UNDERSTANDING DIFFERENCES IN STUDY ABROAD ADMINISTRATION

STRUCTURES AND POLICIES

by

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(Under the Direction of Karen Webber)

ABSTRACT

A wide variety of organizational and fiscal structures and policies are utilized in the administration of postsecondary study abroad programs. This study sought to understand the reasons for and effects of these differences. Guided by Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978/2003) resource dependency theory and Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle, three research question were developed. The research questions were: 1) what organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies do senior study abroad professionals perceive to differ across the study abroad programs of colleges and universities?; 2) what factors do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be relevant to decisions regarding organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies for study abroad?; and 3) what do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be the outcome- and process-based effects of organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad? Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 senior study abroad professionals from 12 different institutions. An analysis process that consisted of open and analytic coding of the data resulted in the identification of seven themes related to: 1) different study abroad structures and policies available to international educators and institutional leaders; 2) the ways in which students and institutional

type, leadership, culture, and finances affect study abroad structures and policies; 3) the ways in which study abroad structures and policies affect student and faculty decisions about and opinions toward study abroad; and 4) the idea that there is no single set of best practices for study abroad administration. This study identifies key issues for college and university leaders and study abroad administrators to consider within the context of their own institutions when making decisions about study abroad structures and policies.

INDEX WORDS: Study abroad, education abroad, study abroad administration, study abroad policies, education abroad administration, education abroad policies, internationalization

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DEDICATION

To international educators, in acknowledgement of the important and amazing work that you do.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Increasing study abroad participation rates is an important goal of many colleges and universities in the United States. Study abroad is an activity through which students earn credits toward graduation through international academic experiences (Forum, 2017, p. S). Currently, only approximately 10% of undergraduate students in the U.S. will have studied abroad by the time of degree completion (Institute, 2018). There are a variety of reasons why increasing the number of students who study abroad and the internationalization of higher education more broadly are important. These include promoting students' personal and intercultural development, helping people acquire language skills that are needed for national security purposes, and ensuring that graduates can compete for jobs in a globalized economy (Bu, 1999; Hoffa, 2007; Knight, 2004; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Rhodes, Loberg, & Hubbard, 2014; Stohl, 2007; Twombly, Salisbury, Tumanut, & Klute, 2012).

Although the broad objective to increase study abroad participation is common across many postsecondary institutions, there are a variety of ways in which colleges and universities organize their study abroad activities. Some study abroad offices (SAOs) are funded from central institution budgets, while others are funded by user fees. Additionally, some institutions have one centralized SAO while at others, individual departments, schools, and colleges have their own study abroad offices. The degree of faculty involvement in study abroad activities, policies regarding how and what students are charged to participate in study abroad programs, the ratio of professional SAO staff to students, and the types of study abroad programs offered frequently

differ (Brockington, 2002; Green & Ferguson, 2012; Harari, 1992; Heisel & Kissler, 2010; Heitmann, 2007-2008; Helms & Brajkovic, 2017; Kwai, 2017; Nelson, 1995; Skidmore, Marston, & Olson, 2005; Stohl, 2007; Yao, 2009). Furthermore, there is little research that analyzes the reasons for and effects of these differences and offers guidance to university administrators trying to choose among these options at their particular institutions.

Guided by resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003) and Knight's (1994) internationalization model, this qualitative study sought to understand how, why, and to what effect university administrators select particular organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad. Findings from this study can offer higher education administrators and international educators insights to guide their own study abroad-related administrative decisions within the context of their own institutions.

Statement of the Problem

College and university officials are keen to expand study abroad participation, in part because study abroad has been shown to be beneficial to students in several ways. In terms of academics, for example, study abroad has been found to have a positive effect on graduation rates (O'Rear, Sutton, & Rubin, 2012; Xu, de Silva, Neufeldt, & Dane, 2013). Students who study abroad show greater gains in oral language skills than do students who study a language in the U.S. only (Vande Berg, 2009), and studying abroad renews students' commitment to studying languages and learning about other cultures (Dwyer, 2004). Study abroad has also been shown to improve students' communication competencies (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Orahood, Kruze, & Pearson, 2004; Orahood, Woolf, & Kruze, 2008). Study abroad alumni have a greater understanding of global geography and "global interdependence" than do students who have not studied abroad (Sutton & Rubin, 2004, pp. 73-74).

On a more personal level, Vande Berg (2009) determined that overall, study abroad students showed greater average increases in intercultural development than did control group students who did not go abroad. Similar results using different measures were found by Douglas and Jones-Rikkers (2001); Engberg (2013); Kehl and Morris (2007-2008); and Black and Duhon (2006). In terms of the career effects of study abroad, study abroad has a strong positive impact by increasing students' self-knowledge; helping them to link their values, interests, and abilities to a career; and making them feel more optimistic about career choices (Kronholz & Osborn, 2016). Research also shows that employers appreciate students' study abroad experiences, especially if students can articulate the value of what they learned through their international experience (Harder, Andenoro, Roberts, Stedman, Newberry, Parker, & Rodriguez, 2015; Trooboff, Vande Berg, & Rayman, 2007-2008).

Considerably less research has been done on organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad. Two key studies are those by Nelson (1995) and Yao (2009). Through large-scale surveys, both found positive relationships between a higher number of study abroad programs offered and numbers of students participating in study abroad. Yao (2009) determined that higher SAO staffing levels were associated with increased study abroad participation by students. Also, although Nelson (1995) found that at public universities, locating the SAO under academic affairs rather than elsewhere in the organizational structure was associated with higher study abroad participation levels, he also found that a centralized administrative structure for international operations had no effect on study abroad participation rates. However, in recent years, a centralized structure for study abroad operations has become common, perhaps because of the wide range of academic, student life, and risk management responsibilities associated with administrating study abroad programs (Goode, 2007-2008;

Helms & Brajkovic, 2017; Kwai, 2017; Rhodes et al., 2014). Nelson (1995) showed that the use

of student fees rather than central funds to administer the SAO positively affected levels of study

abroad participation at public postsecondary institutions while Yao (2009) also found a positive

association between higher levels of study abroad participation and greater financial resources

for the SAO. While extremely informative, these studies largely focused on fairly narrow

outcomes related to study abroad participation, leaving a gap in our understanding of the reasons

for and broader effects of different study abroad-related structures and polices.

To summarize, although study abroad has been shown to be beneficial to students in

many respects, the literature does not offer a clear explanation of the reasoning behind the

selection of specific organizational, administrative, and fiscal study abroad-related policies and

practices, nor does it explore what the broad effects of those choices are. Rather, it focuses on

student participation as an outcome (Nelson, 1995; Yao, 2009); examines the current state of the

field of international education or explains different options for study abroad structures and

policies (Brockington, 2002; Helms & Brajkovic, 2017; Heisel & Kissler, 2010; Kwai, 2017;

Rhodes et al., 2014); or advocates for specific strategies (Harari, 1992; Heitmann, 2007-2008;

Skidmore et al., 2005). Additional research on organizational, administrative, and fiscal policies

related to study abroad is important to help college and university officials achieve institutional

goals of encouraging more students to study abroad and thus contribute to broader goals of

increased internationalization in higher education.

Theoretical Framework and Methods Overview

Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978/2003) resource dependency theory offers a possible

explanation for the persistence of divergent institutional structures and policies and leads to the

conclusion that there are no one-size-fits-all answers. Resource dependency theory explains that

organizational leaders perceive and understand their environments in different ways; from this follows their understanding of the dependencies they face, and their choices about how to deal with those dependencies in order to ensure the endurance of the organization (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003). Furthermore, how college and university administrators perceive their environments and dependencies may be affected by where their institutions are in Knight's (1994) model of a six-stage internationalization cycle. The steps are: awareness; commitment; planning; operationalization; review; and reinforcement (Knight, 1994, p. 12). Although these stages are sequential, it is also possible to move in both directions; in other words, internationalization, or "*the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education*" (Knight, 2003, p. 2), is not a one-time, linear process (Knight, 1994). Internationalization is a complex endeavor, and it is understandable that different institutions choose to implement an important aspect of it – study abroad for students – in different ways.

The purpose of this study was to understand perspectives from seasoned professionals on why colleges and universities have different organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad and what the effects of those structures and policies are for those institutions and for students. Using a qualitative research design, semi-structured interviews were conducted with SAO directors to examine their expert insights into these topics, considering the field of study abroad as a whole and not just their current institutions. Through purposeful and snowball sampling, the participants were selected on the basis of their experience as leaders in study abroad administration at individual institutions and in the field of international education broadly. Data were analyzed through open and analytic coding to identify overarching themes.

Research Questions

Three primary research questions guided this study.

Research Question #1 – What organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies do senior study abroad professionals perceive to differ across the study abroad programs of colleges and universities?

Research Question #2 – What factors do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be relevant to decisions regarding organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies for study abroad?

Research Question #3 – What do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be the outcome- and process-based effects of organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad?

Significance of the Study

This study contributes to the literature by broadly identifying themes that explain different choices in postsecondary study abroad-related structures and policies and by identifying themes that explore the perceived effects of those choices. A better understanding of institutional policies and organizational structures related to study abroad can help ensure that colleges and universities remain relevant for today's knowledge needs and that they are able to assist students competing for employment that requires global skills. Taking into account the specific contexts of their own institutions, higher education officials who read this study will be able to parse both the general themes and the specific results to find ideas that can guide their considerations of their own study abroad structures and policies.

As college and university officials across the United States seek to encourage increased student participation in study abroad opportunities, it is tempting to look for a formula for

success that can be applied broadly to a wide range of higher education institutions. Resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003) and Knight's (1994) internationalization model, however, acknowledge that institutions exist in different environments, perceive and react to different vulnerabilities, and are at different stages of the internationalization process. Tenets from Pfeffer & Salancik's (1978/2003) theory on resource dependency and Knight's (1994) model argue that there can be no single set of best practices for study abroad organization and administration.

It is arguable that for study abroad to be a deep learning experience, students have to be open to learning about new ideas and cultures and to seeing their own culture in a different light. The prescriptive part of that statement comes in a need for openness, not in a need for students to come to any particular conclusions. Consider students from the U.S., where punctuality is a dominant value, studying abroad in culture that, broadly speaking, perceives time through the mediating lens of personal relationships. For every student who comes to believe that it is better to be late than to cut off a discussion with a friend, there will be others who conclude that it is more impolite to be late than it is to wrap up a conversation quickly. The point is not the outcome; the point is that students learned that different points of view exist, weighed the options and their underlying values, and actively came to their own conclusions. In the same way, the point of this qualitative study was not to contribute to the literature by creating a roadmap for study abroad administration. Rather, by understanding expert assessments of how and why institutions come to have certain study abroad-related organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies and by understanding what experts perceive to be the effects of those structures and policies, this study contributes by outlining important considerations for study

abroad administrators and for college and university leaders who are engaged in shaping study

abroad at their institutions.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This literature review is organized into several sections. The first two sections provide a few key definitions and introduce the concept of internationalization, then provide a brief overview of the history of study abroad and of its current state. The next two sections explore universities' institutional characteristics and administrative structures and their impact on study abroad participation levels and on internationalization more broadly and give examples of differences in study abroad structures and policies. The final sections examine students' personal characteristics and their effect on the likelihood of studying abroad and consider the effects of study abroad on students, particularly in the realms of academic development, intercultural and personal development, and career development (Twombly et al., 2012, p. 68). Following the literature review, the theoretical framework of this study is discussed.

Definitions

According to The Forum on Education Abroad (2017), study abroad is:

A subtype of Education Abroad that results in progress toward an academic degree at a student's home institution. . . . This meaning, which has become standard among international educators in the U.S., excludes the pursuit of a full academic degree at a foreign institution. (p. S)

The broader concept of education abroad, in contrast, is defined as, "education that occurs outside the participant's home country. Besides study abroad, examples include such international experiences as work, volunteer activities, non-credit internships, and directed travel,

as long as these programs are driven to a significant degree by learning goals" (Forum, 2017, p. E). However, the focus of this study is on for-credit, study abroad experiences that can be included in a student's academic program.

Study abroad, however, is just one element of the broader concept of campus-wide internationalization. Knight (2003) suggested the following definition of internationalization: "*Internationalization at the national, sector, and institutional levels is defined as the process of integrating an international, intercultural, or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of postsecondary education*" (p. 2). Knight (2004) further noted that it can be useful to consider internationalization through the lenses of "policies, programs, and strategies," as well as in terms of the justifications given for internationalization activities (p. 13). Alternatively, the American Council on Education's (ACE) Center for Internationalization and Global Engagement called:

> "**comprehensive internationalization**" . . . "a strategic, coordinated process that seeks to align and integrate international policies, programs, and initiatives, and positions colleges and universities as more globally oriented and internationally connected institutions." This process requires a clear commitment by top-level institutional leaders, meaningfully impacts the curriculum and a broad range of stakeholders, and results in deep and ongoing incorporation of international perspectives and activities throughout the institution. (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 1, emphasis in the original)

Multiple rationales explain why the broad internationalization of higher education and the narrower aim of increasing study abroad participation have been and are considered to be important. These include promoting students' personal and intercultural development, issues related to soft diplomacy and the language and intercultural skills needed for national security,

and ensuring that graduates have the skills needed for a globalized economy (Bu, 1999; Hoffa, 2007; Knight, 2004; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Rhodes et al., 2014; Stohl, 2007; Twombly et al., 2012). Twombly et al. (2012) argued that "competitiveness in a global market" (p. 23) is currently a major justification for study abroad in particular; Stohl (2007), though, framed economic competitiveness as a new definition of national security, rather than as a total shift in emphasis. Knight (2004) emphasized the importance of newer forces driving internationalization at universities, namely creating and strengthening international reputations, raising revenue, developing the skills and knowledge of students and employees, building strategic coalitions and networks, and research and problem-solving (pp. 25-28).

Current motivations for internationalization among high level university administrators are explored in ACE's *Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses* survey. "Conducted every five years, it assesses the current state of internationalization at American colleges and universities, analyzes progress and trends over time, and identifies future priorities" (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 1). According to results from ACE's 2016 edition of the survey, preparing students for a globalized world was the most prominent reason given by respondents for internationalization. To that end, raising study abroad participation rates among U.S. students and increasing the number of international students on campus were the first and second priorities for internationalization activities on respondents' campuses (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 5).

In addition to understanding the broad concept of internationalization, it is also important to understand what is meant by the concepts of intercultural and cross-cultural development, which are also commonly stated goals for internationalization and study abroad. According to The Forum on Education Abroad (2017), the word intercultural refers to "the dynamics involved

when people with different lived experiences (cultures) interact. . . . Although in everyday use 'intercultural' is often treated as a synonym for Cross-Cultural, this is not entirely accurate" (p. I). According to Bennett (2010), cross-cultural would be used "to refer to a comparison among cultural contexts" while intercultural, especially is a communication context, "is more likely to focus on the interaction between members of different cultural groups" (pp. 420-421). According to Deardorff's (2004, 2006) research, among intercultural scholars the most prominent definition of intercultural competence to emerge from a Delphi study was "'the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes'" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 184).

History and Current State of Study Abroad

Twombly et al. (2012) provided a concise summary of the history of study abroad. According to Bowman (as cited in Twombly et al., 2012, p. 15), study abroad, in the sense of what today would be called faculty-led programs, began in the late 1800s when faculty members from eastern colleges led young women to Europe to visit cultural institutions such as museums. The trips also focused on the development of language skills and meeting new people. Out of this tradition came additional opportunities, again mainly for women, for junior years abroad and additional study programs led by faculty in the years following World War I (Hoffa, 2007; Twombly et al., 2012, p. 15). Colleges and universities also started to build short-term programs linked to particular majors during this time period. Study abroad became more feasible at this time because a curriculum that allowed for electives had firmly taken root; the credit system had also taken hold, which gave colleges and universities a mechanism for recognizing off-campus academic pursuits (Hoffa, 2007; Lucas as cited in Twombly et al., 2012). After World War II, study abroad participation grew, aided by a rise in federal government funding and programming

that was motivated both by national security concerns and by recognition of the widespread damage the war had caused (Bu, 1999; Twombly et al., 2012, pp. 15-16). The Higher Education Assistance Act of 1965 permitted colleges and universities to empower students to study abroad using financial aid from the federal government (Hoffa, 2007; Twombly et al., 2012, p. 20).

In more recent years, even more emphasis has been placed on the importance of study abroad:

> The entire U.S. higher education enterprise, from community colleges to umbrella associations such as the American Association of Colleges and Universities, as well as the federal government and the business community, have promoted and encouraged study abroad as a means for colleges and universities to graduate students who are interculturally competent. (Twombly et al., 2012, p. 1)

"Diversity/global learning" (Kuh, 2008, p. 10), which often includes experiential study abroad activities, is considered to be a "high-impact educational practice," associated with increased "rates of student retention and student engagement" by the American Association of Colleges and Universities (Kuh, 2008, p. 9). More specifically, study abroad has been shown to have positive effects on "learning and personal development outcomes" for students and to engage them in "deep-level processing" (Kuh, 2008, pp. 14-15). The effectiveness of high-impact activities is thought to stem from, among other things, the time commitment involved, the intensive collaboration between students and between students and faculty, and the opportunities students have to navigate ambiguous situations and to engage with people who are different than they are (Kuh, 2008, pp. 14-15).

