, etc.) whose primary responsibility is for international education across campus, b) number of programs an institution sponsors (at Small Public institutions only), c) the percentage of study abroad programs sponsored by institutions which are administered within their study abroad offices, e) faculty status of the director of the study abroad office, d) faculty status of the director of the study abroad office, and e) the academic qualifications of the director of the study abroad office.

Significant relationships ($p < .05$) were evident at public schools between institutional success and a) the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy, b) number of programs an institution sponsors (Large Public schools only), c) the length of time an institution has been involved in study abroad as measured by the number of years there has been a study abroad office (insufficient observations for Small Public institutions invalidated the use of chi-square analysis), and when the first study abroad program was offered (Large Public institutions only), and d) the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from central funds (further, significant chi-square values were obtained for both types of public institutions between institutional success and the percentage of operating budget for fees assessed students who study abroad).

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine the organizational structures and practices that appear to characterize successful study abroad operations in U.S. colleges and universities. The researcher was also interested to know if these differ from the organizational structures and practices of less successful operations. To achieve this goal, universities and four year colleges with institutional membership in NAFSA: Association of International Educators and affiliated with the Section on U.S. Students Studying Abroad (SECUSSA), were surveyed by means of a questionnaire. This constituted a population of 661 institutions. Of these institutions, usable questionnaires were received from 348 schools representing a response rate of 52.6%. Community colleges, specialized colleges, graduate schools, and professional institutions with SECUSSA affiliation were also surveyed but were eliminated from the study since they could not easily be incorporated into the other groups or, as was the case with community colleges, had low response rates.

Responding institutions were placed into one of eight groups according to public/private status, size, and institutional success measured by the number of students awarded academic credit expressed as a percentage of institutional enrollment. They included Large Private Level 1 schools (enrollment $\geq 2,000$, institutional success $\geq 2.0\%$), Large Private Level 2 schools (enrollment $\geq 2,000$, institutional success $< 2.0\%$), Small Private Level 1 schools (enrollment $< 2,000$, institutional success $\geq 5.0\%$), Small Private Level 2 schools (enrollment $< 2,000$, institutional success $< 5.0\%$), Large Public Level 1 schools (enrollment $\geq 12,000$, institutional success $\geq 0.8\%$), Large Public Level 2

schools (enrollment $\geq 12,000$, institutional success $< 0.8\%$), Small Public Level 1 schools (enrollment $< 12,000$, institutional success $\geq 0.5\%$), and Small Public Level 2 schools (enrollment $< 12,000$, institutional success $< 0.5\%$).

It should be noted that the percentage of institutional enrollment studying abroad is just one measure of success. Success, for instance, could also be viewed in terms of a) student satisfaction with the advising process – the extent to which students have been assisted in identifying programs that meet their educational and emotional needs and aspirations, b) student satisfaction with the study abroad program – the academic, cultural, and social aspects of the program, c) the extent to which the goals and objectives of the study abroad program have been achieved. While study abroad professionals are naturally concerned with these issues, senior administrators and study abroad colleagues want to know the number of students who studied abroad, and success is often viewed solely in these terms.

Collecting statistics on students who study abroad, while fraught with difficulties, is certainly much easier than collecting data on some of the other measures of success. Anyone familiar with the effort involved in trying to get students to complete evaluation surveys will understand this point. Also, when competing for resources, the number of students served is always a compelling argument.

One of the interesting facts to emerge from the data was the higher percentages of enrollment at private schools who study abroad compared with public schools. Small Private Level 1 institutions started at $\geq 5.0\%$ and had a mean of 10.71% (see Appendix C, Table 51). The institution with the highest percentage of students studying abroad in this group had 24.07% percent of its student body study abroad during 1993-94. Large Private Level 1 schools had a mean of 7.57% and had one institution with 49.70% of its student body studying abroad! These figures are considerably higher than those for

public institutions, which had means of 1.61% and 2.15% for Large Public Level 1 and Small Public Level 1 schools respectively.

The higher percentage of students studying abroad at private institutions, particularly small schools, documented in this study certainly support Lambert's (1989) characterization of institutional patterns of study abroad participation. This pattern is probably the result of a combination of factors that include the higher cost of tuition at private institutions, greater integration of study abroad into the curriculum, a longer history of involvement in study abroad, and the marketing of these opportunities to prospective students. It is this researcher's observation that bright high school seniors are increasingly looking for study abroad opportunities, and private institutions, particularly selective ones, have gained a competitive advantage in the marketing of these opportunities and in the development of a campus climate that supports study abroad.

The following are the eight research questions posed in the study with a summary and discussion of the findings:

1. Is there a relationship between the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy (academic affairs, student affairs, etc.) and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

A 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for each of the institutional types, and significant chi-square values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained for Large Public and Small Public institutions.

As Frank (1975) observes, the location of the study abroad office is critical since it has a strong influence on all aspects of the office. While academic affairs is the location of 69.25% of all study abroad offices, it is only at public institutions where there

is a significant relationship between success and location of the study abroad office. This is consistent with Harari's (1983 & 1989) recommendations concerning the most appropriate location of a centralized office with a range of international education functions and Lambert's (1990) assertion that international studies administrators need to be firmly established in academic affairs.

It is difficult to explain why there are only significant chi-square values for public institutions. Perhaps size is a factor since the means for enrollment of Small Public institutions, at both levels, are larger than those of Large Private institutions. It is also noticeable that the chi-square values fall with enrollment (see Table 13). Size may well play a significant role in the ability of study abroad professionals to directly reach potential study abroad students. This is more easily accomplished on a small campus, and the study abroad professional may have less need for faculty to spread the word. That is not to say that faculty are not important, for they are; but at large institutions faculty may have a greater role to play in promoting study abroad opportunities, and the location of the study abroad office within academic affairs may provide the office with a degree of legitimacy amongst faculty it otherwise would not have. Further, a Vice President for Academic Affairs interested in increasing participation in study abroad is more able to exert influence on deans, department heads, and faculty than is a Vice President for Student Affairs.

2. Is there a relationship between the presence of a centralized structure incorporating a variety of international educational functions, including study abroad, reporting to a senior academic administrator (provost, vice provost, academic vice president, etc.) whose primary responsibility is for international education across campus and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

Only 70 of the 348 institutions in the study indicated this administrative arrangement was in effect at their school. A 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for each of the four institutional types, but no significant chi-square values were obtained.

One explanation for the relative scarcity of this type of administrative structure is the cost of hiring personnel and providing a sufficiently large budget to insure the office can be effective in the provision of incentives to internationalize. Further, an institution wishing to operationalize this arrangement would presumably have both the desire to centralize functions and an appropriate level of international activity to warrant this arrangement. Budget constraints, an unwillingness to lose control and autonomy on the part of the faculty, low levels of international activity, and inertia may be just a few of the reasons why a centralized structure is not evident at more institutions.