Even so, currently only approximately 10% of undergraduate students in the U.S. will have studied abroad by graduation (Institute, 2018). However, among the more than 1,000

respondents to ACE's 2016 *Mapping* survey, almost 75% of respondents' institutions increased or held constant their study abroad numbers over the past three years (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 30). Additionally, over 70% of respondents indicated that the pace of internationalization at their institutions had increased in recent years, up from more than 60% in 2011. Almost 30% of respondents reported high or very high levels of internationalization, compared to just over 20% from the prior survey (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 5).

A wide variety of experiences fall under the umbrella category of study abroad. These include faculty-led programs, which are often short-term and which may offer little or no involvement with host country nationals; exchange programs in which a student is enrolled for a semester or two at a partner university with local students; and provider programs, in which a third-party provider or consortium arranges the study abroad program, often involving students from multiple institutions. Engle and Engle (2003) noted this extensive range of program types and proposed a hierarchical system for classifying programs according to criteria such as housing arrangements and language of instruction, arguing that this would be helpful to students and advisors in terms of matching students to programs that meet their goals and academic preparedness.

McLeod and Wainwright (2009) agreed that helping students identify appropriate programs is important. However, using social learning theory as a guide, they focused on the concept of "locus of control, which refers to the extent to which people see a connection between what they do and what happens to them" (McLeod & Wainwright, 2009, p. 67). Their research suggested that a student with an external locus of control, who tends to focus on the effects of outside forces more than his or her personal efficacy, would do better in a highly coordinated program while a student with an internal locus of control, who has more confidence in his or her

ability to affect outcomes, may thrive in a less structured program (McLeod & Wainwright, 2009, p. 69). Therefore, even if it can sometimes be challenging for students, faculty, and advisors to navigate the plethora of study abroad program types, having a wide range of options does help to meet students' varying academic and personal needs.

Institutional Characteristics and Study Abroad

Just as there is a good deal of variation in study abroad experiences, there are many differences in institutions' structures and policies related to study abroad. Areas of interest include number and types of programs offered, how and to what extent the SAO is funded, how students are charged when they participate in study abroad, SAO staffing, degrees of administrative centralization and reporting lines, faculty involvement in study abroad, and the presence or absence of study abroad and internationalization in institutions' mission statements and strategic plans. However, there is fairly minimal research available regarding organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad. Much of what does exist attempts to identify universal or at least broad best practices or to assess the current state of the field.

Two key studies involving study abroad structures and policies and study abroad outcomes are those by Nelson (1995) and Yao (2009). In a survey to 661 four-year NAFSA Association of International Educators-member colleges and universities which received a 52.6% valid response rate, Nelson (1995) found a significant relationship between large public and private universities offering a greater number of study abroad programs and a higher number of students participating in study abroad. Relatedly, in a survey focused on 258 research universities with a 40.4% valid response rate, Yao (2009) demonstrated a relationship between number of study abroad programs and more substantial student participation in study abroad.

Whatley (2019, p. 99) determined that when colleges and universities have higher income from fees and tuition and when they have greater spending on services for students, study abroad participation rates tend to increase. Nelson (1995) found that the use of student fees and other sources of income, rather than central funds, to fund SAO operations positively affected levels of study abroad participation at public colleges and universities. Without specifying funding sources, Yao (2009) showed a positive association between higher levels of study abroad participation and greater financial resources for the SAO. With a particular focus on liberal arts institutions, Brockington (2002) provided context by describing the three main methods of funding SAOs. In one model, the SAO's budget comes entirely from the university's budgetary accounts. This model provides a measure of financial stability and has the advantage of handling "the international office and especially the education abroad programs like any other academic or administrative units on campus" (Brockington, 2002, p. 289). However, the disadvantage is that the SAO may be an attractive target for budget cuts in tight financial times. This is because the SAO can generate its own revenue, as is shown by the other two funding models that Brockington (2002) described. In one scenario, the SAO's administrative budget (including staff salaries) is covered through a general fund, while programming expenses are paid for by a student use fee charged to study abroad participants. Taking that a step further, the third funding model is an SAO funded entirely by student use fees in a "cost-recovery model" (p. 289). This has the advantage of flexibility, but the disadvantage of unreliability. In any cases where the SAO is funded in part or entirely by student fees, it is important that the SAO maintains a healthy reserve fund, both to handle revenue fluctuations and in case of the need to respond to an emergency situation (Brockington, 2002, pp. 289-290). Harari (1992) also noted the importance

of revenue-generation by central international offices but stressed that this must be done in an ethical manner (p. 72).

In Nelson's (1995) study, almost 70% of respondents reported that their non-salary-related study abroad office funding came primarily (76-100%) from a central source (p. 133). However, Green and Ferguson (2012) commented that following the Great Recession of 2007-2009, many international offices came under new or additional pressure to become at least partially self-supporting by, for example, raising fees for study abroad and international students or conducting ESL classes. In Yao's (2009) study, student fees comprised more than 50% of study abroad office budgets (p. 92). "Financial resources" were mentioned as their primary challenge and focus by the majority of respondents to the Association of International Education Administrators' (AIEA) survey of Senior International Officers, or SIOs (Kwai, 2017, p. 4). In spite of this, the ACE *Mapping* survey showed that internal internationalization funding increased or remained constant at more than 70% of institutions during the last three years; increases in funding were seen by master's and doctoral institutions more so than institutions in other sectors. Fundraising is also an increasingly important part of internationalization; about 20% of institutions have a strategy or campaign in place, and more respondents indicated they received outside financial support than in prior surveys. Additionally, raising revenue has gone from sixth place to fourth place on a list of institutions' rationales for internationalization (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 5). According to the *Mapping* survey, over half of institutions use their own institutional monies for education abroad scholarships; many allow financial aid from the college or university to be used for study abroad, especially for programs led by their own faculty (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 31).

Furthering the discussion about how institutional policies affect how students pay for study abroad, Heitmann (2007-2008) outlined several different options:

At many colleges, students participating in any study abroad program retain their status as full-time students and pay regular tuition fees. At other institutions, students study abroad while on official leave of absence. Typically, students pay host institution fees, but the home institution or provider may also impose a processing fee. At other institutions, students retain their home institution enrollment status, but are charged host institution fees, often with a processing fee added. These various program arrangements should not be viewed as exclusive, and at some colleges, program fees and the enrollment status of the student depend upon the specific program chosen. (p. 57)

Heisel and Kissler (2010) discussed one of these alternative models, giving the University of Minnesota as an example. The payment model there is referred to as "Advising, Placement, Academic, and Administrative Costs" (APAAC); the APAAC fee is charged to study abroad students in lieu of tuition (p. 22). A benefit of linking program costs to student charges is that "this structure widens the range of program costs and increases student choices among alternative program options that may differ markedly in price" (p. 23). However, Heitmann (2007-2008) argued that study abroad should be considered an academic activity like any other, and therefore participating students should pay regular tuition, just like they would for any other class (pp. 59-60). He also stressed that by sending students abroad, especially on non-faculty-led programs, universities are outsourcing cost-intensive items such as instruction and housing (pp. 62-63).

It is also important to consider how and to what extent universities allocate personnel to support study abroad programming. Yao (2009) determined that higher SAO staffing levels were

associated with increased study abroad participation by students and increased international activity by faculty. This conclusion may be explained by a statement from Rhodes et al. (2014), who noted, "in many ways, study abroad administrators are running a university in miniature, on the home campus and in many countries around the world" (p. 9). SAO staff responsibilities often encompass a wide range of knowledge areas, including marketing, academic advising, Registrar policies, risk management, and student affairs. Speaking more broadly of internationalization, Harari (1992) concurred, stating that a central international office, "must strive to provide leadership from the side while providing an endless diversity of routine administrative services which are most visible at the center" (p. 71). The impact and importance of having a well-staffed and involved SAO is emphasized in Goode's (2007-2008) study of faculty who direct study abroad programs at a 2,000-student liberal arts institution. Goode (2007-2008) determined that faculty saw four main dimensions to their study abroad director roles: dean of students-type responsibilities, logistical responsibilities, developing intercultural competencies, and academics. The faculty were fairly accustomed to the latter component, but time and energy spent on the unfamiliar dean of students and logistical roles took away from their ability to focus on the intercultural component, which is key to a meaningful study abroad experience (Goode, 2007-2008, pp. 165-166). More SAO office staff who can assist with these matters may leave faculty more time to focus on intercultural and academic matters.

Although Nelson (1995) found that at public colleges and universities, the location of the study abroad office within the academic affairs portion of the administrative hierarchy was both very common and was associated with higher study abroad participation levels, he also determined that having a centralized administrative structure for study abroad programming did not affect study abroad participation levels, either positively or negatively. This latter point is

likely due to the fact that there are trade-offs to both centralization and decentralization, and much depends on institutional culture and size. As Brockington (2002) stated:

> If an institution chooses a more centralized model, then that office will have to devote considerable energy and staff time to ensuring that the faculty are connected to the international programs run out of that office. If, on the other hand, a more decentralized model is desired, then the institution and the departments must see to it that the international programs do not become personal fiefdoms of individual faculty members or departments, if the entire institution is to benefit from these programs and relationships. (p. 285)

ACE's *Mapping* survey found that over 55% of responding institutions reported that one office leads internationalization on their campuses; this was particularly likely to be the case at master's degree institutions. The overall percentage of respondents reporting a centralized structure increased by 22% overall since 2011, and by over 30% at doctoral institutions (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 12). It is also significantly higher than was the case when Nelson (1995) conducted his research; only about 20% of his respondents reported such a structure, although more than 90% of them believed it would be beneficial both for study abroad and for international education more broadly (pp. 112-113). According to the preliminary analysis of the SIO survey conducted by the AIEA, 61% of 198 valid responses indicated an internationalization structure that was centralized (Kwai, 2017, p. 2). This trend is in line with Harari (1992, p. 71), who advocated for the creation of a central office in change of international education and international programs, seeing it as a critical driver of institution-wide internationalization, and is a change since 2002, when Brockington noted there was less consensus about a centralized or

decentralized international programming structure at universities that are smaller in size and at liberal arts institutions (p. 284).

Brockington (2002) also stated that:

In many respects, the underlying difference between the centralized and the decentralized models of international programs administration is really more philosophical than administrative. At issue is . . . who owns and who should be the primary beneficiary of an institution's international programs and relationships as well as who has the primary responsibility for maintaining those programs and relationships. (p. 284)

In a more centralized model, there is more bureaucracy and a greater distance from faculty control and their oversight of curricular matters; "ownership and benefits accrue first to the institution as a whole and then through the institution to various departments and finally to individual faculty and students" (Brockington, 2002, p. 284). In a decentralized model, faculty are at the starting point of internationalization activities; there is no general, institution-wide strategy or, necessarily, concern for the university as a whole. Risk management and quality control can become issues (Brockington, 2002, p. 285).

In a case study of internationalization at Drake University, Skidmore et al. (2005) concluded that effective, comprehensive internationalization requires a combination of mission- and goal-setting and resource provision by senior leadership, along with buy-in and participation by "change agents seeded in strategic positions across the institution" (p. 191). Speaking of high-level leaders and their support of international education, Harari (1992) described the importance of their ability to set priorities, both explicitly and implicitly, such as by attending on-campus events with an international focus (p. 72). ACE's *Mapping* survey notes that the institution's president is seen as the most important driver of internationalization, although chief international

officers' roles are growing and are seen as most important at doctoral institutions. Fifty-three percent of institutions have someone in a chief international role; almost 50% report to the provost or similar (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 12). Green and Ferguson (2012) stated that the more entrenched internationalization becomes in an institution, the more likely it is that chief international officers, who are often faculty member, take on increasingly prominent roles, often reporting to the president and/or provost. In the AIEA SIO survey, respondents most frequently indicated that they reported to the provost or equivalent (Kwai, 2017, p. 2). However, Nelson (1995) found that the academic attainment level of the SAO director and whether the SAO director was a member of the faculty had no effect on study abroad participation levels; the majority of study abroad office directors in his survey were not members of the faculty (p. 119).

Harari (1992) believed that while it is ideal to have as many faculty as possible committed to and participating in internationalization activities, "a critical mass of fifteen percent of the faculty is sufficient to carry forward the movement to internationalize an institution" (p. 69). He also stated that, "the key to change is the faculty, but the support of the administration is essential" (p. 69). For example, senior administrators may be key to ensuring that faculty participation in international activities, such as teaching abroad, is seen as a positive rather than a negative during the tenure and promotion process. Stohl (2007), however, noted that this requires not only top-down support, but also widespread buy-in among the faculty about the value of international activities. Interestingly, the ACE *Mapping* survey found that only about 10% of respondents' institutions took international activity into account with tenure and promotion decisions (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 21).

The importance of widespread faculty belief in the value of study abroad is explained by Kuh (2008), who found that "an increase of one category in the average importance faculty place

on the activity – from somewhat important to important or from important to very important –

corresponds to about a 20% increase in student participation" (p. 21). With a focus on an

"infusion" approach to internationalization, Skidmore et al. (2005, p. 189) asserted that in order

for it to be successful, internationalization must be instilled into the culture of an institution,

becoming everyone's responsibility. Lessons can perhaps be drawn from the literature on service

learning, which shows that "many non-service-learning faculty will not use service-learning

without logistical support, evidence that it improves the academic outcomes of the course, and

instruction in how to effectively use service-learning" (Abes, Jackson, & Jones, 2002, p. 14). The

same elements may be needed for large-scale faculty buy-in to the benefits of study abroad and

internationalization.

Helms and Brajkovic (2017) stated that, "more institutions are implementing policies,

procedures, and planning processes to guide internationalization efforts" (p. 6). In the AIEA SIO

survey, the institutional mission statements of 24% of respondents prioritized

internationalization, and an additional 31% of respondents were from institutions that referred to

internationalization in their mission statements (Kwai, 2017, p. 2). Forty-seven percent of

respondents reported both the presence of and a focus on internationalization in their institutions'

strategic plans (Kwai, 2017). According to the ACE *Mapping* survey, internationalization was

mentioned in about half of respondents' mission statements (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 8).

Childress (2009) studied internationalization plans through document examination and

semi-structured interviews with administrators from 31 institutions that are members of AIEA.

She focused on the notion that comprehensive internationalization requires faculty, staff, and

students at universities to move their viewpoint from the local to the global. Childress (2009) and

Knight (1994) identified having a detailed internationalization plan as a key component of

successful internationalization, as these plans have a role in "expressing institutional commitment, defining institutional goals, informing stakeholders' participation, as well as informing and stimulating stakeholder involvement in internationalization initiatives" (Childress, 2009, p. 291). Seventy-one percent of the institutions Childress (2009) studied had internationalization plans. She identified three main types of internationalization plans and their prevalence among the institutions being studied: institutional strategic plans (61%); distinct documents (32%); and unit level plans (19%) (p. 296). She concluded that, "institutions' leadership, organizational structure, funding, and priorities affected decision about whether and how to develop internationalization plans" (Childress, 2009, p. 295). Twenty-seven percent of the institutions in the ACE *Mapping* survey had specific strategic plans for internationalization; this was the case at more than 40% of doctoral institutions. Many more institutions had task forces for internationalization; however, both the strategic plan and task force numbers had decreased since 2011 across most sectors (Helms & Brajkovic, 2017, p. 8).

Examples of Study Abroad Policies and Structures

The notion that there is a good deal of variation in postsecondary institutions' study-abroad related structures and policies motivates this study. The literature reviewed in the prior section elucidated many of these differences. This section is intended to demonstrate how those differences take shape at two universities with high study abroad participation rates. The University of San Diego (USD) had the highest undergraduate study abroad participation rate among doctoral institutions in 2016-2017, with 76.9% of its students participating in a study abroad program (Institute, 2019). USD is a private, Catholic university with slightly more than 9,000 total students (USD, Facts, 2019). For undergraduate study abroad, USD has a centralized International Center that manages study abroad operations; at the graduate level, there are some

operations in individual academic units (USD, International, 2019). For semester-long programs, USD offers exchange programs, affiliated direct enroll and third-party programs, double degree programs, and classes at their center in Madrid (which is also open to non-USD students). They also offer summer programs, programs that take place between semesters, and programs that are part of the Second Year Experience Abroad – a cohort based, application-required international experience. For exchange and affiliated semester-long programs, USD maintains lists of courses from abroad that have already been approved for USD credits. Courses that have not been pre-approved can still be reviewed to determine how they should be counted. Students earn letter grades on these semester-long programs. Classes on summer and intersession programs are taught by USD faculty, and students again receive USD credits and grades. Students participating in non-affiliated programs can receive credit toward their degrees if they follow appropriate procedures and are approved, but it will be transfer credits, grades will not be awarded, and USD financial aid cannot be used (USD, Study, 2019).