The fact that there is no apparent relationship between this type of administrative structure and institutional success in sending students to study abroad suggests this arrangement does not offer advantages over other possible structures. This does not support the contention of a number of authors (American Association of State Colleges and Universities, 1988; American Council on Education, 1984; Backman, 1984; Harari, 1983 & 1989; Kelleher, 1991; Leinwald, 1983; Smuckler & Sommers, 1988) that internationalization works best when the various components of international education are coordinated by a central office. If this were the case, it would be reasonable to expect greater participation in study abroad at those schools where this structure was evident.

Again, this arrangement appears to be a facet of size of the institution since 51.42% of institutions where this administrative structure is in place are large public schools. It could well be that the level of international activity might warrant this type of coordinated activity; however, a centralized office does not necessarily mean more funds

are available to internationalize the campus, or that study abroad is more of a priority at these institutions than others.

3. Is there a relationship between the number of programs an institution sponsors and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

Pearson product-moment correlations were performed for each of the four institutional types. Significant r values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained for Large Private ($r = .209$) and Large Public ($r = .578$) institutions, indicating a low positive correlation and a moderate positive correlation, respectively.

The researcher was a little surprised with the results of the analysis for this particular question because it seemed self-evident there would be a strong positive correlation between institutional success in sending students to study abroad and the number of programs offered: the greater the number of programs, the higher the percentage of enrollment that study abroad. This was clearly not the case for Small Private and Small Public institutions, and only at Large Public institutions do we find a moderate correlation that is significant.

The size of the institution may play a role, since the larger the enrollment the greater number of programs an institution can support. This is not just a facet of numbers of students but also of the numbers of majors an institution offers and the diversity of the student body. With size comes the ability to offer more programs in a variety of different academic fields in a variety of different locations. Consequently, small institutions are more limited than larger ones in what they can offer. For instance, a

liberal arts college has no need to develop programs outside of this academic area while a large state university would disenfranchise a major portion of its student body if the only programs it offered abroad were in the liberal arts. One response of the smaller schools is to enroll a greater number of students in fewer programs than might be the case at Large Public institutions.

While the size of an institution may be an advantage in terms of the range of programs abroad that can be offered, it can be a serious handicap in terms of coordinating these programs. Faculty may operate programs in one department that compete with those in another. In some cases, this may result in one or more of the programs failing to attract sufficient students. In other cases, both programs may be successful; however, greater coordination may have resulted in only one program being offered with greater efficiency of effort and without detriment to the numbers of students who study abroad. Study abroad professionals can have an important role in this regard providing they are informed of programs that are being developed.

4. Is there a relationship between the percentage of study abroad programs sponsored by institutions which are administered within their study abroad offices and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

Pearson product-moment correlations were performed for each of the four institutional types. No significant r values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained.

Placing program administration within the study abroad office can bring about consistency of program administration and better insure that programs are in compliance

with university policies and procedures. Further, while the programs would still be taught by faculty, the administrative work that can be so time-consuming can be done by study abroad professionals, thus freeing faculty to concentrate on teaching and research. From the standpoint of the study abroad office, this arrangement may require additional staff and a larger operating budget; however, institutions may still realize cost savings since the time and effort spent by faculty, who are more highly paid than study abroad professionals, to administer these programs can be spent on teaching and research. In addition, since the effort involved in administering programs can be greatly reduced by centralizing these functions within the study abroad office, more faculty might be willing to lead groups abroad.

In defense of decentralization, faculty are central to the success of study abroad programs. The quality of the curriculum and of the teaching is one of the most critical elements of the study abroad experience. Faculty play a pivotal role in the development and provision of the educational experience. Further, their role in promoting these programs is, in this researcher's opinion, second only to that of students who have studied abroad. Since study abroad has developed to a large measure on many campuses because of faculty interest, commitment, and willingness to assume these administrative burdens, do we run the risk of alienating faculty by the development of more bureaucracy?

The analysis of data suggests that a variety of approaches can be successful and rarely are institutions exclusively centralized or decentralized. A combination of programs operating out of the study abroad office and from departments may be the best arrangement since it provides opportunities for faculty to be creative while having study abroad professionals, with experience in program development, available for consultation.

5. Is there a relationship between the faculty status of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

A 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for each of the four institutional types, but no significant chi-square values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained.

Although 58.77% of respondents hold faculty appointments, it is rare that this is a requirement for employment in study abroad. Many faculty have come into the field because of an interest in international education, and many of these work in study abroad part-time while continuing to have teaching and research responsibilities. Harari (1983 & 1989) argues that the director of a Center for International Education (a centralized office which incorporates a variety of international educational functions) should have faculty status so the individual can relate to faculty as an equal. The same argument could be made for the director of a study abroad office. While faculty status may in fact provide greater credibility, faculty status is no guarantee of administrative prowess. Further, despite the curricular implications in study abroad, it does appear that the faculty status of the director of the study abroad office has no bearing on institutional success.

6. Is there a relationship between the academic qualifications of the director of the study abroad office and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

A 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for each of the institutional types, but no significant chi-square values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained.

The same types of arguments for the director of the study abroad office having faculty status can be made for that individual possessing a doctorate: credibility with faculty and their work with curricular issues relating to study abroad. Although 41.09% of respondents possessed a doctorate, this appeared to make no difference with regard to institutional success in study abroad. While a doctorate may be asked for more often than faculty status, it is the Master's degree which is the academic qualification required for most positions in the field. With regard to the need for a doctorate because of the curricular issues involved in study abroad, there is no shortage of experts in these matters at institutions of higher education. Just as study abroad professionals can be called upon by faculty about the logistics of study abroad (group transportation, housing, classroom space, meals, etc.), faculty can and should be utilized in matters concerning the curriculum.

7. Is there a relationship between the length of time an institution has been involved in study abroad and its success in sending students to study abroad?

Two measures were used in judging the length of time an institution has been involved in study abroad. The first of these was the length of time there has been a study abroad office. Using this particular measure, a 2 X 2 chi square analysis was performed for each of the four institutional types, and significant chi-square values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained for Large Private, Small Private, and Large Public institutions. An insufficient number of observations in one of the cells of Small Public institutions invalidated the use of chi-square analysis. The second measure was the number of years ago the first study

abroad program was offered. Again a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed, and significant chi-square values were obtained for Large Private and Large Public institutions. There were too few observations in one of the cells of Small Private institutions to use this procedure.

Established traditions and expectations are critical components for successful institutions. This is true for study abroad. Institutions that have a history of involvement in study abroad are ones that are also successful in this endeavor. Since students are the best advocates of study abroad, having a large number of students who study abroad one year is a good predictor of success for the next year. This researcher is of the opinion that there comes a point at which the numbers of students who study abroad becomes, in a sense, self-sustaining since the volume of students who take advantage of these opportunities is sufficiently large to infuse the campus with a sense of excitement and wonder about the world and a desire to know more about it. Further, at some point each member of the campus community – faculty, staff, students – becomes knowledgeable about these opportunities since they personally know students who have studied abroad. At this point, study abroad becomes an expectation, and a tradition of studying abroad develops.