When studying abroad on USD programs, students are charged a minimal application fee that is non-refundable. During short-term programs, which take place during the summer or during an intersession, students pay $700 per credit in tuition, while during the semester they pay the regular semester tuition rate. Students may also be charged a program fee that is specific to the program that they choose, or they may need to budget separately to pay for room and board and other expenses (USD, Study, 2019). Students may use University of San Diego scholarships and grants, and grants from the state of California, to pay for affiliated and exchange semester-long study abroad programs for one semester, although they cannot use these funds to pay for room and board expenses (California Student, n.d; USD, Study, 2019; USD Office, 2018/2019). If they wish to study abroad for a second semester, students can only use institutional financial

aid if they go on an exchange program; generally, federal and state aid can be used for more than one semester on any type of program. In the summer, only loans and some International Center need-based scholarships are available (USD, Study, 2019; USD Office, 2018/2019).

Some similar and some contrasting policies and structures can be seen at the College of William and Mary (W&M), which has close to 9,000 total students and a 2016-17 undergraduate study abroad participation rate of 53.6%, giving it the highest participation rate among public doctoral institutions (Institute, 2019; W&M, Glance, 2019). William and Mary's undergraduate study abroad operations are primarily centralized in a Global Education Office (W&M, Global reach, 2019). William and Mary offers summer and winter study abroad programs with classes taught by W&M faculty or professors from institutional partners. W&M also offers sponsored semester-long programs in Argentina, England, France, and Spain. Additionally, W&M has semester-long exchange programs, and students can also enroll in outside semester-long programs, some of which are considered to be affiliate programs. For outside programs, students apply directly to the program but register with the Global Education Office. Students receive W&M credits and grades when they participate in most summer and winter programs, and in the Argentina and Spain sponsored semester-long programs. For all other programs, students receive transfer credits and grades are not counted (W&M, Global education, 2019). W&M also has a joint degree program with the University of St. Andrews, Scotland (W&M, Joint, 2019).

For summer and winter programs, students pay a minimal application fee and a program fee which includes the costs of credits earned. For exchange programs, students pay their regular W&M tuition plus a $375 study abroad fee and an international insurance fee. All students, regardless of residency status, pay the same program fee to participate in the sponsored programs in Argentina, England, and Spain. For one semester-long programs, students have the option to

pay their regular William and Mary tuition or to pay tuition to the host institution directly; the latter option is generally better for out-of-state students and the former option is generally better for in-state students programs (W&M, Global education, 2019; W&M, Global education, n.d.). Finally, for outside programs, student pay the program provider directly and also pay a $375 fee and an international insurance fee to the Global Education Office. Assuming that proper paperwork is completed, all financial aid, including grants and loans, is generally available for use on semester-long sponsored, exchange, and outside programs; loans can be used during the summer on all program types (W&M, Global education, 2019).

These brief descriptions of the University of San Diego's and the College of William and Mary's study abroad programs summarize how the two institutions are similar and how they are different. Both offer a range of program types to their students, and both centralize study abroad operations at the undergraduate level. However, William and Mary has more variation in program costs than the University of San Diego does, and has fewer restrictions regarding financial aid. The University of San Diego, though, offers institutional credit and grades for more programs than is the case at the College of William and Mary. Even among two leading institutions, there is variation in how study abroad is structured and administered.

Student Characteristics and Study Abroad

When considering fiscal and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad administration, it is also important to consider that student participation in study abroad depends on a variety of factors. By better understanding the underlying student characteristics that are associated with inclination to study abroad and applying it to the context of their own institutions, college and university leaders may be better able to adopt strategies that help to address discrepancies in study abroad participation rates among different groups of students.

Several studies address student affinity for participating in study abroad. For example, using an "integrated model of college choice" (p. 119) and data from the Wabash National Study of Liberal Arts Education, Salisbury, Umbach, Paulsen, and Pascarella (2009) found that students from higher income backgrounds are more likely to intend to study abroad than are students from lower income family backgrounds, identified by federal financial aid eligibility (p. 133). Additionally, "with every standard deviation increase in average parental education, the likelihood of planning to study abroad increases approximately 5 percentage points" (Salisbury et al., 2009, p. 133). Using the same data set and theory to examine intent to study abroad among white and non-white students, Salisbury, Paulsen, and Pascarella (2011) found several significant differences, including the fact that having a goal to attend graduate school was associated with reduced intent to study abroad among white and especially African-American students, but was associated with a much higher intent to study abroad among Asian-American students (p. 139).

Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2015) examined characteristics that predicted participation in study abroad programs, using data from the "Cooperative Institutional Research Program" (CIRP) (p. 31) survey given to incoming undergraduate students and a survey given to students prior to graduation at a single, selective university (p. 34). They found that entering college with the intention to study abroad was associated with actually studying abroad. At the beginning of their collegiate experience, women were more likely than men to have a strong intent to study abroad and Asian-American students demonstrated less intent than did students from other populations (Luo and Jamieson-Drake, 2015, p. 40). Other interesting, but not necessarily instructive, findings were that engineering majors and students majoring in the hard sciences at this institution showed lower intent to study abroad than did humanities majors; planning to engage in graduate study, artistic talent, and certain measures of social engagement correlated

with a stronger intent to study abroad. A high level of math proficiency and the desire to foster understanding across cultures and races were linked to lower study abroad intent (Luo and Jamieson-Drake, 2015, p. 40).

Using just the CIRP survey and with incoming students at the University of Massachusetts, Amherst in 2007-2008 as her sample, Stroud (2010) found that women were more likely than men to plan to study abroad (p. 500). She also found that students whose permanent homes were more than 100 miles from Amherst had a greater likelihood of intending to study abroad than students from the local area, and speculated that this showed "that a number of factors that facilitate a student to attend college further from home would also facilitate study abroad" (p. 502). However, planning to go to graduate school, to major in engineering or a professional subject, or living with a family member were associated with being less likely to intend to study abroad. In contrast to Salisbury et al. (2009) and other studies, Stroud (2010) found that parental income and education did not affect intention to study abroad; however, at least in terms of family income, it is possible that the survey respondents did not answer accurately (Stroud, 2010, p. 503). This study did not examine if intentions ultimately became actions.

Li, Olson, and Frieze (2013) studied more than 400 students in an introductory psychology class who had a strong inclination for or against studying abroad. Controlling for gender (since more women than men study abroad), the authors found that students who had altruistic goals, students who liked and were open to new experiences, and students who liked to be mobile were more likely to be interested or very interested in study abroad (Li et al., 2013, p. 80). Whatley (2019) studied institutional characteristics and their effects on students' study abroad participation. Within the state of Georgia, being enrolled in a research university was

found to negatively affect a student's likelihood of studying abroad, which Whatley (2019) speculated could be due to the varying prevalence of different majors at different types of institutions. Attendance at a research university in Georgia was also associated with participation in lengthier programs abroad, and with studying abroad in Africa, Asia, the Middle East, the Pacific, or in more than one country. Students at other institutional types were more likely to study abroad on short-term programs and in the Caribbean or Latin America (Whatley, 2019, pp. 145-146). Whatley (2019) also found lower study abroad participation among students attending institutions that accept a lower percentage of their applicants (p. 100).

Effects of Study Abroad on Students

There is extensive research that examines how study abroad affects students. This literature is important to include because it establishes why study abroad is an important subject to study. However, one important thing to note is that there are common limitations to much of the research about study abroad and its impact on students. One of these is the fact that except in cases where study abroad is mandated by a university or a course of study, students choose to participate in study abroad programs. A few studies attempt to control for self-selection bias, either statistically or through pre- and post-tests (Black & Duhon, 2006; DeLoach, Kurt, & Olitsky, 2015; Engberg, 2013; O'Rear et al., 2012; Sutton & Rubin, 2004; Vande Berg, 2009). However, it may still be difficult to separate the effects of study abroad from pre-existing student characteristics or traits. Secondly, many of these studies rely on students' self-analyses and self-reporting (Dwyer, 2004; Franklin, 2010; Paige, Fry, Stallman, Josić, & Jon, 2009; Stebleton, Soria, & Cherney, 2013). This may not always be a reliable metric. Finally, several of the studies are of fairly small scale and focus on a single institution or a subset of similar institutions; the results of these may not be more broadly transferrable, especially to colleges and universities that

are very different than the case study institution (Black & Duhon, 2006; Douglas & Jones-Rikkers, 2001; Franklin, 2010; Orahood et al., 2004; Orahood et al., 2008; Stebleton et al., 2013; Xu et al., 2013). In spite of this, the amount of research and the fairly consistent results lend reliability to the research described below.

Academic Effects

Study abroad has been shown to impact students and their academic development in a variety of ways, ranging from college completion rates to foreign language skills acquisition. For example, Xu et al. (2013) compared the graduation rates of 106 study abroad participants and 6,346 non-study abroad participants at Old Dominion University. Holding constant several student characteristics (gender, race, and high school and first year of college GPA), studying abroad had no effect on the four-year graduation rate. However, study abroad alumni had 1.9 times greater odds of graduating in five years, and just over two times greater odds of graduating in six years (Xu et al., 2013, p. 94). This is promising, although there could be other personal factors not accounted for that resulted in this outcome. A much larger scale study was completed by O'Rear et al. (2012) using data from the University System of Georgia (17,903 non-study abroad students and 19,109 study abroad students). Controlling for high school and college academic performance, study abroad students were 10% more likely to earn their Bachelor's degrees in four years, and 25% more likely to within five years. Study abroad did not affect the six-year graduation rate (O'Rear et al., 2012, p. 8). The authors acknowledged limitations of the study, such as the potential for interactions between factors such as race and gender and the likelihood of studying abroad and the fact that the study did not differentiate the effects of different types of study abroad programs (O'Rear et al., 2012, p. 11).

Focusing on language acquisition, Vande Berg (2009) utilized the approximately six-year Georgetown Consortium study of participants from 61 study abroad programs and reported that on average, study abroad students had greater Simulated Oral Proficiency Interview (SOPI) gains when compared to a control group of students who studied another language in the U.S. during the same time period. The greater gains were particularly apparent for students who completed intercultural training before going abroad, for female study abroad students, and for homestay students who actively engaged with their hosts (Vande Berg, 2009, pp. S19-S20). Additionally, in a large scale, longitudinal survey of study abroad alumni, Dwyer (2004) found that across the board, and with slightly stronger positive responses from summer study abroad students than semester-long study abroad students, respondents reported renewed dedication to foreign language study and usage. They also indicated the development of interest in learning about other languages and cultures and interest in cultivating a diverse friend group as a result of their study abroad experiences (pp. 156-158).

Effects on Intercultural and Personal Development

The definitions of intercultural and cross-cultural have already been delineated; regardless, because these concepts are often mixed together in the literature, they will both be discussed here. Broadly speaking, research in this area shows that study abroad has both short-term and long-terms effects on students, increasing their intercultural and cross-cultural knowledge and skills, helping them to consider other ways of living, and leading them to think about their national identities in new ways.

For example, Stebleton et al. (2013) found that "formal study abroad programs through the university or through another college/university bring value-added components" related to intercultural and global skills development when compared to other international experiences (p.

15). Paige et al. (2009) reported the results of a study titled "*Beyond immediate impact: Study abroad for global engagement*" (p. S29) that used survey and interview data to examine the short-term and long-term effects of study abroad on individuals' "global engagement contributions, professional development and personal development" (p. S31). Study abroad, friendships, and classroom studies were rated as having the strongest impact on respondents' undergraduate experiences (Paige et al., 2009, p. S35). Study abroad also affected many respondents in that it promoted simple, non-extravagant living (Paige et al, 2009, p. S37). Along the same lines, Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2015) found that studying abroad was positively correlated with "student gains in the ability to understand moral and ethical issues, communication skills, academic performance, and overall satisfaction" (p. 42). Surveying students from Indiana University's Kelley School of Business, Orahood et al. (2004) found that students who had participated in study abroad programs cited personal development, increased confidence, improved interpersonal skills, and enhanced communication abilities as major benefits of their experiences.

Douglas and Jones-Rikkers (2001) focused on Sampson and Smith's (1957) concept of "worldmindedness," which is "the extent to which individuals value the global perspective on various issues" (p. 58). They found that study abroad students had higher mean worldmindedness scores than those without international travel experience. Kehl and Morris (2007-2008) based their research on Hett's (1993) similar concept of global-mindedness and found no significant difference between students who studied abroad for eight weeks or less and students who had been accepted to study abroad but who had not yet participated. However, global-mindedness was higher among semester-long study abroad students than among those planning to study abroad, and was higher among semester-long study abroad participants than among short-term

study abroad participants (Kehl and Morris, 2007-2008, p. 76). Black and Duhon (2006) used a pre-test and post-test design to understand how studying abroad in London affected business students on the four dimensions of Kelly and Meyer's 1995 Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (p.141). There were increases in students' scores on all four dimensions between the pre- and post-tests, with particularly large gains in "perceptual acuity," which includes skills such as reading "nonverbal cues" (Black and Duhon, 2006, p. 141).

Engberg (2013) presented the results of multiple studies based on data from individuals who took the Global Perspectives Inventory (GPI). The GPI is "a survey instrument designed to tap into the cognitive, intrapersonal, and interpersonal domains of student development" (Engberg, 2013, p. 472). In one of these studies, students who had studied abroad scored higher than service learning students on four GPI dimensions, particularly those related to cognition and social interaction (Engberg, 2013, p. 473). Study abroad had a negative effect on identity. In a separate study in which students took the GPI before and after they studied abroad, students had higher scores after they returned from studying abroad across all six scales of the GPI.

Sutton and Rubin (2004) discussed results from the "University System of Georgia Learning Outcomes of Students Studying Abroad Research Initiative" (GLOSSARI) (p. 69). Controlling for GPA as reported by the participants and using survey data, Sutton and Rubin (2004) found that students who had studied abroad outperformed non-study abroad students in terms of "functional knowledge, knowledge of world geography, knowledge of cultural relativism, and knowledge of global interdependence" (p. 74). However, little difference was seen in terms of verbal astuteness, interpersonal skills, or "cultural sensitivity" (Sutton & Rubin, 2004, p. 73). Similarly, using a survey developed by Chieffo and Griffiths (2004) and a method used by Kurt et al. (2013), DeLoach et al. (2015) found that studying abroad on short-term

programs seemed to increase students' "global awareness," and particularly their broad awareness and knowledge of global interconnectedness (p. 27).

The previously discussed Georgetown Consortium study also examined the development of intercultural competency through the use of Hammer and Bennett's (1998) Intercultural Development Inventory (Vande Berg, 2009; Paige, Jacobs-Cassuto, Yershova, & DeJaeghere, 2003). Study abroad students showed greater average increases in intercultural development than did the control students who did not go abroad; however, this was not universal and was not true, on average, for male students (Vande Berg, 2009, pp. S20-S21). Longer programs, the presence of a "cultural mentor" (p. S21) who was met with regularly, continuing to study another language while abroad, and spending time with host families were all associated with higher levels of intercultural learning (Vande Berg, 2009).

Dolby (2004, 2007) offered a different but compelling perspective on the benefits of study abroad related to national identity. She found that ". . . despite the rhetoric that focuses attention on students' encounter with 'the other' and the subsequent increase in cultural competency and understanding, in actuality students' primary encounter during the study abroad experience is with themselves as national and global actors" (Dolby, 2004, p. 154).

Effects on Career Development

An examination of the effects of study abroad on career development fits in well with much of the current rhetoric around higher education that focuses on workplace readiness and documented outcomes that prove the "worth" of academic programs. Since study abroad is an investment by students, institutions, and governmental agencies of both time and money, it makes sense that there is a good deal of contemporary research related to the very practical career-related outcomes of study abroad.

Orahood et al. (2008) surveyed students who had graduated from the Kelley Business School at Indiana University within the past five to ten years. Students who had studied abroad were more open to idea of an international job placement than were non-study abroad alumni (Orahood et al. , 2008, p. 139). However, most study abroad alumni did not feel that studying abroad had changed their career plans. Orahood et al. (2008) noted that business students tend to be locked into a career path from the early stages of their time in college, which may explain this result (p. 137). Additionally, study abroad participants were actually somewhat less likely than non-study abroad alumni to have international aspects to their work (Orahood et al., 2008, p. 137). It is interesting that these results were so different than those from Orahood et al.'s (2004) initial study, in which still enrolled business students who had studied abroad overwhelmingly reported that "their study abroad experience had made a difference in their career plans" (p. 123).

Kronholz and Osborn's (2016) study at a large Southeastern public university largely echoed these results. Broadly speaking, students who went abroad for a semester reported that their experiences increased their self-knowledge; helped them to link their principles, interests, and abilities to a career; and made them feel more optimistic about career choices (Knonholz & Osborn, 2016, p. 75). Students reported that studying abroad opened up ideas about other career options rather than narrowing choices, but also generally agreed that study abroad did not affect their career goals (Knonholz & Osborn, 2016, p. 77). Somewhat contradictory results were reported by Franklin (2010), who surveyed Dickinson College study abroad alumni about their views of the career benefits of study abroad ten years after graduation. More than 40% of respondents 'agreed' or 'strongly agreed' that their career path was influenced by study abroad (Franklin, 2010, p. 178). Those who did cite the influence of study abroad on their career choice expressed the highest degree of contentment with their careers (Franklin, 2010, p. 179). More

than 70% indicated that their work had an "international or multicultural dimension" (Franklin, 2010, p. 177) and a strong majority of respondents viewed having studied abroad as a benefit on the job market (p. 181). The differences in the results of the Orahood et al. (2008) and the Kronholz and Osborn (2016) studies as opposed to the Franklin (2010) study could potentially be attributed to institutional mission, and the related career and life goals of students who tend to enroll at different types of colleges and universities or who major in different subjects. Wolniak and Engberg (2019) examined the early career effects of "high-impact" educational activities (Kuh, 2008) and observed that study abroad participation was associated with lower job commitment among early career business majors, but not among majors in other fields (p. 846).

In terms of employer perspectives, Trooboff et al. (2007-2008) examined the attitudes of both recruiters/HR personnel and CEOs/senior staff regarding study abroad and its effect on potential employees. Given a list that included both college major and several types of international experiences and language learning, both senior management and HR and other staff valued college major most highly, but also showed appreciation for study abroad. Additionally, "the greater the firm's internationally generated revenue, the more likely that its employees value all types of study abroad" (Trooboff et al., 2007-2008, p. 21). Harder et al. (2015) interviewed recruiters at a career fair at the University of Florida. The majority of respondents indicated that global perspectives and experiences were important, especially for career advancement. Although the recruiters did not place great emphasis on prospective employees having prior global and cross-cultural knowledge, seven of the 11 said study abroad was taken into account during hiring (Harder et al. 2015, p. 45). However, both Trooboff et al. (2007-2008) and Harder et al. (2015) showed that in order to reap career benefits from study abroad, students need to be able to articulate what they learned through their international experiences.

Finally, Schmidt and Pardo (2017) examined the effects of studying abroad on human capital, measured in terms of salary and considering the "opportunity cost" of studying abroad in terms of missing time on the home campus of the focus institution (p. 136). Controlling for gender and age, studying abroad did not have a significant impact on future earnings (Schmidt & Prado, 2017, p. 144). Activities that created "social capital," such as participating in Greek life, positively impacted income (Schmidt & Prado, 2017, p. 147). Schmidt and Prado (2017) broadly concluded that there are trade-offs between studying exclusively on one's home campus and studying abroad. However, Wolniak and Engberg (2019) found that study abroad had a positive effect on alumni's early career earnings generally, and particularly on the early career earnings of social sciences majors (p. 842, p. 846).

Literature Review Summary

Understanding study abroad-related organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies at U.S colleges and universities also requires broad understanding of internationalization, the history of study abroad, the effects of study abroad on students, and factors that have been shown to be associated with student participation in study abroad. Although study abroad has been shown to be beneficial to students in many respects, the literature does not explain the reasons for or broad impacts of different organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad.

Theoretical Framework

This study was guided by two main theories. The first is resource dependency theory, which explains diversity in organizational behavior on the basis of organizations' interactions with their environments (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003). The second is Knight's (1994)

internationalization cycle, which proposes six stages through which universities move on their internationalization journeys.

Resource Dependency Theory

Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003) are the architects of the resource dependency perspective on organizations. Building from open systems theory, resource dependency theory focuses on how organizations interact with their environments – and more specifically, on what organizations need from their environments. According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003):

> The three most elemental structural characteristics of environments are concentration, the extent to which power and authority in the environment is widely dispersed; munificence, or the availability or scarcity of critical resources; and interconnectedness, the number and pattern of linkages, or connections, among organizations. (p. 68)

Organizations are almost never self-contained and must seek resources from other entities in the environment, which in turn makes them reliant upon those other entities. In other words, "in social systems and social interactions, interdependence exists whenever one actor does not entirely control all of the conditions necessary for the achievement of an action or for obtaining the outcome desired from the action" (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, p. 40). College and university administrators, for example, may have the goal of enrolling a certain number of students each year; elements beyond their control which affect their ability to do so may include factors such as state funding levels, state educational system goals, size of the local college-age population, or accreditation standards set by an outside organization.

According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003), interdependence does not always involve an even balance of power. The more critical a resource is to an organization and the fewer sources there are for the resource, the more dependent the organization is upon those who can

provide the resource (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, p. 46). However, Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003) noted that:

> It is sometimes difficult to operationalize the concepts of pervasiveness or criticality because what is critical depends, in part, on existing organizational dependencies and arrangements, themselves affected by conditions of scarcity and power. Thus, the definition of what is crucial is itself open to a social contest and becomes an important focus in the contest for control. (p. 231)

For example, students are important resources for all universities. For universities that rely on per-student funding formulas, only very small fluctuations in enrollment may be tolerated. Other universities that have more diverse funding sources may be able to better manage swings in enrollment levels, at least for the short term.

Interdependence can, therefore, be challenging, especially given that external environments are often unstable and unpredictable. However, because organizations are loosely coupled to their environments, they do not experience or react to every change that occurs. Additionally, what they do experience may be misleading, misunderstood, or noticed belatedly (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003). As Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003) stated, "the events of the world around us do not present themselves to us with neat labels and interpretations. Rather, we give meaning to the events" (p. 72). Pfeffer and Salancik used Weick's (1969) explanation that the environment is enacted, and that this occurs based on people's interpretations of things that have already happened and to which they have decided to pay attention. Environmental enactment is therefore inherently political, since how an organization understands its environment informs its understanding of the dependencies and vulnerabilities with which it

needs to cope. This in turn influences the power structure of an organization (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, pp. 72-78).

> Those subunits most able to cope with the organization's critical problems acquire power in the organization. Since many of the uncertainties and contingencies faced by an organization are a product of the environment, the environmental context partially determines the distribution of power within the organization. By power, we mean the ability of a subunit to influence organizational decisions in ways that produce outcomes favored by the subunit. (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, p. 230)

In the context of study abroad, one can imagine a university at which administrators want to increase the number of students who study abroad in order to meet or exceed the study abroad participation rates of peer institutions. If the English Department develops a faculty-led study abroad program with courses that fulfill general education requirements and that quickly attracts a large number of students, then the administrators of that university may be inclined to think study abroad should be a decentralized operation, left mainly to the academic departments. If, alternatively, the study abroad office is able to arrange for a partnership with a university abroad that can accommodate a large number of students on a summer study abroad program it offers, then administrators may decide that study abroad operations should be centralized.

Additionally, because organizations are open to their environment and interact with a variety of other parties, organizations are often subject to competing demands. According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003):

> An organization's attempts to satisfy the demands of a given group are a function of its dependence on that group relative to other groups and the extent to which the demands of one group conflict with the demands of another. (p. 45)

Fowles (2014) commented that:

> Within the context of higher education, the resource dependence perspective:
> recognizes that although organizations are faced with competing demands from various
> stakeholder groups, survival and success necessarily prevents the organization from
> responding completely and simultaneously to all demands; rather, organizations must
> make strategic choices regarding outputs. It is well understood and documented that
> public institutions of higher education are multi-product firms that serve a diverse
> clientele. (pp. 276-277)

According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003), if a group has relatively little power, then
organizational leaders may structure communication channels to avoid hearing its demands (and
thus having to say no to them), by manipulating how the satisfaction of a demand is defined, and
by controlling information flows and influencing administrators and regulators (Pfeffer &
Salancik, 1978/2003, pp. 97-101). If the groups making demands on an organization are
powerful in relation to the organization, however, then leaders may try to manage the situation
by altering the organization to better fit the environment by or trying to alter the environment to
better fit the organization (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, p. 106).

 Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003) contend that, "the organization ends and the
environment begins at the point where the organization's control over activities diminishes and
the control of other organizations or individuals begins" (p. 113). The borders are places where
organizations are vulnerable, and so if the influential parties within an organization determine
that one of these vulnerabilities is significant, then this is an area in which the organization may
seek increased control. Because their survival is dependent on their ability to garner needed
resources and given that "organizational vulnerability derives from the possibility of an

environment's changing so that the resource is no longer assured" (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, p. 47), organizations act to reduce the uncertainty and dependency they face. Strategies for this include coordination through methods such as agreements, shared norms, joint activities, and overlapping boards of directors and political methods such as regulation and licensing (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, p. 144, p. 189). The trade-off inherent to these methods, though, may be gaining stability while losing some independence and self-determination (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003, pp. 144-145).

Stockpiling needed resources is another very basic way to deal with a vulnerable interdependency. Alternatively, if there are multiple suppliers of a resources, organizations may find it better to obtain smaller amounts from several suppliers than to rely solely on one provider (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/203, pp. 108-109). Mergers are another option. Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003, emphasis in the original) posited that:

> . . . *vertical* integration represents a method of extending organizational control over exchanges vital to its operation; that *horizontal* expansion represents a method for attaining dominance to increase the organization's power in exchange relationships and to reduce uncertainty generated from competition; and that *diversification* represents a method for decreasing the organization's dependence on other, dominant organizations. (p. 114)

Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003) noted that diversification may reduce contingencies, but it increases constituencies (pp. 272-273). Organizations may create a variety of subunits to deal with demands from these various groups, which "provides a satisfactory solution to the problem of competing demands only when the differentiated units are themselves relatively independent. Each subunit must be in a position to take actions unconstrained by the actions

taken by other subunits" (p. 274). A benefit of subunits is that they tend to co-opt the interest

group that led to their establishment in their first place, leading to less extravagant demands. The

downside is the scope of resources required to manage these processes (Pfeffer & Salancik,

1978/2003, p. 274).

Powell and Rey (2015) gave public higher education specific examples of how

organizations attempt to deal with interdependencies. Options for changing to better fit the

environment include collaborating with other universities or with industry. In contrast, if a

university shifts what market segment of students it is primarily targeting, that would be an

example of changing the environment in which the university is operating (Powell & Rey, 2015,

97-98).

Internationalization Cycle

A theory specifically related to internationalization complements the more general

resource dependency theory. Knight (1994) developed a model of a six-stage internationalization

cycle that seeks to explain how internationalization proceeds at colleges and universities. The

steps of the developmental model are awareness, commitment, planning, operationalization,

review, and reinforcement (p. 12). Knight (1994) commented that, "while it is clear that there is a

sequence to the six phases, it is also important to acknowledge the two-way flow that will occur

between the different steps" (p. 12). In other words, internationalization is not a simple, linear

process. A visual representation of Knight's (1994) model is shown in Figure 1:

Internationalization Cycle

Supportive Culture to Integrate Internationalization
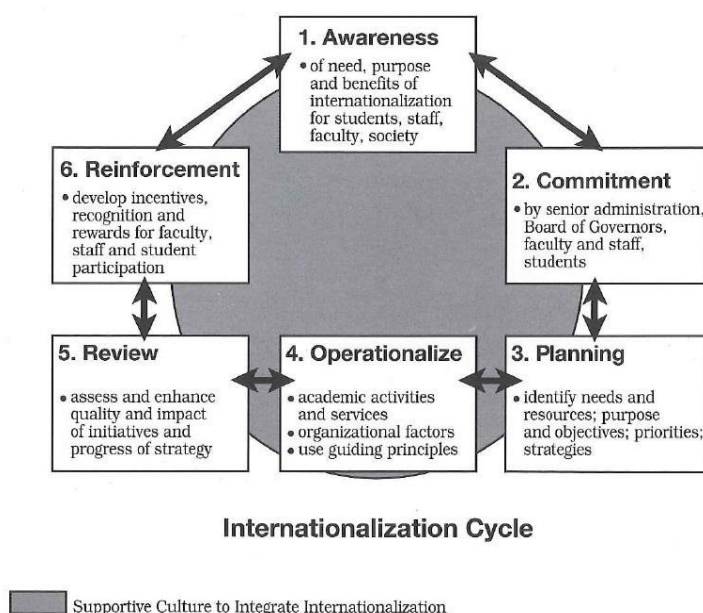
Figure 1. Knight's internationalization cycle. From "Internationalization: Elements and Checkpoints," by J. Knight, 1994, *CBIE Research*, (7), p. 12.

The first stage of the internationalization model involves, "**creating an awareness of the importance and benefit of internationalization for students, staff, and faculty**" (Knight, 1994, p. 12, emphasis in the original). Here, it is key to involve a multitude of parties and to hear a range of ideas and opinions; successful internationalization is not the province of a limited set of individuals. At the next stage, the idea is to be "**building commitment to the process of integrating an international dimension into teaching/training, research and service functions**" (Knight, 1994, p. 12, emphasis in the original). This involves both symbolic and tangible actions. New financial resources are helpful but not necessary at significant levels; more important are prominent shows of support for internationalization from wide arrays of students, faculty, and staff.

The third stage of the internationalization cycle is planning. Here, "clarification of the purpose and goal is a critical first step. The reasons for internationalizing, the intended outcomes, the unique features, resources and needs of the organization need to be clearly assessed and factored into a strategy" (Knight, 1994, p. 13). This helps faculty, administrators, and staff to build a more specific strategy, and the more specific the internationalization strategy is, the greater chance that it will succeed. Planning takes place at various levels of the university, from the inclusion of internationalization in the mission statement of the institution to continuation of international activities that academic departments already have underway. Next, in the operationalization stage, "academic activities and services, organizational factors and guiding principles are the three components which play a major role" (Knight, 1994, p. 13). Knight (1994) also states that in this phase, it is important to create an international office or designate an individual who will be focused on international matters. This "demonstrates to the university or college community as well as external partners the importance and commitment to international affairs" and also helps coordinate various international activities across the university (p. 13).

Linking stages three and four, Childress (2009) commented that, "as Knight's model suggests, colleges and universities that incorporate the importance of international education into their institutions' mission statements and strategic plans create a strong foundation for operationalizing this commitment and intent" (p. 304). Childress (2009) further explained that internationalization plans provide direction, objectives, and guidance in a visible way to both internal and external constituencies – whose buy-in and commitment to internationalization can be cultivated during the development of the plan (p. 291, pp. 304-305).

Stage five of the cycle involves reviewing what has been done and how well it has been meeting goals and objectives. This not only allows for adjustments and improvements, but also ensures that international activities are treated as part of the normal and standard activity of the university and that they are included in regular review procedures (Knight, 1994, p. 13). Finally, the last stage of the cycle is reinforcement, through which faculty and staff who participate in internationalization activities are rewarded and recognized to help ensure the establishment of a university culture focused on internationalization (Knight, 1994, p. 13). As previously mentioned, though, Knight (1994) stressed that:

> The process of internationalization is cyclical not linear. Reinforcement and reward lead to renewed awareness and commitment. A renewed and broader base of commitment leads to further planning processes. This usually stimulates changes to existing programs or policies and the development and implementation of new activities and services. A continuous support, monitoring and review system attempts to improve quality and involves incentives, recognition and rewards. (p. 14)

Applicability of Theories

Resource dependency theory and the internationalization cycle were chosen to guide this study for several reasons. Key among these is the fact that each stage of Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle requires resources – either new resources or re-appropriated ones. One of the main resources required is the time and attention of busy individuals. If staff are educating members of their university community about the value of international education, they have less time to work on other tasks. If faculty members serve on a committee that reviews study abroad programs, they have less time to conduct research or to advise students. If administrators travel abroad to meet their counterparts at other universities in order to establish collaborative

agreements, they have less time to meet with alumni. Internationalization also requires financial resources. Professional study abroad advisors must be paid. In order to send students with limited financial means abroad, scholarships must be made available. Sending faculty to evaluate a prospective partner university abroad costs money. Resources, broadly conceived, are the key to internationalization.

Additionally, resource dependency theory is applicable because it explains *difference*, which is central to this study. Colleges and universities tend to have a lot in common and to look alike in many ways. This can be explained by institutional theory, which explains that an organization's legitimacy comes largely from it being what people expect it to be and from it behaving as people expect it to behave (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Harris, 2013; Manning, 2018). While resource dependency theory recognizes the constraints under which people and organizations operate, it posits that difference comes about because of how organizational leaders enact their organizations' environments, identify their interdependencies, and attempt to control those interdependencies (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003).

For example, a public institution that is reliant on state funding and that had a prior, well-publicized incident in which a student was injured on a study abroad program might well have different environmental concerns than does a private institution with diversified revenue streams, no history of major incidents abroad, and a tradition of strong faculty governance. The former institution may determine that a centralized structure for study abroad is best for risk management, and for keeping funding from the state legislature. The latter may decide that a de-centralized structure that gives more authority to faculty and individual departments is the best way to ensure faculty support for study abroad initiatives.