However, for study abroad to reach this level, it takes institutional commitment and time. It is clear that the successful institutions have benefited from their lengthy involvement in study abroad. This holds true for the number of years there has been a study abroad office and when the first study abroad program was offered. The data also support Bowman's (1978) findings that private schools were at the forefront in the development of study abroad programs.

8. Is there a relationship between the percentage of the study abroad office's operating budget that comes from central funds and institutional success in sending students to study abroad?

A 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed for each of the four institutional types, but only the public institutions obtained significant ($p < 0.5$) chi-square values. Further, a 2 X 2 chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether a relationship exists between institutional success in study abroad and percentage of operating budget (excluding salaries) from fees assessed students who study abroad. Again, significant chi-square values ($p < 0.5$) were obtained for public institutions only.

Study abroad offices survive on relatively small operating budgets. Of the institutions that responded to the survey, 50.89% of private schools and 38.26% of public schools had annual operating budgets less than \$5,000. Further, 69.31% were funded at the 76% - 100% level through central funds. Given these statistics, it is clear why study abroad offices would seek external sources of income; however, it is only at public institutions that there is a relationship between percentage of operating budget from central funds and institutional success in study abroad. In most cases, the major source of income outside of central funds was from fees assessed students who study abroad. Given this arrangement, there is a built-in incentive for study abroad offices to attract more students since each additional student contributes to the operating budget of the office. In a number of instances (18 private and 20 public institutions), these fees constituted 76% - 100% of the study abroad offices' operating budget. This researcher is

aware of offices where the operating budget and salaries of staff are completely paid for out of these special fees.

It is interesting to note that private institutions were, on the whole, more dependent on central funds than public institutions and registered no significant chi-square values between the two variables and institutional success. It is possible that, given the higher fees to attend private institutions, study abroad professionals at these institutions are reluctant or unable to charge special fees. It is possible that there is greater satisfaction with funding levels. However, these explanations only address reliance on central funds and not the more important issue of the relationship between these funds and institutional success.

Perhaps the answer lies in how funds from external sources are used. For instance, if revenues from special fees are plowed into additional promotion or scholarships, these activities could well result in greater numbers of students studying abroad. There will always be a discrepancy between available funds and the cost of adequately promoting study abroad. This discrepancy could well be greater at large institutions since professionals need to rely more extensively on costly mass marketing techniques. Additional advertisements in the campus newspaper, more flyers etc., might well reach sections of the campus community not previously aware of these opportunities. If this is the case, it is understandable why public institutions might reap greater benefits in terms of student participation from non-central funds.

Scholarships for study abroad are often symbolic gestures, but nevertheless important. While tuition at private institutions is higher than at public schools, institutional scholarships awarded by private schools are often both sizable and numerous. In this way, they can compete with tuition costs at public schools. Many students attending public schools receive no assistance in the form of institutional scholarships. Consequently, a scholarship from a public institution for study abroad

represents a powerful message. It can in some cases make a difference between students deciding to study abroad or not, regardless of whether the scholarship covers the additional expenses associated with study abroad. Further, the availability of study abroad scholarships, regardless of whether a student actually receives one, may be the needed incentive for that student to apply to study abroad.

Rather than these funds representing revenue with which study abroad offices can provide additional services, or more promotion, or scholarships, they may only be sufficient to bring the operating budget up to a level where the office can provide basic services. If this were the situation at more private institutions than public ones, it would help explain the discrepancy.

Conclusions

It is important that causal relationships not be inferred from the analysis of data where significant *p* values were obtained. For example, it is a spurious argument to conclude that, because a relationship exists between institutional success and the location of the study abroad office, the location of the study abroad office explains why some institutions are successful and others are not.

This study has attempted to provide an overview of study abroad administration using selected variables. The selection of these variables was determined by the on-going discussion regarding how international education and its associated functions should be organized and the extent to which study abroad might benefit from the centralization of international education. Further, the researcher was interested to know if the recommendations of the proponents of centralization applied to study abroad administration, specifically: centralization of study abroad administration, qualifications and faculty rank of the director of the study abroad office, and location of the office

within the administrative structure. Finally, the researcher was interested in a number of unrelated issues concerned with the financing of study abroad offices and numbers of programs offered.

A number of conclusions can be drawn from the data. These are:

1. As far as study abroad is concerned, there appears to be no benefit from a centralized international educational structure reporting to a senior academic administrator.
2. The centralization of study abroad administration seems to have no effect on institutional success as measured by percentage of enrollment studying abroad.
3. Location in academic affairs appears to be advantageous for study abroad offices in public institutions but not in private schools.
4. The faculty rank of the director of the study abroad office and whether the director possesses a doctorate seem not to be factors in institutional success.
5. Institutions that have a history of involvement in study abroad are, on the whole, more successful in sending their students abroad.
6. Public institutions that have less dependence on central funds for their operating budget are generally more successful.
7. For large institutions, especially public ones, more study abroad programs may be one way to insure more students study abroad.

These are just a few of the patterns that the four institutional types exhibited. It is for study abroad professionals to decide which, if any, of these findings have implications for their own institutions. Clearly, there are other data of considerable interest to study abroad professionals generated by the questionnaire that have not found their way into

this study. The questionnaire was developed with two audiences in mind: The first was the researcher's dissertation committee, and it was the research questions in this study that provided the critical elements of the survey instrument. The second audience included study abroad professionals and those interested in increasing the numbers of students who study abroad. For them, I was interested in providing a snapshot of the field of study abroad administration, the services provided by study abroad offices, the international experiences and language skills of professionals, major obstacles professionals identify that prevent a greater number of students from taking advantage of these wonderful opportunities, and institutional practices regarding credit transfer, financial aid, and the provision of scholarships specifically for study abroad. It is my intention to address these issues, and it is my hope that a manuscript on these topics to be developed will be published.

Recommendations

This study has concerned itself with the aggregate: It has provided an overview of study abroad administration with the intent of determining what is happening in the field with regard to selected variables. I hope that professionals will find this information both interesting and useful; however, in taking a quantitative approach to this topic, unique and innovative responses are easily overlooked. In order to perform chi-square analysis, it was only possible to have two levels of success for each institutional type, and within these levels there were considerable ranges of success in sending students to study abroad. A higher response rate might have enabled the researcher to run chi-square analysis with three success levels rather than two; however, while three levels would have resulted in a grouping of institutions more similar on this variable, it would not have negated the initial criticism. It is unknown how representative the top five institutions,

for instance, in each institutional type are of the rest of the institutions in each of the four groups. If models are needed, then it is to these institutions professionals should look. In short, the researcher is arguing for a case study approach to study abroad administration focusing on the most successful schools in each of the institutional types.

It was unfortunate that community colleges did not respond in greater numbers to the survey. There are interesting developments in study abroad at these institutions, and some have experienced considerable success; however, only 1.1% of students who earned academic credit for studying abroad in 1991-92 were studying at the associate degree level (Zikopoulos, 1993). While recognizing that study abroad professionals at these institutions face special challenges, such as the number of non-traditional and part-time students, study abroad opportunities cannot be limited to full-time students attending four year colleges and universities. There is a need for both quantitative and qualitative research in study abroad administration at these institutions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENT

ID# _____

Study Abroad Administration in U.S. Colleges and Universities

Sept/Oct, 1994

A Research Study Conducted
by
IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY



1

Unless otherwise indicated, please circle one response number or fill in a blank.