Taken together, resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003) and the internationalization model (Knight, 1994) informed this study and led to the following guiding assumptions:

- Although indicators of good practice may be found, due to differences in perceived and experienced postsecondary environments, there is not a single "best" model for internationalization or for organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad;

- The differences in organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies at U.S. colleges and universities are explainable at least in part by differences in their experienced and perceived environments; and

- Colleges and universities that are at more advanced stages of Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle may have different structures and policies related to study abroad than do colleges and universities that are at earlier stages of the cycle.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

Participating in a study abroad program can lead to a variety of beneficial outcomes for students. However, colleges and universities differ in the processes, structures, and policies that surround their study abroad programming. The purpose of this study was to understand senior study abroad professionals' perceptions of different organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad. There were three primary research questions:

Research Question #1 – What organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies do senior study abroad professionals perceive to differ across the study abroad programs of colleges and universities?

Research Question #2 – What factors do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be relevant to decisions regarding organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies for study abroad?

Research Question #3 – What do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be the outcome- and process-based effects of organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad?

Philosophical Foundations

My worldview is that of pragmatism. According to Creswell, "pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy and reality" (2014, p. 11). Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) explain that pragmatism came about as philosophers searched for:

. . . approaches to research that could be more practical and pluralistic approaches that

could allow a combination of methods that in conjunction could shed light on the actual

behaviour of participants, the *beliefs* that stand behind those behaviours and the

consequences that are likely to follow from different behaviours. (p. 35, emphasis and

spelling in the original)

I believe that there is no single best way to do most things, but that when it comes to study

abroad administration, there may be certain good practices that are adaptable to different

situations. I also believe there is no single best research method – it all depends on the

circumstances and what one is planning to study.

Research Design

As differentiated from an "applied" qualitative study, this is a "basic qualitative study"

(Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 3) that explored senior study abroad professionals' insights

regarding the occurrence, cause, and effect of differences in organizational, administrative, and

fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad at U.S. colleges and universities. According

to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), "all qualitative research is interested in how meaning is

constructed, how people make sense of their lives and their worlds. The primary goal of a basic

qualitative study is to uncover and interpret these meanings" (p. 25). A qualitative study was the

best method to address my research questions because it allowed for exploration of a

phenomenon that is not currently well understood. The primary method of data collection was

semi-structured interviews with directors of study abroad offices.

Role of the Researcher

Based on my experiences as a study abroad alumna, as someone who enjoys international

travel, and as a (former) international educator, I believe that study abroad is a valuable

experience that should be made available to as many students as possible. That perception, however, may be affected by my own background. I have family members who studied and worked abroad; I grew up in an environment where completing college and perhaps even graduate school was the norm; I have friends who also studied abroad; I did not have to worry about funding my experience; I am independent, introverted, and willing to strike out on my own; and I know that I have many economic and emotional safety nets in my life.

Many college students come from very different backgrounds, and their cost-benefit analysis as they consider (if they consider) study abroad may be very different than mine. For others, study abroad may not be a thing everyone should automatically try to do, but may be frivolous, out-of-reach, or too intimidating. Therefore, my underlying assumption that increased levels of study abroad participation is a good thing may have been flawed; there may also be limits to the extent to which any institutional or administrative decisions can affect study abroad participation. I may have seen failures in policies where they do not exist in the eyes of students, their families, and local faculty, staff, and administrators. Perhaps where I thought, "they need to invest more in internationalization," others may have thought, "we need to spend that money on this other more pressing goal."

My experiences working in study abroad administration also guide my views. Having worked at several different institutions that administered study abroad quite differently and having had my own experiences as a study abroad student, I know what I think to be the advantages and disadvantages of different characteristics and policies. This may have made me more likely to be critical of certain models, and less critical of others, looking for the good in one and the downside in another. Additionally, all of my experiences as both a student and an employee have been at fairly large, nationally prominent institutions. There may be differences

at small institutions or regional institutions with which I am not familiar and do not understand; this may have prevented me from asking important questions during my interviews.

The advantages of my experiences are that I understood the terminology and broad concepts related to study abroad and internationalization. I understood the pros and cons of many different models and I could see risks and opportunities in different policies and procedures. Throughout this research, I needed to be mindful of not guiding my research to a conclusion that reinforced my personal preferences and of not privileging study abroad over other institutional missions and priorities.

Research Site and Participant Selection

I used a combination of purposeful/criterion-based sampling and snowball sampling to select interview participants. Merriam and Tisdell (2016) define purposeful sampling as being "based on the assumption that the investigator wants to discover, understand, and gain insight and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learned" (p. 96). Snowball sampling involves "locating a few key participants who easily meet the criteria you have established for participation in the study. As you interview these early key participants, you ask each one to refer you to other participants" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 98).

As a starting point and to increase the likelihood of finding individuals who would agree to be interviewed, some of the initial participants were those to whom I had some kind of connection. For example, I contacted someone I knew at an institution, and asked for an email introduction to a director of study abroad that individual knew personally. I believe that an introduction helped to establish me as a legitimate, trustworthy researcher and as someone with whom the potential interviewee should agree to speak. I also directly contacted individuals who

met my selection criteria, which are described below. At the end of interviews, I asked several respondents for recommendations for other people with whom I should speak.

The primary criteria I used to determine participant eligibility were a) having held a director-level or higher position in study abroad administration for five or more years and b) having given at least one study abroad-related conference presentation or having held a leadership position in The Forum on Education Abroad or NAFSA: Association of International Educators within the past five years. These parameters helped to ensure that interviewees were experienced and engaged leaders in the field of study abroad administration. Participants could lead central study abroad offices, or unit-level study abroad offices. Additionally, I sought interviewees with professional experience at a diverse range of institutions, including large public research universities, private research universities, and liberal arts colleges. I identified potential participants through my own knowledge of the field and by examining conference proceedings and other documents on the websites of the Forum on Education Abroad, NAFSA, and the Institute of International Education. I used LinkedIn profiles and biographies on institutional websites to further ascertain which potential interviewees met my criteria, particularly searching for the length of time individuals had held director-level or higher positions. I continued to seek additional participants until I reached saturation of comments, and ultimately conducted 12 interviews with individuals from 12 separate institutions. In order to be able to feasibly include participants from across the country, I conducted all interviews by Skype, Zoom, or phone, according to each participant's preference.

While their years of experience in the field of international education ranged from seven to more than 30, on average, the participants had more than 19 years of experience in the field. Three of the participants were men; the remaining nine were women. Three of the interviewees

worked exclusively at private colleges and universities, while two have spent their careers at public institutions. The other seven participants have worked in multiple types of higher education environments; for four of these seven, this includes time spent working at third-party provider programs.

I obtained institutional review board (IRB) approval prior to beginning my study. Upon IRB approval, I then began emailing individuals on my list of potential participants and contacts. In the former case, I obtained email addresses from institutional websites and wrote to the potential interviewees directly. In the latter cases, I obtained email addresses from institutional websites and wrote to my contacts, explaining the basics of my study and requesting an email introduction to the potential interviewee. In my communication, I offered to discuss my request by phone if anyone preferred. Additionally, if my first email was not acknowledged, I tried to reach the individual in question by phone.

In my communications with the potential interview subjects, I described my research study and the criteria that led to their inclusion as a topic expert. I explained that I was requesting their participation in an interview that would last one hour or less and that would be conducted by Skype, Zoom, or by phone, depending on their preference. I assured the potential interviewees that all participants would remain anonymous and explained that in the interviews, I would be asking for their expert, personal opinions about a variety of topics related to study abroad administration structures and policies. Once I received a participant's initial agreement to complete an interview, we established a date and time for the interview and I emailed the individual the IRB-approved consent form letter and asked him or her to confirm continued interest in participating. I also asked the participant to indicate in writing if he or she was willing

to have the interview recorded, and I sent each interviewee the general interview protocol ahead of time. See Appendix A for the detailed interview protocol.

Data Collection

Interviews were semi-structured, open-ended, and exploratory. I spoke with one person per interview. At the beginning of each interview, after ensuring that the participant consented to be interviewed, I again asked permission to record the interviews. All the participants allowed recording. On average, each interview lasted about 50 minutes; I thanked each participant at the end of the interview. I took hand-written notes during the interviews and completed field notes after each interview as needed. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), in semi-structured interviews, although there are likely some particular questions used to elicit specific information, "most of the interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, and neither the exact wording not the order of the questions is determined ahead of time" (pp. 110-111). This method offered the advantage of flexibility in following-up when respondents alluded to important information, and I was also able to tailor questions to best match the experiences of particular interview subjects.

Data Analysis Procedures

I began the data analysis process by transcribing the recorded interviews. I completed this manually, aided by the use of the dictation feature in Microsoft Word. The advantage of doing the transcription myself was that I became very familiar with the transcripts through this process. I then drafted a summary of each transcript that I shared with each interviewee as a form of member checking. Seven of the participants responded that the summary of their interview was accurate. Four did not respond. I proceeded under the assumption that if anyone had major concerns, they would have let me know, and continued my analysis of these four transcripts. One

interviewee pointed out what he or she perceived to be sections in their summary that could be modified and offered to send me edits. After reviewing the transcript, the audio recording, and my interview notes, I agreed to receive the edits. Despite a reminder email, the subject did not send any changes. While completing my analysis, I therefore avoided relying on the specific segments of data that the subject flagged.

After the transcripts were prepared, I uploaded them to NVivo, the software program that I used to help manage the coding process. I then reviewed each transcript, using an open coding process. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), coding is "the process of making notations next to bits of data that strike you as potentially relevant for answering your research questions" (p. 204). Open coding, specifically, happens at the beginning of the coding process, when the researcher is still receptive to all data that are potentially applicable to the research questions. I employed both inductive coding, or using codes that come from the data, and deductive coding, or using codes that come from theory and literature (Stitch, 2018). "Resource – staff" is an example of a deductive code that I used. "Accreditation" is an example of an inductive code. Because of the extensive amount of data – more than 10 hours of interviews – I began by identifying broad open codes. After reviewing each transcript in this manner twice, I had 29 broad codes. I then returned to each transcript a third time for more nuanced and detailed open coding and expanded my results to 59 codes. The method of communication – phone, Skype, or Zoom – did not have any noticeable effect on quality of the interviews or the data that were obtained.

Once I completed open coding of the transcripts, I moved on to analytic coding, which is the "process of grouping your open codes" (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 206). In this stage, I analyzed the nuanced open codes, looking for repetition and common ideas, and grouping them

into categories and subcategories. This process resulted in a master codes list of 21 codes. A master code list "constitutes a primitive outline or classification system reflecting the recurring regularities or patterns" found in the research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016, p. 206). From this and guided by my research questions that were framed by resource dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003) and Knight's (1994) internationalization model, I then again examined the open codes to ensure that the data were sorted correctly into the final master codes.

Lastly, I examined the codes to identify the overarching themes that emerged from the data. In line with suggestions from Creswell (2014), I initially identified six themes. As I further organized my thoughts and began writing the results, this evolved into seven themes.

Validating Findings

One of the main methods to increase the validity of my findings was to employ what Creswell (2014) calls, "*rich, thick description*" in my discussion of the results, to help readers understand the content and context of the interviews (p. 202). Additionally, throughout the interview process, I engaged in regular self-reflection, writing notes to myself after completing interviews. In these notes, I reflected on how the interviews had progressed, on any reactions or strong responses that I had, and on anything said, done, or written that was indicative of a bias on my part or that could be improved. These regular self-reflections kept me cognizant of my own positionality through the interviews. Finally, as was previously described earlier in this chapter, in order to increase trustworthiness, I asked participants to review and confirm interview summaries.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study is that of any qualitative study: namely, that the results are not generalizable. My interview sample was not random and the data I collected are experts'

perceptions rather than indisputable facts. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016), "a central characteristic of all qualitative research is that individuals construct reality in interaction with their social world" (p. 24). This notion of constructed reality is helpful as we explore topics and gain general understanding; however, it does not lead to replicable, finite answers. Additionally, by focusing on study abroad office directors who are experienced and active in the field of international education, I missed insights from study abroad advisors or other administrators, faculty, and students who may have different perspectives. Similarly, the opinions of the experts I interviewed are doubtlessly shaped by their own personal and professional experiences. Although I encouraged participants to think about my questions broadly, they often spoke about their own institutions, which were primarily large public universities, private liberal arts colleges, and third-party providers. If I had selected other respondents with different backgrounds and work histories, I may have heard different responses. Finally, the fact that not all respondents participated in the member checking process is a potential limitation.

This study was also limited in some respects by my own experience in the field of international education. Having personal experience with a research topic is both an advantage and disadvantage. The positive side is that my general knowledge meant that during interviews, time could be spent delving into questions of why or how, rather than on explaining what is meant by a third-party program or resident credit. The downside is that perhaps more time should have been spent on these definitions. By assuming that interviewees and I were using terms in the same way, it is possible that I missed nuances or misunderstood what a respondent was trying to say. Additionally, having a professional background similar to that of the people I was interviewing made it challenging for me to avoid occasionally asking leading questions. My attempts to establish rapport and credibility with the respondents – to show that I was aware of

the issues they face or just to generally not leave someone perplexed about how to respond –

occasionally caused me to potentially point respondents to a particular topic. Through experience

and reflection, including writing short journal entries, this became less of an issue as the

interviews progressed, but throughout I remained consciously aware and sought to minimize

interviewer bias.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The goal of this study was to understand the differences in, reasons for, and effects of variation in organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad programs in higher education. Interviews were conducted with 12 college or university leaders who hold director-level positions in study abroad administration. Participants were asked to provide their expert opinions on topics related to study abroad organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies. They were asked to think broadly about international education, and not just about their own institutions. Seven primary themes emerged from the data, considered in terms of the research questions and the theories guiding this study. The seven themes are related to 1) the extensive difference in how study abroad is administered across institutions; 2) the effects of institutional type and finances; 3) the effects of high-level support and institutional culture; 4) the effects of students on study abroad structures and polices; 5) the factors that affect students' study abroad decisions; 6) the factors that affect faculty engagement with study abroad; and 7) the fact that there is no one best way for colleges and universities to administer study abroad programs.

Theme #1: Extensive Difference in Study Abroad Administration

Higher education in general may be driven by isomorphic tendencies (DiMaggio & Powell, 1983; Harris, 2013; Manning, 2018), but when it comes to study abroad, there is tremendous variation in program offerings as well as in the administration of the programs. Several of these points of difference were mentioned in the literature review, which influenced

the interview protocol. However, it is still worth exploring how study abroad experts discussed

these differences and their nuances. Responses from participants are summarized in Table 1, and

each area of difference is then explored in greater detail.

Table 1

Study Abroad Administration Differences

Program Types	SAO Finances & Charging for Study Abroad	Credit and GPA Policies	Centralization and Reporting Lines	Staffing
Many options, including faculty-led, provider, exchange	Central funding for SAO / Self-funded SAO	What credit is accepted and credit hour conversions	Only central office	Study abroad operations leadership
Varying program length	Home school tuition / program fees	Fulfills major / minor requirements, gen eds; exact equivalency or exceptions	Only decentralized	Study abroad office staffing levels
Varying locations	Hybrid models, both for SAO funding and student charges	Limits on how many credits can be transferred in	Central office and college / division / campus offices	Combining study abroad and international student and scholar services or not
Varying living arrangement	Degree to which financial aid travels	Counts for institutional or cumulative GPA, does not count for GPA, is or is not included on transcript	Reporting to academic affairs, student affairs, auxiliary or administrative services	Extent of faculty involvement

Program Types

Primary categories of study abroad programs include faculty-led programs, provider programs, and exchanges. With faculty-led programs, one or more faculty members from an institution go abroad with a group of students. According to participants, faculty-led programs often take place during the summer or spring/winter break, but in some instances are full-semester programs. One respondent described working with faculty on these programs in the following way:

> You're not just looking to hire some adult over the age of 30 to lead students abroad; that sounds like a nanny. They're trying to teach their courses in their area of scholarship, they're going to customize that topic to suit the site.

An interviewee stated that sometimes, a faculty-led program is tied to a specific faculty member. In these cases, the program is "completely dependent on that faculty being able to go." In other cases, there is an established faculty-led program, and different faculty members teach for the program in different years. Overall, several respondents mentioned that faculty-led programs are often quite popular with students, who may appreciate going abroad with a group of other students, knowing what credits they will receive for their experience, and often, being away from home for weeks instead of months.

Provider programs are offered by a third-party organization and typically enroll students from multiple institutions. According to the interview participants, provider programs are often quite expensive but also may have several advantages for both students and institutions that will be discussed through this chapter. Provider programs may offer broad curricular options, or they may have programs with specialized knowledge. One interviewee commented that, "our anthropology [department] doesn't do any of its own programs because they say that the

programs that are operated by [provider] are far superior and [the institution's anthropology department] can't replicate that." Interestingly, two respondents referred to an investigation by the then Attorney General of New York, Andrew Cuomo, that began in 2007 and that examined "anecdotes about cozy connections between third-party study abroad providers and institutional study abroad offices that some feared could compromise the relationship between college and student" (Redden, 2007, para. 2). Although the investigation did not discover illegal activity (Lederman, 2009), study abroad administrators are clearly still mindful of it.