Institutional Profile

1. Title of person completing this questionnaire: _____

2. In addition to your office, are there others on your campus whose primary activity is study abroad?

1 = YES

2 = NO

Please provide the name of the director(s) and name and address of the office(s) so a questionnaire can be mailed to the appropriate individual(s):

Name

Address

Name

Address

3. What was student enrollment (undergraduate & graduate) at your institution during Fall 1993?

4. Which of the following categories best describes the number of out-of-state students at your institution?

1 = 1% - 10%

2 = 11% - 20%

3 = 21% - 30%

4 = 31% - 40%

5 = 41% - 50%

6 = GREATER THAN 50%

5. Which of the following categories best describes your institution?

1 = PUBLIC

2 = PRIVATE

6. What was the cost of undergraduate in-state tuition at your institution for the 1993-94 academic year? (Do not include summer sessions.)

\$ _____

7. Is an international dimension included in the mission statement of your institution?

1 = YES

2 = NO

Administrative Structure

We are interested in the location of the study abroad office within the administrative hierarchy of your institution.

8. Which of the following categories best describes where the Study Abroad Office is located within the administrative structure of your institution?

- 1 = STUDENT AFFAIRS
- 2 = ACADEMIC AFFAIRS
- 3 = STUDENT AFFAIRS AND ACADEMIC AFFAIRS
- 4 = CONTINUING EDUCATION
- 5 = OTHER Please specify _____

9. Which of the following positions best describes the office held by the person to whom you report in your role as a study abroad professional?

- 1 = PRESIDENT OR CHANCELLOR
- 2 = PROVOST OR VICE PRESIDENT OF ACADEMIC AFFAIRS
- 3 = ASSOCIATE PROVOST
- 4 = VICE PRESIDENT OF STUDENT AFFAIRS
- 5 = PROVOST OR ASSOCIATE PROVOST AND VICE PRESIDENT FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS
- 6 = DEAN OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
- 7 = ASSISTANT DEAN OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
- 8 = DIRECTOR OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL SERVICES
- 9 = ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL SERVICES
- 10 = OTHER Please specify _____

10. Which of the following positions best describes the office held by the person to whom your supervisor reports?

- 1 = PRESIDENT OR CHANCELLOR
- 2 = PROVOST OR VICE PRESIDENT OF ACADEMIC AFFAIRS
- 3 = ASSOCIATE PROVOST
- 4 = VICE PRESIDENT OF STUDENT AFFAIRS
- 5 = PROVOST OR ASSOCIATE PROVOST AND VICE PRESIDENT FOR STUDENT AFFAIRS
- 6 = DEAN OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION
- 7 = DIRECTOR OF INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL SERVICES
- 8 = OTHER Please specify _____

- 11a. Is there a senior level administrator (dean or above) whose primary responsibility is for international education across your campus?

- 1 = YES
- 2 = NO [Skip to Q.12.]

- b. What is this person's title? _____

3

c. For which of the following areas does this person have responsibility?

	YES	NO
Study abroad	1	2
International students	1	2
International scholars	1	2
Faculty exchanges	1	2
International grants & contracts	1	2
International memoranda of agreement	1	2
Internationalizing the curriculum	1	2
English as a second language	1	2

Staffing, Qualifications & Experience

Please provide an overview of the educational background and experience of staff in the Study Abroad Office. Further, we are interested in the range of responsibilities of the director.

12. Please indicate the highest academic qualification you hold:

- 1 = BACHELOR'S DEGREE
- 2 = MASTER'S DEGREE
- 3 = DOCTORATE

13. In which of the following areas was your highest degree earned?

- 1 = EDUCATION
- 2 = SOCIAL SCIENCES
- 3 = HUMANITIES
- 4 = SCIENCES
- 5 = ENGINEERING
- 6 = AGRICULTURE
- 7 = FINE ARTS
- 8 = FAMILY AND CONSUMER SCIENCE
- 9 = OTHER Please specify _____

14. Have you lived outside the U.S. continuously for at least nine months?

- 1 = YES
- 2 = NO

15. Have you studied outside the U.S. ?

- 1 = YES
- 2 = NO

5

19. Which of the following categories best describes your situation? (Circle only one)

- 1 = NON FACULTY
- 2 = ADJUNCT FACULTY OR INSTRUCTOR
- 3 = ASSISTANT PROFESSOR
- 4 = ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR
- 5 = PROFESSOR

20. Please indicate:

- a) the number of professional staff and graduate assistants employed in the Study Abroad Office
 - b) the number of staff who have studied outside the U.S.
 - c) the number who have lived outside the U.S. continuously for nine months or longer
- (Do not include yourself in questions a - c)

	a	b	c
	Number of Staff	Number who studied outside the U.S.	Number who lived outside the U.S. for 9mths
Professional Staff (full-time)			
Professional Staff (part-time)			
Graduate Assistant(s)			

21. How many of the professional staff in the study abroad office hold the following academic degrees?
(Do not include yourself)

NUMBER

Bachelor's Degree _____

Master's Degree _____

Doctorate _____

22. How many clerical/secretarial staff and undergraduates are employed in the Study Abroad Office?

NUMBER

Full-time clerical/secretarial staff _____

Part-time clerical/secretarial staff _____

Undergraduates _____

6

23. Please indicate the extent to which volunteers are used to promote your programs:

- 1 = LITTLE OR NO USE OF VOLUNTEERS
- 2 = MODERATE USE OF VOLUNTEERS
- 3 = EXTENSIVE USE OF VOLUNTEERS

Programs and Services

The next series of questions is concerned with the range of services provided by the study abroad office and the extent of its involvement in program development and administration. We are also interested in your institution's policy regarding the use of financial aid for study abroad and its policy concerning credit transfer.

24. During the academic year 1993/94, including the summer of 1994, how many students were awarded study abroad credit by your institution (may include students studying toward a degree in other U.S. institutions) ?

25a. Did your institution sponsor study abroad programs during 1993/94?

- 1 = YES
- 2 = NO [Skip to Q.27.]

b. How many study abroad programs were sponsored by your institution during 1993/94?

c. What percentage of students to whom your institution awarded study abroad credit were from other institutions?

- 1 = NONE
- 2 = 1% - 15%
- 3 = 16% - 25%
- 4 = 26% - 50%
- 5 = 51% - 75%
- 6 = 76% - 99%

d. How many study abroad programs were administered by your office?

26a. Did your institution belong to a consortium that sponsored study abroad programs in 1993/94?

- 1 = YES
- 2 = NO [Skip to Q.27.]

b. How many consortia?

7

c. How many programs offered by your institution were consortia programs?

27. How long has the Study Abroad Office existed?

- 1 = LESS THEN 5 YEARS
- 2 = 5 - 9 YEARS
- 3 = 10 - 15 YEARS
- 4 = 16 - 20 YEARS
- 5 = 21 - 25 YEARS
- 6 = 26 - 30 YEARS
- 7 = LONGER THAN 30 YEARS

28. When was the first study abroad program offered by your institution?

- 1 = LESS THEN 5 YEARS AGO
- 2 = 5 - 9 YEARS AGO
- 3 = 10 - 15 YEARS AGO
- 4 = 16 - 20 YEARS AGO
- 5 = 21 - 25 YEARS AGO
- 6 = 26 - 30 YEARS AGO
- 7 = LONGER THAN 30 YEARS AGO

29. Please indicate your institution's policy toward credit earned while studying abroad according to the type of institution sponsoring the program:

- 1 = credit not accepted
- 2 = credit awarded but no grade given
- 3 = pass/fail or satisfactory/unsatisfactory grade awarded
- 4 = letter grade awarded shown on transcript but not factored into GPA
- 5 = letter grade awarded shown on transcript and factored into GPA

PROGRAM SPONSOR	No Credit	Credit no grade	Pass/Fail	Grade shown	Grade used in GPA
Programs sponsored by your institution and taught by your faculty	1	2	3	4	5
Programs sponsored by your institution and taught by faculty at a foreign institution	1	2	3	4	5
Programs sponsored by accredited US institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Programs sponsored by foreign degree granting institutions	1	2	3	4	5
Programs sponsored by language institutions not affiliated with a university	1	2	3	4	5

- 30a. Do you maintain a list of approved programs sponsored by other institutions in which your students may participate?

1 = YES
2 = NO [Skip to Q.31.]

- b. If students do not choose your programs, are they limited to programs on this list?

1 = YES
2 = NO

31. Can students use financial aid processed through your institution on programs sponsored by your institution?

	<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>
Federal	1	2
State	1	2
Institutional	1	2

32. Can students use financial aid processed through your institution on programs sponsored by other institutions for which transfer credit is awarded?

	<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>
Federal	1	2
State	1	2
Institutional	1	2

33. In total, how much scholarship money specifically designated for study abroad was awarded by your institution in 1993/94?

\$ _____

34. Which of the following services does your office provide on a regular basis?

	<u>YES</u>	<u>NO</u>
Advising on programs sponsored by your institution	1	2
Advising on programs sponsored by other institutions	1	2
Credit transfer evaluation	1	2
Predeparture orientation	1	2
Reentry orientation	1	2
Issuing airline tickets	1	2
Issuing rail passes (Eurail, Britrail, etc.)	1	2
Issuing International Student ID Cards	1	2
Issuing Youth Hostel Cards	1	2
Passport photos	1	2

Your Opinions Concerning Study Abroad In General And its Status at Your Institution

We are interested in your views about study abroad, and your insights regarding those factors that have contributed toward the present status of study abroad at your institution.

35. Read each of the following statements and circle the number which best represents how you feel.

- 1 = Strongly agree
 2 = Agree somewhat
 3 = Neutral
 4 = Disagree somewhat
 5 = Disagree strongly

Strongly agree
 Agree somewhat
 Neutral
 Disagree somewhat
 Disagree strongly

IN GENERAL

- | | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. | Study abroad should be part of a centralized office with broad responsibilities for international education. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. | The various components that constitute international education all benefit when administered by a central office. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. | Study abroad should be an administrative unit within academic affairs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

AT YOUR INSTITUTION

- | | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| a. | Faculty have a positive attitude toward study abroad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| b. | Upper administration have a positive attitude toward study abroad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| c. | Many students enroll in your institution because of your study abroad programs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| d. | There is a general expectation that students at your institution will study abroad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| e. | Admission materials highlight study abroad options. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| f. | Admissions staff are knowledgeable about your study abroad programs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| g. | The high cost of tuition at your institution is a major reason your students feel they can afford to study abroad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| h. | A few influential individuals have had a very positive and significant impact on study abroad. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| i. | A long involvement in study abroad has been important to your institution's success in this endeavor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| j. | Academic advisors are knowledgeable about your study abroad programs. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

10

- k. Academic advisors have a positive attitude toward study abroad. 1 2 3 4 5
- l. The curriculum at your institution emphasizes the international. 1 2 3 4 5
- m. Many of your faculty have been abroad. 1 2 3 4 5
- n. The dedication and professionalism of the study abroad staff have been important to the success of study abroad. 1 2 3 4 5
- o. Study abroad at your institution operates in an institutional climate that generally supports your goals. 1 2 3 4 5
- p. Internal politics within your institution have, for the most part, worked to the advantage of study abroad. 1 2 3 4 5

36. Review the following categories and rank the four that have had the most positive impact and the four that have had the most negative impact on the development of study abroad at your institution.

Factors impacting on the development of study abroad

- A = Cost differential between remaining on campus and studying abroad
 B = Faculty support
 C = Support of upper administration
 D = Predisposition of students toward study abroad
 E = Internal politics
 F = Study Abroad Office funding sources
 G = Position of study abroad within the administrative hierarchy
 H = A long history of institutional involvement in study abroad
 I = Dedication of study abroad professionals
 J = The curriculum (its international emphasis or lack of emphasis)
 K = Availability of scholarships for study abroad

(Place the letter of the factors in the blanks below)

RANKING	POSITIVE IMPACT	NEGATIVE IMPACT
1 =	_____	_____
2 =	_____	_____
3 =	_____	_____
4 =	_____	_____

Funding Sources

There is considerable variation in financial support for study abroad and in the sources of these funds. We are interested in gathering more definitive information on this important topic.

37. Which of the following categories best describes the size of the Study Abroad Office's operating budget (not including any salaries) for 1993/94?

- | | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|-----------------|-------|
| 1 | = | LESS THAN | \$ 5,000 | |
| 2 | = | \$ 5,000 - | \$ 9,999 | |
| 3 | = | \$ 10,000 - | \$ 14,999 | |
| 4 | = | \$ 15,000 - | \$ 19,999 | |
| 5 | = | \$ 20,000 - | \$ 24,999 | |
| 6 | = | \$ 25,000 - | \$ 29,999 | |
| 7 | = | \$ 30,000 - | \$ 34,999 | |
| 8 | = | \$ 35,000 - | \$ 49,999 | |
| 9 | = | \$ 50,000 PLUS | b. How much? \$ | _____ |

38. What percentage of your operating budget (not including salaries) came from each of the following funding sources in 1993/94?

FUNDING SOURCE	None	Less than 10%	11% - 25%	26% - 50%	51% - 75%	76% - 100%
Central funds	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fee assessed students who study abroad	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sale of travel items such as airline tickets, Eurail Passes, ID cards, passport photographs, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Grants and contracts	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gifts	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other	1	2	3	4	5	6
Please specify _____						

39. What percentage of staff salaries in the Study Abroad Office, including your own, came from each of the following sources in 1993/94?