Exchange programs involve a relationship between two or more institutions. Several respondents mentioned an exchange program structure in which the U.S. university and the university abroad are effectively swapping students who all pay tuition at their home institutions; the number of incoming and outgoing students needs to be roughly equivalent over a set period of time. One participant stated that alternatively, the two institutions can engage in different activities to balance the exchange. For example, the institution abroad may send individual students to the U.S. for a semester, while the U.S. institution sends a group of students abroad for the summer. The interviewee referred to this as, "an exchange that doesn't need to be a one to one balance but meets our sort of larger study abroad program needs." A common theme in the interviews was that exchange programs sound great in theory – they are supposed to be "revenue neutral" and can bring international students in to diversify campus – but their effective administration requires a good deal of work and time. Additionally, an interviewee mentioned that balancing exchanges has become even more complicated in recent years because of the increased difficulty that both international and U.S.-based students sometimes face in obtaining visas.

In terms of other options, a trend mentioned by several individuals was that of embedded programs, in which a course that is taught over a semester in the U.S. also has an international component lasting one to two weeks; this can generally be considered a sub-type of faculty-led programs. In this model, students do not have to pay additional tuition to study abroad; their only extra costs are associated with the relatively short period of travel. Another type of program, direct enroll programs, involve students enrolling in a host university without the home university necessarily receiving any students from that host university in return. Several respondents mentioned experiential programs, which include credit-bearing and non-credit bearing internship, research, and volunteer experiences abroad. System or consortium programs, which are offered by some kind of overarching organization to which multiple institutions belong, were also discussed. One interviewee described remote programs that use technology to allow students to engage with topics and individuals abroad without ever leaving their home campus. A participant also mentioned that some institutions enroll a larger first-year class than they could otherwise accommodate by offering study abroad programs to incoming first-year students. Finally, several respondents discussed non-approved programs, or programs that are not offered by an institution's study abroad office.

Respondents discussed the fact that study abroad programs also vary by length, from a week or so to a full academic year. Several participants mentioned that longer programs used to be the norm; as study abroad has expanded to include a broader range of students, shorter programs have become more common. Interviewees also remarked that different institutions offer study abroad programs in different regions of the world. Offering programs in diverse locations was important to many respondents; however, they also noted that if they are running their own programs as opposed to provider programs, they may be limited to locations where the

institution has relationships and partners. Study abroad programs additionally vary in their living arrangements. For example, in some instances, students participate in homestays, while in other cases they stay in hotels or apartments. These housing options have the potential to shape a student's learning experience (Vande Berg, 2009).

Study Abroad Office Finances and Charging for Study Abroad

The interplay of study abroad office finances and how universities charge students to participate in study abroad is complex. One particular method of charging students does not lead directly to a corresponding way of funding the office. However, as these two topics are intertwined with each other, I chose to discuss them together.

According to respondents and echoing Brockington (2002), study abroad offices are financed in three primary ways: by making their own money; by being allocated a general budget line; or by some combination of the two. A self-funding model can be revenue neutral, or profit-making. In the first case, which is a cost recovery model, the study abroad office takes in just enough income to cover its expenses, including overhead. In the latter case, income to the study abroad office exceeds expenses. What happens to this profit varies. According to respondents, the study abroad office may retain it, a central university unit may claim it, or a "revenue sharing model" may go into effect whereby the profit is shared between the study abroad office and other university units.

Participants reported that study abroad office income can come from the collection of fees, or because the study abroad office is able to retain tuition from students who participate in study abroad programs. If the study abroad office is not entirely self-funded, then it is fully or partially funded through general budgetary funds. However, one interviewee perceived that most study abroad offices are headed toward at least partial self-funding models.

Respondents reported several different ways of charging students to participate in study abroad programs. These options were also described by Heitmann (2007-2008) and Heisel and Kissler (2010). According to respondents, one option is a home school tuition model. In a home school tuition model, students pay the regular tuition of their home institution and then their institution pays for all or some of the costs associated with the study abroad experience (tuition/program fee, room and board, excursions, etc.) Alternatively, colleges and universities can offer what one respondent called a "fee-based program" and another called "direct pay." Effectively, in this case, the student pays all or most the costs of the study abroad program itself. They may pay the study abroad provider or the institution abroad in a direct pay model, or the home college or university may charge a program fee that is then used to pay the provider, the institution abroad, or to cover the costs of a faculty-led program. Study abroad offices can also choose to offer some programs, such as exchanges, on a home school tuition basis, and others on a fee or direct pay basis. Exchange program finances can become especially complicated, though, especially if exchanges are operated centrally at institutions which have differential tuition for various majors. For example, one respondent described a scenario in which the outgoing exchange student is from a major that charges less for tuition than does the major from which the incoming exchange student will be taking classes primarily.

Another issue related to study abroad program administration is student financial aid portability – and specifically, the portability of institutional aid. According to a participant, the question of whether or not federal financial aid can travel is largely settled affirmatively for credit bearing, institutionally approved programs. An exception to this is federal work-study, since students cannot complete on-campus work while they are abroad. It is policies about allowing institutional aid to travel that vary greatly. Respondents reported that at private schools,

and especially those with high discount rates, this is generally only allowed under home school tuition models and perhaps for a truncated list of programs. A related trend mentioned by several respondents is extensive fundraising activities, especially among alumni, to raise scholarship funds for study abroad students.

Opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of self- versus central-funding differed among interviewees. One respondent viewed central funding as potentially a way for the university's administration to more closely control the study abroad office. Another saw a self-funded, cost-recovery model as a way for limiting study abroad-related charges to students who actually participate in the experiences. Alternatively, referring to a self-funded environment, another respondent who has worked exclusively at private institutions commented that:

> I think it does create an environment that, you know, always the overriding concern of cost-consciousness which isn't necessarily a bad thing, but can almost create an environment where this enterprise is eating itself alive. If there's a certain kind of activity in the [study abroad] office that's generating a whole lot of money but maybe isn't really actually the best thing but it happens to be the popular thing, it's very difficult to not support that . . . . just kind of the character of, that's necessarily produced by that kind of structure and then you know, also just the general feeling of working in that environment, I think, would become a little wearing.

Credit and GPA Policies

There is a lot to consider when it comes to policies related to credits and grades for courses taken on study abroad programs. As one interviewee summarized, the questions in this area include, "is it graded, is it not graded, is it transfer, is it in-residency credit . . . can it fulfill any type of requirements . . . can it be breadth, general academic breadth requirements, can it

fulfill major and minor requirements, and so on." Before these details are considered, though, it is important to start with the simple question of what credits from abroad university leaders are willing to count.

Faculty-led programs are generally very straightforward. As one respondent said, "if you are taught by a faculty member from [home institution], you get that [home institution] course." From a credit perspective, there is really no difference between the course being taken on the home campus or abroad. Things get complicated when it comes to credits from exchange programs, provider programs, direct enroll programs, or other non-faculty-led programs. An interviewee noted that these issues relate to "the philosophical positioning of [study abroad] and the overall education." Questions that college and university administrators consider that respondents discussed include:

- From what programs/host institutions will a university accept credit?

- How many home institution credits does a student receive for a course taken abroad?

- What requirements can be fulfilled with courses from abroad?

- Are there limits on how much credit a student can transfer back to their home institution, or to their major?

The first question regarding institutional acceptance of credits is key. Many universities have lists of approved programs from which students can definitely receive credit of some sort. The variation really comes when students go abroad on programs that are not on that approved list. As a participant explained, it can still be fairly straightforward, if institutions allow this and if students follow any required procedures. A respondent said:

> If a student chooses to do a program on their own, they can do so and we'll, assuming they fill out all the right paperwork and are accepted and so forth, we'll facilitate a

placement course for them so they show as registered for this external program. But in other cases, especially if the student does not get their plans approved by their home institution up-front, things can get complicated. One interview stated:

> I think the troubling situations are the ones where anything that flows through and that the student does and presents a transcript for is worth the credit of the institution. It creates an environment where, yeah, I mean the whole experience can't help but be sort of cheapened by that . . . if anything they try to do that produces a transcript is worthy of credit if they just go to the Registrar's Office and fill out some forms. I mean, that's the reason the credit mills exist in study abroad, they know that certain institutions will accept all of that . . . . if a student takes work at accredited institution and that accredited institution would normally be one from which the institution would theoretically accept credit, it's a four-year institution . . . the Registrar's Office is in a bit of a quandary because they're like, well, if this kid took this course at [example university] and the faculty member decided that looking at the syllabus and the course description, they would give elective credit for this course, we're hard-pressed not to do that. So it does generate sort of a two-tiered conversation . . . where we know, sort of from [a study abroad] standpoint, everything that surrounded that experience is not what we would normally approve, but you know, the kid sort of free-ranged it, their program, and did the end run and came back with the credit . . . . but at the end of the day, it's a discussion with the Registrar's Office to make sure that they're still okay with . . . a kid who did a thing in the summer, just like any other kid who might do something in the summer and go to the four-year institution in their home town and take a course that's perfectly reasonable for credit based on the description.

In addition to decisions about what credit to accept, institutional officials must decide how many credits, transfer or otherwise, to grant for courses taken abroad. According to a respondent, some institutions have effectively declared this to be "one to one," on the basis of how the course abroad was approved to count. In other cases, a participant explained that this can be more challenging, as officials at the home institution may want to use a contact-hours based conversion, yet the students took classes abroad in a system where there are few faculty-student contact hours but where the student does a good deal of independent, out-of-class work. However, this respondent noted that this is getting to be simpler as credits around the world, and especially in Europe with the Bologna agreement, are becoming more standardized. Additionally, there are third party organizations such as World Education Services (WES, 2019) that can make these determinations.

According to an interviewee:

The last hurdle is the work that a student did abroad, will it fulfill a requirement? Major, GE, or other type of requirement, major elective. That's determined by the department and I would say the vast majority of universities in the United States, that is a very individual decision.

Other comments indicated that faculty can approve a class from abroad as the equivalent of a specific class at the home university, or they can approve it by exception. One of these respondents stated, "we don't have a class that exactly matches that computer science class that you took in . . . South Korea, but we're going to let it count as a major class by exception." Participants explained that some universities maintain extensive credit transfer databases, in which they document how courses from abroad count at the home institution. Other universities

have not developed such databases, and every student who goes abroad must individually go through a course approval process.

Another issue to consider is that institutional policies may limit how much credit can be transferred back to fulfill degree requirements. Respondents pointed out that some academic departments also limit how much major credit a student can take abroad. Additionally, some faculty are reluctant to approve credit for courses, particularly major courses, taken abroad. According to participants, some faculty may believe that course content is better taught within their own department, or they may believe that there are certain aspects of their curriculum that is not replicated elsewhere. Or, faculty may want to protect their enrollment numbers at home by not allowing students to take major courses on a study abroad program.

Based on comments from participants, there are also differences in how colleges and universities award grades from study abroad programs, and especially from non-faculty-led study abroad programs. One option that participants discussed is that the grades do not count at all – a student can simply receive credit at their home institution on a pass/fail basis, after having met a certain minimum grade in the course abroad. Alternatively, respondents reported that grades can be transferred back, and may or may not be factored into the student's GPA; an institution can also include the grades from abroad in a student's cumulative GPA but not in the institutional GPA. Finally, an interviewee mentioned that even if grades from study abroad are not factored into a student's GPA, they can still be shown on a student's transcript.

Participants indicated that wrestling with how to award grades is a hard decision. Several interviewees outlined the complexities of this issue. According to one:

I know some schools decide to go in the direction of having [study abroad] factor into the GPA to make sure that it's taken as seriously as study on the home campus. The flip side

of that same discussion is that people don't want it to factor into the GPA because it's

perceived as less rigorous.

Centralization and Reporting Lines

Respondents reported that the degree of centralization of study abroad operations varies

greatly. In some cases, institutions have a single, central study abroad office. Other times, there

is a central office, but there are also individuals working on study abroad in colleges, schools, or

departments. There may also be a system-level SAO office that has influence over several

campuses. Having only decentralized units working on study abroad is possible but this seems to

be increasingly uncommon. Participants stated that the trend toward centralization may be driven

by the need to meet accreditation requirements and a desire to offer study abroad programming

to students whose departments and units have not traditionally offered it. Additionally, referring

to the trend toward centralization, one interviewee stated:

> The student safety issues, there is just no argument to say that three or four emergency
>
> protocols are better than one for four students in the same location. I don't think that's a
>
> winning argument. State schools particularly, you know, the budgets are getting tighter
>
> and not recreating the wheel is also a very strong argument.

Interviewees discussed the fact that study abroad offices are located in different places on

institutions' organizational charts. Sometimes, the study abroad office is under academic affairs

or the purview of the Provost. At other institutions, it is located in student affairs or is considered

to be an auxiliary or stand-alone unit. If a study abroad office is located in a particular college or

school, its administrators may report to the Dean of that college or school. As one respondent

summarized, "basically you could name a structure and somebody probably has that." In some

cases, the reporting line of the study abroad office may be a result of historical legacy. According to one participant:

> I think whether or not a study abroad office, operation, entity is housed in academic affairs or administrative affairs, within a school like the College of Arts and Sciences or within a central administrative unit that has sort of institution-wide responsibilities and authority, it is not because it seems rational to do it that way now. But because somebody 100 or 50 years ago or whatever, decided that it needed to be somewhere at that time.

Without a compelling reason and/or someone strongly advocating for a change, inertia may keep structures that were created in the past in place.

Staffing

Study abroad offices differ not just in terms of how many people they employ – this ranges from an individual in a one-person office to an extensive staff in a larger operation – but also in terms of whom they employ and what their responsibilities are. A couple of participants explained that in the past, a study abroad director was often a faculty member who had some kind of international background. Several interviewees referred to the professionalization of the field of study abroad, however, and noted that these roles now often go to individuals who have worked in international education administration for their entire careers. Additionally, respondents discussed the fact that some study abroad offices are co-located with international student and scholar services (ISSS). Different staff could perform study abroad and ISSS functions, or individuals could be charged with working in both areas.

Theme #2: Institutional Type and Finances Affect Structures and Policies

Clearly, this theme is broad. However, the components of institutional type and financial matters work together to affect study abroad administrative, fiscal, and structural decisions in

such a way that separating them into different discussions does not make sense. Instead, the interplay of these two elements on study abroad related decisions is examined. For the purposes of this discussion, institutional type encompasses both questions of size and of governance. In other words, does an institution have a fairly small number of students, or does it have tens of thousands of students? Is it a public or private institution? The answers to these questions matter tremendously when institutions make choices related to study abroad administration.

Differences between public and private institutions are hugely important in a variety of ways. One respondent from a public university stated that:

> One thing I always look at when we're meeting with new partners and they tell me who else they're partnering with and if I see a list of other private, all private schools, I'm like, OK, this is, this is probably not going to work for us.

This reaction was especially pronounced when the potential partner mainly worked with liberal arts colleges, which have a different mission as well as being in a different sector. Another interviewee commented that, "the biggest change I've noticed in my career is the shift from going from a private to a public." In particular, this interviewee experienced greater cost-consciousness among students at a public institution compared to a private one.

Charging for Programs

Perhaps in no arena is this difference more pronounced than when it comes to study abroad finances, which in turn greatly affect program offerings. According to one interviewee, "it's almost like you have to have two different kinds of conversations, the public and the private when you're considering home school tuition or not and the application of financial aid." Effectively, discussions of this topic with the respondents led to the conclusion that public universities that offer third-party provider programs do not have the option of solely having a

home school tuition model. Third-party programs are almost inevitably more expensive that particularly in-state tuition at a public university; therefore, to make them viable for an institution, a fee-based approach has to be chosen. This is regardless of how much study abroad is prioritized by the institution. As one respondent from a public university explained, "a program fee actually covers the cost of what tuition doesn't, but it also keeps the costs as low as possible so you're actually just paying the actual cost of experience." The interviewee added that a fee-based model was "open and fair" and stated that it is "a very transparent model too because if there's any cost reduction or anything from the provider, anything, it directly goes to the student."

Respondents speaking from the perspective of private institutions, which generally have higher tuition than public colleges and universities and among whom a purely home school tuition model seems to be more common, also made the case for the justness of their financial approach. There is a perception among some parents, students, and other constituencies – including some interviewees – that the home school tuition model is a way for private institutions to make money, arguing that the cost of some study abroad programs is considerably less than the cost of private school tuition for a semester. However, participants from private institutions emphasized that although they may take in a lot of tuition dollars under a home school model, they have to pay a lot out to cover the costs of programs. Additionally, for institutions with high discount rates that allow all of their institutional financial aid to travel, those tuition funds disappear even more rapidly. Respondents noted that at "private universities, everything is tuition-driven" and that an advantage of the home tuition model is that the institution's "revenue stream remains constant." Another interviewee commented that the home tuition model enables "the small campus that we are to continue to offer all of the positive

benefits in other ways. The diversity programming, the counseling programming, the comfort animal programming, all of these things that are part of campuses these days."