FUNDING SOURCE	None	Less than 10%	11% - 25%	26% - 50%	51% - 75%	76% - 100%
Central funds	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fee assessed students who study abroad	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sale of travel items such as airline tickets, Eurail Passes, ID cards, passport photographs, etc.	1	2	3	4	5	6
Grants and contracts	1	2	3	4	5	6
Gifts	1	2	3	4	5	6
Other	1	2	3	4	5	6
Please specify						

12

40a. In 1993/94 did the income generated by your office exceed your total expenditures including salaries?

1 = YES

2 = NO

b. By how much? \$_____

41. What percentage of your operating budget (not including any salaries) was spent on marketing and promotion of study abroad?

1 = NONE

2 = 1% - 10%

3 = 11% - 20%

4 = 21% - 30%

5 = 31% - 40%

6 = 41% - 50%

7 = GREATER THAN 50%

42. Does your Admissions Office include information on study abroad in material they develop for prospective students seeking admission to your institution?

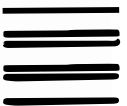
1 = YES

2 = NO

43. Please use the space below to comment on aspects of study abroad administration at your institution which you feel are important and have not been adequately explored in this questionnaire.

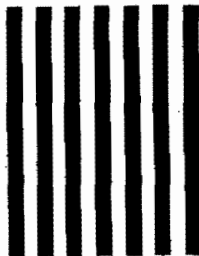
Thank you for taking time to complete this questionnaire and for your insights about the status of study abroad at your institution. Please check the questionnaire to be sure it is complete. Every effort will be made to make the results of this survey available to study abroad professionals.

Staple this completed questionnaire and place it in the mail. Since the cost of mailing has been prepaid, there is no need to affix postage. Thank you.



No postage
necessary
if mailed
in the United States

Stat Lab
217 Snedecor



BUSINESS REPLY MAIL

FIRST CLASS MAIL PERMIT NO. AMES, IOWA

Postage will be paid by addressee

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

ISU Mail Center

Ames, Iowa 50010-9887

APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

September 23, 1994

«title». «first» «last»
«address»

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA
Telex 283359 IASU UR
Telephone (515) 294-6792
FAX (515) 294-8263
J1.SAC@ISUMVS.IASTATE.EDU

Dear «title». «last»:

At a time when higher education is endeavoring to respond to the challenges of increased international interdependence and instant global communications, the need for more American students to study abroad is increasingly recognized. Currently, fewer than 2% of college students study abroad for college credit. Despite this, there is little research concerning study abroad administration. It is timely, therefore, to investigate the organizational structure and practices of study abroad administration to determine what is happening in the field and to identify structures and practices that appear to be successful.

The information you are able to provide about «university» is critical to the success of this study. The questionnaire should be completed by the individual who directs the study abroad office. If you are not that person, I would be grateful if you would pass this cover letter and the enclosed questionnaire to the appropriate individual. For the purpose of this research, the study abroad office is defined as the administrative office on campus staffed by a study abroad advisor(s) where students find information and receive advice on study abroad programs, related opportunities, and institutional procedures. The study abroad office may or may not administer and develop programs. If there is more than one office at your institution that fits this description, please provide the name of its director and the address in item 2 of the questionnaire. Do not try to answer questions for the other office(s), as they will be mailed a questionnaire. I am interested in your office and in your opinions.

You may rest assured of complete confidentiality. The use of the numeric identifier on the cover of the survey instrument is to enable me to determine who has returned the information we need so they might be checked off our mailing list. Your name and that of your institution will not be identified in the study. The questionnaire should take approximately twenty minutes to complete.

The results of this study will be made available to the regional newsletter editors of NAFSA: Association of International Educators for inclusion in their publications. Further, I will provide a summary of results on SECUSS-L (the electronic notice board for study abroad professionals).

I would be pleased to answer any questions you might have. Please write or call. The telephone number is (515) 294-6792. Alternatively, I can be reached by e-mail at tnelson@iastate.edu.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad

Enc.

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA

«title», «first» «last»
«address»

October, 1994

Recently a questionnaire seeking your insights into study abroad administration at your institution was mailed to you. If you have already completed and returned it to me please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so today. It is critical to the success of this research that data from your institution, and your comments concerning the status of study abroad at your school, be included in the data analysis.

If by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call me now at (515) 294-6792 or contact me via e-mail at tnelson@iastate.edu, and I will get another one in the mail to you immediately. Thank you for your cooperation in this matter.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad



IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA
Telex 283359 IASU UR
Telephone (515) 294-6792
FAX (515) 294-8263
J1.SAC@ISUMVS.IASTATE.EDU

October 31, 1994

«title». «first» «last»
«address»

Dear «title». «last»:

Recently, you were mailed a survey requesting information on study abroad administration at your institution. Since the information you are able to provide about «university» is critical to the success of this study, I hope you will take a few minutes from your busy schedule to respond to this questionnaire. If you have already completed the survey and have mailed it back to me, please accept my sincerest thanks and disregard this letter.

The questionnaire should be completed by the individual who directs the study abroad office. If you are not that person, I would be grateful if you would pass this cover letter and the enclosed questionnaire to the appropriate individual. For the purpose of this research, the study abroad office is defined as the administrative office on campus staffed by a study abroad advisor(s) where students find information and receive advice on study abroad programs, related opportunities, and institutional procedures. The study abroad office may or may not administer and develop programs. If there is more than one office at your institution that fits this description, please provide the name of its director and the address in item 2 of the questionnaire. Do not try to answer questions for the other office(s), as they will be mailed a questionnaire. I am interested in your office and in your opinions.

You may rest assured of complete confidentiality. The use of the numeric identifier on the cover of the survey instrument is to enable me to determine who has returned the information we need so they might be checked off our mailing list. Your name and that of your institution will not be identified in the study. The questionnaire should take approximately twenty minutes to complete.

The results of this study will be made available to the regional newsletter editors of NAFSA: Association of International Educators for inclusion in their publications. Further, I will provide a summary of results on SECUSS-L (the electronic notice board for study abroad professionals).

I would be pleased to answer any questions you might have. Please write or call. The telephone number is (515) 294-6792. Alternatively, I can be reached by e-mail at tnelson@iastate.edu.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA
Telex 283359 IASU UR
Telephone (515) 294-6792
FAX (515) 294-8263
J1.SAC@ISUMVS.IASTATE.EDU

February 6, 1995

«title». «first» «last»
«address»

Dear «title». «last»:

Many thanks for participating in the survey I am conducting on study abroad administration in US colleges and universities. The information you have provided will be very useful. Unfortunately, there is a critical piece of data missing that I really need. I would be very grateful if you could provide me with an answer to the following question:

During the academic year 1993/94, including the summer of 1994, how many students were awarded study abroad credit by your institution (may include students studying toward a degree in other U.S. institutions)?

I know that this information can be difficult to obtain; however, before I can begin to use the data contained in the questionnaire you completed, I do need this information.

If you do not know the exact number, an estimate will be sufficient. I have enclosed an addressed prepaid card for your response.

Once again, I appreciate your interest in this research.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad



IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182

During the academic year 1993/94, including the summer of 1994, how many students were awarded study abroad credit by your institution (may include students studying toward a degree in other U.S. institutions)?