Throughout the interviews, it became apparent that private colleges and universities leaders, and especially those from institutions with less robust finances, have a conundrum in this area. If a private institution does not use a home school tuition model, it is almost impossible for them to allow institutional aid to travel. And yet if the institution is tuition dependent and has a high discount rate, even with a home school model, allowing institutional aid to travel could potentially result in a net loss of funds. However, not allowing students to use their institutional financial aid to study abroad can be disadvantageous in the competitive private college and university marketplace. A workaround to this that was discussed by a couple of respondents included having a home school tuition model and allowing aid to travel, but limiting program offerings, either provider or direct enroll, to those whose price tag is less than or equal to the real average revenue the institution receives from each student. According to one participant, as an alternative, some schools have a broader range of program options but only allow institutional aid to travel up to a certain amount. It is important to note that these are not static decision; institutions may change their policies and the options available to students as their financial fortunes change.

Respondents also noted that both the fee-based model and the home school tuition plus financial aid portability model can leave middle income students from any type of institution in a disadvantageous position. As one interviewee explained:

> As tuition went up . . . as it has with everybody, private and public, if they aren't getting financial aid, then they could pay less on a provider program in a place that's inexpensive . . . . if your tuition is more than that, then you would save money by going on that

program. So if students who don't get financial aid, the ones that are in the middle,

you've got students with significant resources, students with few resources but aid, the

students who have the middle area which don't get a lot of aid but don't have a lot of

resources, you could serve that group best with low cost other programs. And so as long

as the institution's OK with not collecting tuition from them, and public ones are less

worried about that than private ones, then that can be a viable model. So that could be

one motivation for saying let's expand independent programs of any type whether direct

enroll or provider or whatever.

Another respondent echoed this, stating:

We chose to have a wide variety in our portfolio, so while we did have [home institution]

programs that followed a tuition model where students would pay home tuition and retain

all their aid, we also had what we called . . . affiliate programs, so like your . . . provider

and students could take state and federal aid and just pay directly on that. We were out of

that equation.

Offering programs with differing payment options can therefore be a good way to ensure that

study abroad is within reach for as many students as possible, regardless of their financial

circumstances. However, the feasibility of such a model may well depend on the financial means

of the institution.

Risk Management

Institutional size and finances combine to affect decisions that university administrators

make related to risk management. One respondent explained that a shift from international health

insurance to a "travel security program that's backed by insurance" may occur because very

small study abroad offices "just don't have the capacity to really do all the risk assessment piece,

that pre-travel risk assessment." In other words, outsourcing this important task may be a better use of resources than hiring more staff at small, tuition-dependent institutions. Similarly, some institutions, especially ones with fewer study abroad office staff, may choose to offer third party provider programs because of what they offer in terms of, among other things, risk mitigation. According to a respondent, "third-party providers a lot of times hire people, host country nationals who speak the language or are from there or both. They have their own emergency management people." A participant noted that provider quality varies and that institutions have to determine what they are looking for in a provider and only partner with providers who meet those qualifications. However, when an institution has done this, the benefits of partnering with a provider include having an in-country contact and more personnel in general to deal with situations related to security, safety, and health. Another respondent echoed this general idea but broadened it out to include direct enroll options, with a focus on selecting partners abroad "because we know they have a resident director, support staff, 24-7 emergency action protocol." Larger and/or better-resourced institutions can still enjoy these benefits from using providers or highly structured partners, but they may also be able to have enough staff to address some of these health, safety, and security issues themselves.

Program Offerings

Comments from several of the interviewees led to the conclusion that provider programs may be attractive to smaller and/or wealthier institutions. The latter in particular can choose providers or to develop their own programs without having to be overly concerned with their cost, even under a home school tuition and financial portability model. For smaller institutions, particularly if they have small study abroad offices, provider programs are advantageous in the sense that they involve a more minimal administrative workload for study abroad office staff.

Alternatively, institutions that are struggling financially may turn instead to short-term programming. According to one respondent:

So what happens is that you, by default, if you're having financial issues, you begin to look at length, because it's more affordable to go for a shorter time. To take students or to sponsor students for a shorter time. And that becomes another issue – a pedagogical issue, a curricular issue, what can you achieve in those shorter programs that gives students a taste but doesn't necessarily give them the cross-cultural experience that a semester or a year would give. And I think those are the kinds of considerations people are having to make about length and opportunity.

Institutional type and finances also intersect when one considers the use of study abroad opportunities and comprehensive internationalization as tools for recruiting students to an institution. As expected by resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003), such recruitment is particularly important to institutions that are in a competitive marketplace for students. Referring broadly to internationalization, an interviewee explained:

I think the reason that institutions have put those words into their mission statements is that they're seeing other colleges doing it. There's a certain amount of peer pressure. I think right now, to give the impression that you're preparing your citizens, your students to be global citizens. Handily enough, no one has to know what that actually means. So, you know, I think there is a whole lot of that kind of activity going on. Colleges are looking around and realizing too they're supposed to be doing something that's like that because that seems to be something that we sort of amorphously talk about now in higher education. Students need to be ready to work in interculturally and globally diverse settings, you'd be working with lots of kinds of people and the world is very connected

and we need to do these things . . . . For a school like mine, if we can say that we do all of

those things but then we can point to all of the things that we do . . . we can tie all of

those things into a coherent vision that not only has the words, but that those words

clearly have a foundation in the way we go about making the choices that we do about

internationalization. If you have all of that sort of layered together, that's another reason

for doing internationalization on a college campus, that it honest to God does matter and

you know, at a school like this, you're always trying to differentiate yourself from the

hundreds of other schools that are so similar to this one.

Other respondents made a similar point. One noted the need for high-level administrators in

particular to have a long view and to not just consider money spent on international activities as

funds leaving the institution. Rather, they are also an investment in bringing students into the

college or university.

Centralization

Institutional size is primarily important to decisions regarding centralization.

Respondents indicated that small institutions are more likely to have a one-person office or to

have a fully centralized structure for study abroad administration than are larger colleges and

universities. In the latter case, a participant stated that:

It makes a huge amount of sense to have study abroad processes and study abroad

expertise be anchored in each of the colleges or divisions . . . . there's no reason to

assume that everything would be entirely centralized in that setting, that just doesn't

strike me as particularly efficient because you'd have to have advisors in that centralized

setting with just a huge amount of knowledge about how the whole institution runs and

how the different colleges run.

In contrast, for smaller institutions, having a single central office can be more efficient since, according to an interviewee, "there isn't enough volume in any given department to actually train all of the people in the department to do this [study abroad] process."

One respondent commented that at smaller institutions, the study abroad office may effectively be given the sole responsibility for not only study abroad but also for "internationalizing" the campus more generally. The respondent referred to the researcher Michael Paige and stated that internationalization, which Helms and Brajkovic (2017) and Knight (2003, 2004) described as an institution's strategic, pervasive, and integrated international activities, should involve components identified by Paige that include "language learning . . . language requirements . . . internationalized curriculum . . . faculty collaborations." The participant concluded that doing some or all of these things may be typical at larger institutions, but at smaller ones, "there's a lot of competing priorities and so things just get operationalized in the quickest path possible and so they look at study abroad like checking that [internationalization] box." For example, institutional leaders may believe that is easier or more expedient to offer study abroad programs to students than it would be to revise the general education curriculum.

Interestingly, according to a respondent, an institution's emphasis or lack of emphasis on faculty governance has historically tended to lead toward decentralized, in the former case, or centralized, in the latter case, study abroad structures. In other words, the more faculty tend to be involved in decision-making at an institution, the more likely it is that study abroad programs will develop in individual academic units rather than centrally.

Theme #3: The Importance of Senior Support and Institutional Culture

Interviewees had somewhat mixed opinions about the extent to which it matters if study abroad and/or internationalization are included in mission statements and strategic plans and are strongly supported by senior campus leaders. This is interesting because support by high-level officials is an early stage – stage two – in Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle. Effectively, the consensus seemed to be that senior support and having study abroad and internationalization as visible institutional goals is helpful but not sufficient. According to one interviewee, such support and prominence are very important, because amid the busyness of day-to-day work, "if you don't feel like there's a broader purpose to all of this, you either easily forget it or spin your wheels." Additionally, a lack of high-level support could lead to a lack of resource allocation, which would "would certainly lead to burnout and cynicism." This respondent also referred to the overall "tone" that senior support sets in terms of establishing study abroad as a legitimate academic activity for which credit should be approved. However, another respondent differentiated between what is effectively theoretical support – "most people at this point would say internationalization is a priority" – and active support. In the latter case, leaders and study abroad champions do not rely just on words, but also "make space in the curriculum . . . give money . . . give resources." A different interviewee echoed this call for operationalized support:

> The level of support, encouragement for participation in study abroad is also something that's a factor. You can have a centralized system that says, this is really important, you all need to do this and here's your grand permission to award really valuable credit and let all the financial aid flow but if the faculty . . . don't have . . . people helping with the logistics, if they don't have those networks to make things happen, if there aren't people helping them, if there's just one guy saying it's okay, it's not necessarily something that

can happen just by osmosis. A lot of things need to be in place. It's not just a - it can't happen from just a centralized level and be successful.

The extent to which study abroad is prioritized on a campus has the potential to affect study abroad administration and policies in several ways, including resource allocation. As would be expected under resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003), respondents posited that resource allocation will likely not be high if other activities are more important to an institution's leadership. However, it is important to note a lack of institutional financial investment in study abroad does not necessarily indicate that study abroad does not have high-level support or that it is a not an institutional priority. Rather, lack of resource allocation can simply reflect a lack of available funds. This point was made by a respondent who stated:

> It's sort of my anecdotal knowledge, but I almost never hear of that structure at sort of solid liberal arts colleges, the self-funded kind of model. I think the self-funded comes out of a structure where there isn't a whole lot of institutional funding to throw at these activities but there's still a desire to support it. That seems pretty straight up to me.

Conversely, another respondent had the view that a lack of financial support could come about simply because the study abroad office has demonstrated that it is able to successfully support itself, not because senior leaders do not champion it.

A respondent cautioned that even something that appears to be a show of high-level financial support – a central budget line to fund the study abroad office – can actually be a way for upper administrators to exert more control over the study abroad office. Finally, the importance of study abroad to an institution can also be shown in non-financial ways. One

interviewee remarked that the physical location of the study abroad office can signal its
importance, or lack thereof.

The support of senior leaders is also important in the sense that these leaders shape
institutional culture. The culture of an institute and its influence on individuals' beliefs and
actions can, in turn, affect decisions that relate to study abroad. For instance, referring to a
decision about whether or not to adopt a home school tuition model, one interviewee stated that:

> I think it really depends on . . . for lack of a better word, the power of the budget office . .
> . kind of their own philosophies of how they view things. So I think that can often drive
> the financial modeling very early on and then offices are left to kind of work within an
> established framework, for better or worse.

In a similar manner, respondents noted that the disposition of individuals in the Registrar's office
toward study abroad could potentially influence how study abroad credits and grades are treated.
A participant commented that an institution's culture may affect whether or not a transfer credit
database that eases students' participation in exchange, direct enroll, and provider programs can
be built. In these examples, while it is the attitude of the Bursar or Registrar toward study abroad
that has the immediate effect, broadly speaking it is still ultimately the responsibility of senior
leadership to set the tone and overall direction of an institution.

Finally, according to one interviewee, "I think if an institution really values study abroad
as a legitimate component of the academic experience of a student, the credit needs to be legit."
In other words, study abroad credit has to count toward degree requirements, including major
and minor requirements, and grades from abroad should be counted at the home university.
However, other respondents commented that how study abroad credits and grades are counted
may have less to do with the extent to which study abroad is valued by institutional leadership

and more to do with "how long they've been doing it, their comfort level with this stuff as an institution." One interviewee stated:

> Anecdotally, I think those are institutions that tend to have a pretty tight small set of programs that they work with and they're highly monitored so that they have a very, very good sense of exactly what's happening in each of those courses. I don't know that for sure but just based on kind of my chatting with colleagues in the field. Those that do count it towards the GPA have pretty tight control on what it is students can actually do there.

This comment regarding the importance of institutional leaders' level of familiarity with partner programs implies that institutions which are at later stages of Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle may be more likely to fully integrate study abroad into students' academic experiences.

Senior university leaders do much to mold an institution's culture, and this includes the culture of the institution as it relates to study abroad. In the interviews, it emerged that top-down support for study abroad can take many different forms. In some cases, it may just mean being generally convinced about the value of study abroad and leaving study abroad professionals to do their jobs without interference. In other cases, it may involve having realistic expectations and offering financial support. According to one respondent:

> I think the most successful is when you have both the top or the kind of strategic like worked into the mission of the institution but then also upper level administration having the understanding of what it takes to reach that goal and that vision.

Strategic plans and mission statements matter, but more active support does too.

Theme #4: Students Matter

Choices about study abroad structures and policies are also influenced by the students that institutions serve. Student interests and characteristics can affect what programs are offered, how financial decisions are made, and how study abroad offices perform their advising and outreach functions.

Comments made by participants indicated that the types of students that an institution serves academically may affect the study abroad programs that it offers. For college and universities that have many students enrolled in highly structured, sequential majors, faculty-led programs may be an easier fit than provider or exchange programs. One interviewee also noted that as a greater proportion of students are now majoring in areas such as nursing and business as opposed to majors in the traditional liberal arts, interest has grown among faculty to offer study abroad programs that offer "a strong academic internship that shows a greater return on investment" for students.

Similarly, one respondent noted that a liberal arts institution may have different study abroad programming needs than an institution that offers, "much more applied degrees which requires internships and service learning and other curricular elements." Referring to the fact that STEM and business majors make up a growing percentage of study abroad participants, a respondent commented that:

> With that trend, how can we provide engaging intercultural experiences? . . . I think doing something more experientially-based like the internships, providing strong professional development for our faculty leaders who are going to lead short-term programs abroad about how to build in field research or build relationships with in-country partners that are reciprocal and not just kind of touristic.

A key point here is that study abroad programming decisions are not necessarily static, but that they can and perhaps should be adjusted to address the academic needs and interests of students.

Institutions that are trying to diversify their study abroad population and institutions that serve students who have many responsibilities outside of school, first generation students, or students with a significant number of financial constraints may be well-served by short-term faculty led programs. An interviewee commented that:

> As we try to pitch this to more students and get the population to nudge at least a little beyond sort of middle-class white women in the sciences and humanities, shorter faculty-led programming can be more attractive to a student who otherwise wouldn't have thought of doing that. Or, you know, for other reasons is constrained from going abroad on a semester program through some other program provider. Feel a little bit less scary, I think, to a student who maybe has never left the country or whose family thinks it's a little suspect to be doing international education as part of the undergraduate degree.

Alternatively, provider programs may be attractive to students who are familiar and comfortable with much individual attention at their home institution. A participant stated:

> Those programs are already programs and so unlike an exchange program, you know, where there may be a little less on-site support, a good study abroad program offers a whole lot of onsite support – offers a structure here in the United States that is easy to work with for my office as well. By working with program providers, we give our students access to a very broad curriculum too. You know, some of those program providers are actually facilitating direct enrollment which is sort of our way of doing the equivalent of what would happen on exchange program. It's just more facilitated than if a student did a direct exchange with an institution. So I think, given that students who

come to an institution like, this sort of highly selective, pretty expensive, the expectation

of high touch is well satisfied by working with really good program providers. That kind

of experience continues throughout, you know, in a way that they're thinking about

programming, on-site student support, facilitated learning on-site, all of those things sort

of go along with the way a good program is structured. So our students tend to really

gravitate toward those.

One respondent also recommended that any institutions that choose to offer programming to

incoming first year students should do so in partnership with a provider, in order to mitigate a

potentially high level of risk, given that the student participants are new to the institutions and

therefore relatively unknown to them.

Student advising is also very important and institutional strategies may depend on the

needs of the student body and on the institution's general goals related to study abroad. For

example, a respondent described an institutional responsibility to inform students about any extra

fees or charges associated with study abroad as soon as possible, so that cost-conscious students

in particular can take this into account during their study abroad planning process. Additionally,

participants explained that when there is an institutional goal of diversifying study abroad

participation, outreach and advising is particularly critical. It is not enough to work only with

students who come to the study abroad office; the study abroad office must go to students. An

interviewee remarked that for first generation students:

Sometimes there's the sense that being in college is enough and so parents or families are

like, why would you want to do that and there's a lot more one-on-one that has to be done

to capture that student. If you have faculty giving those messages, that can really help,

but if you don't, then the study abroad office is doing a lot of that counseling.

Another respondent noted that years of efforts within the field of international education to diversify the study abroad population – "we sort of thought just by fixing some of the money issues and making more money available and just seeming more vaguely friendly, that somehow a broader range of students would show up to study abroad" – have not yet had much success. A more effective option is personalized, customized advising and outreach that addresses students' interests and goals. Additionally, this respondent noted that:

> For a lot of students when they come to college, it's the first time that they've sort of developed their own sophisticated language to talk about their own identity issues. And figuring out how to translate that into the study abroad environment, I think that's very hard to do and it's very labor-intensive, but I think it's sort of the next interesting frontier about really with integrity diversifying how we think about [study abroad] and how we think about students who participate.