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA
Telex 283359 IASU UR
Telephone (515) 294-6792
FAX (515) 294-8263
J1.SAC@ISUMVS.IASTATE.EDU

March 16, 1995

«title», «first» «last»
«address»

Dear «title», «last»:

Last semester, I mailed you a questionnaire titled Study Abroad Administration in U.S. Colleges and Universities. I am very grateful that you took the time to complete and return the survey. Unfortunately, it appears that as you progressed through the questionnaire a number of pages stuck together. Consequently, there are some questions you missed.

I have attached the unanswered questions to this cover letter and would be very grateful if you would complete them as soon as your professional responsibilities permit. In questions 20 - 22, I would remind you not include yourself and to count only those staff members who have responsibility for study abroad. If in addition to study abroad they have other responsibilities, they should be considered part-time. I would remind you that I am interested in data for only the 1993-94 academic year.

I hope to have completed the research by the beginning of summer. Your speedy response would greatly facilitate the completion of this project by the target date. I have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience.

Thank you for your continued support of this research.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad.

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY
OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

Study Abroad Center
5 Hamilton Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011-1182 USA
Telex 283359 IASU UR
Telephone (515) 294-6792
FAX (515) 294-8263
J1.SAC@ISUMVS.IASTATE.EDU

March 16, 1995

«title». «first» «last»
«address»

Dear «title». «last»:

Last semester, I mailed you a questionnaire titled Study Abroad Administration in U.S. Colleges and Universities. I appreciate you taking the time to complete and return the survey. I am now in the process of coding the responses prior to data entry.

As I coded your returned survey it appears that a couple of pages stuck together as you progressed through the questionnaire. Consequently, there are a number of questions that remain unanswered. I have attached these pages and would be very grateful if you would complete the questions. I would remind you that for questions 37 - 39, I am interested in funds specifically designated for study abroad. I understand in some cases this may represent a portion of a larger budget. If this is your situation, it would be very helpful if you could calculate this amount. Finally, I need this information for the 1993-94 academic year.

I hope to have completed the research by the beginning of summer. Your speedy response would greatly facilitate the completion of this project by the target date. I have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience.

Thank you for your continued support of this research.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad

IOWA STATE UNIVERSITY

OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

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Telephone (515) 294-6792
FAX (515) 294-8263
J1.SAC@ISUMVS.IASTATE.EDU

March 16, 1995

«title». «first» «last»
«address»

Dear «title». «last»:

Last semester, I mailed you a questionnaire titled Study Abroad Administration in U.S. Colleges and Universities. I am very grateful that you took the time to complete and return the survey. I am now in the process of coding the responses prior to data entry.

As I coded your returned survey, the number of staff you indicated were employed in study abroad appeared high in relation to the «number» students you indicated were awarded study abroad credit by «institution». I would be grateful if you would take the time to check your responses to questions 20, 21, and 22. I have enclosed a copy of the relevant section of the original survey you completed. If you need to make any changes please do so on this copy, preferably in a color other than black. Remember, do not include yourself in these responses and count only those staff members who have responsibility for study abroad. If in addition to study abroad they have other responsibilities, they should be considered part-time.

I have also included a copy of your responses to questions 37 - 43 concerning funding sources. Again, I would ask that you only include funds specifically used for study abroad. I understand that in some cases this may represent a portion of the budget indicated in the survey; however, it would be very helpful if you could calculate this amount.

Finally, I would remind you that I am interested in data for the 1993-94 academic year.

I hope to have completed the research by the beginning of summer. Your speedy response would greatly facilitate the completion of this project by the target date. I have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your convenience.

Thank you for your continued support of this research.

Sincerely,

Trevor Nelson
Coordinator of Study Abroad

APPENDIX C

TABLES

Table 41

Views held by Directors of Study Abroad Offices at Private Institutions to the Statement:
Study Abroad Should be an Administrative Unit Within Academic Affairs

	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Strongly Agree	30 ^a 75.00% ^b	31 57.41%	28 75.70%	25 49.02%
Agree Somewhat	5 12.50%	7 12.96%	2 5.40%	15 29.41%
Neutral	1 2.50%	9 16.67%	4 10.80%	8 15.69%
Disagree somewhat	3 7.50%	2 3.70%	2 5.40%	1 1.96%
Disagree Strongly	1 2.50%	3 5.56%	0 0.00%	1 1.96%
No Response	0 0.00%	2 3.70%	1 2.70%	1 1.96%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 42

Views held by Directors of Study Abroad Offices at Public Institutions to the Statement:
Study Abroad Should be an Administrative Unit Within Academic Affairs

	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Strongly Agree	29 ^a 72.50% ^b	27 61.36%	33 76.74%	19 48.71%
Agree Somewhat	6 15.00%	3 6.82%	7 16.28%	7 17.95%
Neutral	4 10.00%	8 18.18%	1 2.33%	4 10.26%
Disagree somewhat	0 0.00%	3 6.82%	0 0.00%	4 10.26%
Disagree Strongly	0 0.00%	3 6.82%	2 4.65%	4 10.26%
No Response	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	1 2.56%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 43

Views held by Directors of Study Abroad Offices at Private Institutions to the Statement: The Various Components that Constitute International Education all Benefit when Administered by a Central Office

	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Strongly Agree	32 ^a	35	22	29
	80.00% ^b	64.81%	59.46%	56.86%
Agree Somewhat	4	14	7	12
	10.00%	25.92%	18.92%	23.53%
Neutral	4	1	4	9
	10.00%	1.85%	10.81%	17.65%
Disagree somewhat	0	2	1	0
	0.00%	3.71%	2.70%	0.00%
Disagree Strongly	0	0	1	0
	0.00%	0.00%	2.70%	0.00%
No Response	0	2	2	1
	<u>0.00%</u>	<u>3.71%</u>	<u>5.41%</u>	<u>1.96%</u>
Total	40	54	37	51
	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 44

Views held by Directors of Study Abroad Offices at Public Institutions to the Statement: The Various Components that Constitute International Education all Benefit when Administered by a Central Office

	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Strongly Agree	29 ^a 72.50% ^b	38 86.36%	34 79.07%	25 64.10%
Agree Somewhat	6 15.00%	4 9.09%	4 9.30%	13 33.33%
Neutral	2 5.00%	2 4.55%	1 2.32%	0 0.00%
Disagree somewhat	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	2 4.65%	0 0.00%
Disagree Strongly	2 5.00%	0 0.00%	1 2.32%	0 0.00%
No Response	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	1 2.32%	1 2.57%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 45

Views held by Directors of Study Abroad Offices at Private Institutions to the Statement: Study Abroad Should be Part of a Centralized Office with Broad Responsibilities for International Education

	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Strongly Agree	30 ^a 75.00% ^b	34 62.96%	21 56.77%	34 66.67%
Agree Somewhat	7 17.50%	13 24.07%	8 21.62%	11 21.57%
Neutral	2 5.00%	5 9.26%	5 13.51%	5 9.80%
Disagree somewhat	0 0.00%	1 1.85%	1 2.70%	0 0.00%
Disagree Strongly	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	1 2.70%	0 0.00%
No Response	1 2.50%	1 1.85%	1 2.70%	1 1.96%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 46

Views held by Directors of Study Abroad Offices at Public Institutions to the Statement: Study Abroad Should be Part of a Centralized Office with Broad Responsibilities for International Education

	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Strongly Agree	30 ^a 75.00% ^b	37 84.09%	33 76.74%	28 71.80%
Agree Somewhat	8 20.00%	6 13.64%	8 18.60%	9 23.08%
Neutral	1 2.50%	1 2.27%	0 0.00%	1 2.56%
Disagree somewhat	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Disagree Strongly	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	1 2.33%	0 0.00%
No Response	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	1 2.33%	1 2.56%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 47

Major in the Highest Degree Earned of Directors of Study Abroad Offices in Private Institutions

Major	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Education	3 ^a 7.50% ^b	9 16.67%	13 35.14%	12 23.53%
Social Sciences	7 17.50%	11 20.37%	9 24.32%	13 25.49%
Humanities	26 65.00%	20 37.04%	13 35.14%	19 37.25%
Sciences	1 2.50%	2 3.70%	0 0.00%	1 1.96%
Engineering	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Agriculture	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Fine Arts	0 0.00%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Family and Consumer Science	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Business	1 2.50%	2 12.96%	0 0.00%	4 7.84%
Other	1 2.50%	7 12.96%	2 5.41%	2 3.92%
No Degree	0 0.00%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
No Response	0 0.00%	1 1.85%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Total	40 100%	54 100%	37 100%	51 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 48

Major in the Highest Degree Earned of Directors of Study Abroad Offices in Public Institutions

Major	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Education	11 ^a 27.50% ^b	15 34.09%	11 25.58%	9 23.08%
Social Sciences	9 22.50%	8 18.18%	11 25.58%	9 23.08%
Humanities	16 40.00%	14 31.82%	14 32.56%	11 28.21%
Sciences	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	1 2.56%
Engineering	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Agriculture	0 0.00%	2 4.55%	1 2.33%	0 0.00%
Fine Arts	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	2 4.65%	0 0.00%
Family and Consumer Science	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%	0 0.00%
Business	1 2.50%	0 0.00%	2 4.64%	4 10.26%
Other	1 2.50%	3 6.82%	0 0.00%	3 7.69%
No Degree	0 0.00%	1 2.27%	1 2.33%	1 2.56%
No Response	0 0.00%	1 2.27%	1 2.33%	1 2.56%
Total	40 100%	44 100%	43 100%	39 100%

Note.

^a Number of respondents in this category

^b Percent of respondents in this column

Table 49

Sources of Income for Operating Budgets of Large Private Institutions

	Large Private					
	Level 1			Level 2		
	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%
Central Funds	6	6	26	2	6	37
Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad	24	7	7	35	7	3
Sale of Travel Items	30	8	0	43	2	0
Grants & Contracts	35	3	0	41	3	1
Gifts	34	4	0	41	4	0
Other	38	0	0	44	1	0

Table 50

Sources of Income for Operating Budgets of Small Private Institutions

	Small Private					
	Level 1			Level 2		
	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%
Central Funds	3	7	25	2	4	30
Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad	25	5	5	28	5	3
Sale of Travel Items	32	3	0	36	0	0
Grants & Contracts	33	2	0	34	3	0
Gifts	34	1	0	34	1	1
Other	35	0	0	35	1	0

Table 51

Sources of Income for Operating Budgets of Large Public Institutions

	Large Public					
	Level 1			Level 2		
	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%
Central Funds	6	18	16	3	7	26
Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad	13	16	11	23	12	1
Sale of Travel Items	27	13	0	32	4	0
Grants & Contracts	29	11	0	30	6	0
Gifts	36	4	0	31	5	0
Other	36	4	0	33	2	1

Table 52

Sources of Income for Operating Budgets of Small Public Institutions

	Small Public					
	Level 1			Level 2		
	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%	0%	≤ 75%	≥ 76%
Central Funds	7	11	20	1	4	30
Fees Assessed Students who Study Abroad	15	15	8	30	5	0
Sale of Travel Items	30	8	0	33	2	0
Grants & Contracts	29	8	1	32	3	0
Gifts	35	3	0	34	1	0
Other	35	2	1	34	1	0

Table 53

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for the Percentage of Enrollment at Private Institutions of Students Earning Study Abroad Credit

	Large Private Study Abroad Success		Small Private Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Mean	7.57	0.74	10.71	1.29
Mode	2.50	0.33	5.07	0.00
SD	8.62	0.55	4.83	1.08
100%	49.70	1.82	24.07	4.51
75%	7.58	1.28	12.90	2.17
50%	4.94	0.60	9.54	1.01
25%	3.23	0.26	7.14	0.37
0%	2.07	0.00	5.07	0.00
N	40.00	54.00	37.00	51.00

Table 54

Averages, Standard Deviations, and Percentiles for the Percentage of Enrollment at Public Institutions of Students Earning Study Abroad Credit

	Large Public Study Abroad Success		Small Public Study Abroad Success	
	Level 1	Level 2	Level 1	Level 2
Mean	1.61	0.31	2.15	0.19
Mode	1.07	0.40	0.50	0.00
SD	0.97	0.20	1.79	0.15
100%	5.63	0.77	9.03	0.46
75%	1.81	0.44	3.39	0.35
50%	1.26	0.35	1.45	0.14
25%	1.06	0.13	0.81	0.05
0%	0.81	0.00	0.50	0.00
N	40.00	44.00	43.00	39.00

VITA

Trevor Nelson was born in Preston, Lancashire, England on April 17, 1954. He attended elementary and secondary schools in that town and graduated from Preston Six Form College in 1972. In 1976, he graduated with a B.Ed. (hons) degree from Lancaster University in Geography and Education. The following year he attended Saginaw Valley State College, Michigan on a scholarship, earning an M.A.T. degree in Secondary Education in 1977.

He returned to Britain where he taught at Thatcham County Primary School in Berkshire. In 1979, he and his American wife returned to Michigan where he held a variety of positions while his wife attended university. In 1981, Nelson and his family moved to Tennessee where he was employed as Assistant to the Dean of Students at Maryville College from 1981-1984. This was followed by a move to Knoxville, Tennessee where Nelson entered a graduate program in College Student Personnel Administration at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. An internship in the fall of 1984 in the International House was quickly followed by an offer of a graduate assistantship. After two terms, Nelson was offered the position of Study Abroad Advisor in the Center for International Education at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, where he worked for the next five years. In August of 1990, Nelson moved to Ames, Iowa as Coordinator of Study Abroad at Iowa State University where he is currently employed.

Nelson is a member of NAFSA: Association of International Educators and served from 1986-88 as the Section on U.S. Students Studying Abroad (SECUSSA), Chair for Region VII. Nelson is also a member of Phi Delta Kappa (professional educators' fraternity) and Phi Beta Delta (an honor society for international scholars).