In other words, in designing and marketing study abroad programming, international educators should think of students as individuals and whole persons, rather than just as students with particular majors or particular levels of financial need.

Theme #5: Financial and Academic Structures Affect Student Decisions

Student decisions about whether or not to participate in study abroad and what kind of programs to choose can be strongly influenced by institutional polices related to study abroad administration and structure. Policies that reinforce the benefits of study abroad and that allow students to see it as an expected and attainable part of one's academic program have the potential to increase study abroad participation. According to one interviewee:

> The more integral it is to normal education here, the easier it is for us to work and have students. You know, if it's like I have to pay for it extra and it's transfer credit and it's

really difficult, you know that's going to be a force to reduce the number of students studying abroad.

Credit and Grades

The interviews showed that policies related to study abroad credit and grades are one of the easiest ways for institutions to, intentionally or unintentionally, steer students to certain study abroad programs and away from others. In many ways, it was apparent from the participants' responses that faculty-led programs have built-in advantages. Typically, students on faculty-led programs receive regular institutional credit and grades and the exact classes are known ahead of time. Campus leaders may prefer these programs because they have a good deal more control over them and over their academic content than is the case with other study abroad programs. For programs which are not taught by an institution's own faculty – exchanges, direct enroll, or provider programs – a determination has to be made about how the course from abroad will count toward the students' degree progress. The ease with which this happens may be highly influential on whether or not students choose to participate in these types of programs, or if they opt instead for faculty-led options. If an institution has a robust credit transfer articulation database, then much of the uncertainty and extra work for students going on non-faculty-led programs is removed. If an institution does not have such a database, this can be a significant hurdle for students. One interviewee commented that:

> The faculty-led programs are, I think, the best supported with the most structure behind them and the students who are going on exchanges are really on their own to figure out the process, to figure out where to go, to figure out what courses would transfer. They're basically reinventing the wheel, each student that goes because there isn't this database. And so, it's a real deterrent and I've talked to a lot of students who said yeah, I tried to do

an exchange and I failed and so I'm just not going to do that. It's too hard. So yeah, until there's a better support system for students and especially the course transfer, I think it's going to be hard to really promote these other types of programs.

Even in the absence of a transfer equivalency database, though, there are ways for institutions to ease the academic path for students who want to participate in non-faculty-led programs. An interviewee mentioned, for example, the general importance of students having personal and consistent support throughout their college experience. In terms of study abroad, this means that even in the absence of established credit equivalencies, if students "technically have to go to different offices to get approvals, there is a . . . internal communication flow that can help support this holistically."

Additionally, it is important that faculty and staff at institutions have a clear understanding of policies related to study abroad credit. According to a respondent:

> If an institution isn't clear on what their policy around transfer credits or credit equivalencies are, it makes it much more difficult for students to then understand . . . the value of study abroad and you know, that the work that they're doing overseas is going to be counting toward their degree.

This participant added that even one student having a negative experience with the process of trying to obtain credit approvals can have a ripple effect as other students learn about that negative experience. A couple of respondents stated or implied that another potential deterrent to students participating in non-faculty-led programs, and particularly non-faculty-led programs that last a semester or longer, is when departments limit how much major credit a student can bring back from abroad.

In terms of potential barriers to student participation in faculty-led programs, one participant referred to a situation in which faculty-led program offerings are precarious. If faculty-led programs are highly dependent on the availability of individual faculty members or if they have to go through an approval process every single year, this can potentially be disadvantageous in terms of student academic planning and could hurt enrollments. The sooner students know that a faculty-led program will be offered, the sooner they can start to account for it in their academic plans.

Participant interviews showed that institutional policies regarding non-approved study abroad programs can be fairly innocuous or they can strongly discourage students from participating in these types of programs. The former case may only require that a student seek permission to go on the program, and approval for the classes he or she plans to take. In latter cases, deterrents may include requiring a student who goes on a non-approved program to withdraw from their home university for the term or forfeiting their financial aid (and possibly raising questions about their ability to get it back).

The question of how grades from study abroad programs are treated can also affect student choices. The argument in favor of counting grades from an abroad experience is to signal rigor and relevance to a student's full academic program. As one participant remarked, "we didn't want to send a message that you can just kind of go abroad and barely pass and that was sufficient. We wanted to make sure that students were taking it very seriously and it was an academic experience." Another interviewee states, "I think, if you really and truly value the international experience, then the legit credit with grades is appropriate." A different respondent explains, however, the potential downside of counting grades from abroad:

As far as whether you bring the grade back or not, I hate to say it but sometimes students might shy away from study abroad if they think that their grade will transfer back. Because they want to have a good time and relax and they don't understand, they're going to be different academic system, there's not going to be office hours, it's a different classroom dynamic, the relationship with the professor is different. There's only one exam or two and everything rides on that and your really good students don't want to wreck their GPA by going abroad.

Participant Costs for Study Abroad

Institution's financial policies can also have a large impact on students' study abroad decisions. One argument that can be made in favor of a home school tuition model is that it evens out program prices, thereby allowing students to choose the program that is the best match academically, rather than selecting a program because it has the lowest price tag. Referring to the home school tuition model, an interviewee from a private institution noted that:

It really changes the way we do advising conversations too because students don't have to care how much their program is, they choose the one that's best for them. That doesn't always mean that they choose the most expensive or the least expensive one because that [price] often has nothing to do with it. It's the one that's the best fit for program structure, curriculum, types of experiences on-site that works best for them. So knowing that it's not the money piece that's the driver in student selections but rather it's the overall sort of character and quality of the program, it's great. You know, I think it lends the whole process a lot more integrity because students are able to really thoroughly consider what's best for them . . . . I try to remind people that is a huge perk of having the home school tuition policy with aid travel.

A respondent from a public institution with a program-fee model conceded this point, but added that:

> One of the issues with our model, and this is something we like to overcome, is that based on our model, every program has a unique price. And the problem with that is . . . for some students, price is going to be a factor they're going to have to consider when choosing the program. And that's something we don't want to have exist, but of course you know the solution isn't – to us, the solution isn't making every program more expensive . . . . Since we also offer scholarships and other things to try to mute that, the impact of finances on program choice.

Policies related to the use of institutional financial aid on study abroad programs can also affect students' decisions. A respondent indicated that moving to a home school tuition model with financial aid portability may increase interest in semester-long programs, as opposed to shorter term summer programs, since such a model means that a student would be paying their regular fall or spring tuition and getting their regular financial aid, whereas a summer program would involve spending money that the student might not normally spend. However, if an institution has to limit its program offerings in order to make this model work financially, then the selection of allowed programs could lead to "telling the students a story without them really, without the institution maybe realizing what story they're kind of telling." In other words, if an institution cannot afford to offer programs in Asia, what message are students receiving about how much the institution values that entire region of the world?

A home tuition, portable aid model may well have the effect of discouraging students from participating in exchange or direct enroll programs. As one respondent said, "so there really is almost zero incentive for students in this environment to participate on an exchange program

because they're getting less services but it's the same money." Referring to this model, another respondent stated that, "it would then build a culture of using third-party provider programs and maybe you do that because you have a small office, you don't have the bandwidth to run your own programs or maybe just feel like using providers gets students access to all over the world."

Other Factors

A couple of respondents brought up the effect that program offerings can themselves have on students. This was primarily in the context of exchange programs. If exchange programs are the main mechanism that a college or university uses to send students abroad, this can effectively limit study abroad participation, because of the need to balance fairly closely the number of incoming and outgoing students. For example, if only three students per year generally travel from a university abroad to a partner university in the U.S., then only three students from that U.S. university can generally go to the international partner university.

Additionally, exchanges and direct enroll programs can be challenging for students if sufficient support is not offered by the home and/or host university. This is especially true when the lack of structure that is typical of these types of programs is contrasted with the support offered by provider and faculty-led programs. It's important for institutions that want to maintain robust exchange and direct enroll options to think about what they can do to change this narrative. According to one respondent, it's important that institutions "are trying to think more about the outreach that they have to students while they're abroad and trying to kind of support them not just in pre-departure but throughout their experience there."

Theme #6: Programs, Structure, and Policy Affect Faculty Engagement

Structural and administrative decisions about study abroad can affect the relationship between study abroad professionals and faculty on a campus. This is turn can have a direct effect on the extent of campus internationalization. An interviewee explained this relationship:

Faculty have a lot of influence when they're serving on committees, when they are making curricular decisions, when they're deciding to put an international requirement into a major. So that's where I think faculty buy-in is so critical because they are . . . . making or breaking those decisions. But at the same time I've found that it's challenging . . . you have champions that are going to be champions of study abroad no matter what and then you have faculty who maybe, it's just not a priority for them . . . . I've seen it where I've been able to convert somebody from, you know, oh what is study abroad to really being a big supporter of it, but it doesn't happen on a large scale. So it's kind of like, you have to leverage the people who are already really supportive of it and then do what you can with their support. But I think, at the same time, faculty are themselves busy, they're pulled in a lot of different directions and so unless they are really intimately involved in something, it's hard to really have that sustainable connection where it really makes an impact.

Given this, how specifically do the policies, structures, and administrative decisions that study abroad office leaders make affect faculty involvement and buy-in with study abroad? According to a respondent, the relationship between individuals in the study abroad office and faculty can be especially challenging in an environment where faculty view the SAO as "transactional." Under such circumstances, it becomes particularly crucial for study abroad personnel to connect with faculty in a way that builds mutual confidence. One interviewee

commented that, "we need to put a whole lot of effort into . . . developing those trust relationships and having enough knowledge about all the departments to do that advising with enough academic integrity so that we can earn the faculty's trust." Regarding a push toward a more centralized model than had previously existed at the institution, another respondent stated that they try to "assur[e] schools and colleges that we're not looking for your academic control or changing your strategic development, it's providing the structural tool to allow you then to focus on your academics and your strategic direction and goals."

Providing opportunities for faculty to lead programs abroad can be a highly effective means of increasing study abroad buy-in from faculty, especially since it can help tie what faculty might otherwise see as simply an opportunity for students to the faculty's own interests. One respondent refers to:

> . . . faculty-led programs, which could lead to exchanges which could lead to collaborative research which could lead to relationships between our faculty members and similar faculty members in similar disciplines abroad, that can have a direct impact on their life and on their research and on their work.

Several of the interviewees noted, though, that administrators in both the study abroad office and the institution more generally have to create conditions which encourage faculty to want to lead programs abroad. According to one interviewee:

> In my sense, faculty need time, money, and their ability to continue their research, their independent, their individual research. And their concerns about promotion and tenure. These things are kind of all in a bundle with faculty and I find that if you don't look after those kind of four things, they get very nervous about why should I be doing this, it's just

causing too much concern . . . . and they have family matters and partner matters to worry

about as well.

Another respondent brought to mind Rhodes et al.'s (2014) comments about the wide-ranging

responsibilities of study abroad administrators by describing the kinds of logistical support and

benefits that a study abroad office could offer to faculty. These include helping with financial

matters, providing emergency training, and helping faculty think through the pedagogical aspects

for teaching a short-term course abroad and integrating the local context into it. Participants

concluded that study abroad office administrators have to help faculty see the value of this

assistance, though, because otherwise even structures and policies that are meant to protect

faculty who lead programs abroad from a liability and financial standpoint can be seen as

burdensome.

Sometimes finding faculty to lead study abroad programs is easy. They may approach the

study abroad office or their department with a program they would like to lead abroad, and

everything moves forward from there. However, respondents noted that there are also challenges

associated with recruiting faculty to participate in study abroad programs, and actions have to be

taken to counter this. Some of these are financial, as expected in stage six, reinforcement, of

Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle. For example, are there "financial incentives" for

faculty to lead programs abroad? Can faculty continue to receive their regular department salary

when they are teaching abroad for a semester? Aside from monetary issues, participants brought

up questions related to how leading a study abroad program affects a faculty member's

evaluations, or prospects for promotion and tenure. Can they afford to take time away from their

research? One interviewee summarized these issues:

I think most of us . . . end up working with pretty much the same handful of champions, you know, who are really motivated and are doing this because it's a passion for them, it's something that they have a lot of intrinsic motivation around . . . . Why do faculty engage in internationalization? . . . [There has] to be this kind of perfect convergence of their personal life, their professional life and where they were in their tenure process in order for it to work for them.

A study abroad option that may make this convergence a little easier is the embedded program. Embedded programs can be a very effective way to involve faculty with study abroad. These programs have the advantage of not requiring faculty to be away from home and their research for long – perhaps just a spring break or part of a winter break. According to one participant, another advantage to embedded programs, which also involve an on-campus component, is that this structure, "helps to internationalize the curriculum as well because faculty are thinking more about . . . how do I talk about this international experience as an integral part of this course and not just as an entity that's taught outside of the U.S. and that's it."

Respondents discussed the fact that faculty can also be involved in study abroad in a variety of ways aside from leading programs. They can serve on committees related to study abroad which may be tasked with responsibilities ranging from approving proposed study abroad programs to making decisions related to health, safety, and security, particularly when international travel is proposed to areas with State Department travel warnings. They approve – or do not approve – study abroad credit. They make policies about how many credits from abroad can count toward a major or minor. Although sometimes faculty involvement can be perceived by study abroad administrators as another hoop to jump through, it is advisable for the

study abroad office to try to find ways to involve faculty in its work, as involvement often increases buy-in. One respondent described a situation which involved:

> . . . invit[ing] lots of people into the conversation to make sure people are on board but then also giving everyone the opportunity to decide what it is we think we mean when we're talking about internationalization and why we think it matters. And not just sort of in a superficial way, but in an intellectual, educational way.

Another respondent described a holistic approach for getting faculty involved in broad campus internationalization:

> I also think faculty, they are the ones delivering education to complete a degree and they have areas of scholarship and inquiry that needs to be nurtured and nourished. So they might already be doing conferences or papers or were going on sabbatical and teaching in other places or just doing research on certain part of the world even if they never get on a plane and they drive the curriculum. They drive how students are being educated, so faculty should always be supported in advancing their scholarship and also be reminded that even if you're in the school of business or engineering, this isn't just for humanities majors. And so faculty development programs, access to being able to teach abroad with partners for their own sabbatical or something or being able to teach our students on faculty-led programs, faculty need access and they need to be partners in the endeavor in my opinion.

Theme #7: No One Best Answer

There is no one best answer when it comes to designing or redesigning the administrative and financial structures of study abroad programs at an institution. If there were a central theme to emerge from this study, this was it. Comments related to this theme from participants include:

"So I would say right off the bat there is absolutely not one best way to do this."

"I would say based on my experience, there's not consistency. I don't know if there ever would be. But I see different models in different places."

"There's still a lot that gets interpreted based on an individual campus."

"It's so interesting in this field that it really is very different and administrators like to compare things across the board but it's, there's so many other variables that don't get described in that kind of analysis that you're comparing apples to oranges."

It was apparent from the interviews that different study abroad-related structures and policies suit different institutions, depending on their characteristics, the characteristics of their students, and institutional and international education leaders' goals for their students, faculty, and campus internationalization overall. Participants pointed out that it is important to keep in mind that current structures and policies may be historical artifacts – they made sense at one point, or were simply put into place at one point, and have not necessarily been reconsidered since. Additionally, even when there is consistency regarding institutional features and objectives, decisions and methods can vary. Several respondents, for example, made comments that demonstrated that even when all parties have the best interests of high-financial need students in mind, conclusions about how to help these students participate in study abroad can be different. Referring to fees, one interviewee preferred to:

> . . . try to err on the side of not tack on an additional cost to students but of course that can be the only way to fund an office or a helpful way to fund an office. Sometimes those kinds of fees are also used in part to then give scholarships to students to travel who need it which I certainly see the value in.

Another remarked that:

I was at a Forum conference and there was . . . a special focus on the idea, on financial

modeling and institutions and I went in with the idea that, you know, of course we want

to make it so that it's really affordable for students so if we're . . . we don't have to always

charge them home tuition because it might be less expensive for them to go from a

private schools directly into a study abroad program, for example. And I was really

convinced of that and then in that meeting there were my colleagues who were like, no,

it's better if they're paying home tuition because then that ensures more financial access

because then you know aid is applied . . . . I was like, but if they're high need, they're

going to get that aid, you know, anyway so it was just really interesting that something

that I thought was really straightforward, there's just so many different opinions on how

to address these issues.

Several respondents noted that all this difference remains even though industry standards,

such as the Forum on Education Abroad's Standards of Good Practice, exist. Nine general

standards compose the Standards of Good Practice. They include items related to

study abroad academics, student advising, funding, and general policies and processes (Forum,

2015). Additionally, the Forum articulates a Code of Ethics for the field (Forum, 2011). In spite

of these general guidelines, though, the differing circumstances of individual colleges and

universities and the different decisions that leaders at various post-secondary institutions make

lead to a variety of administrative and structural outcomes for study abroad operations.

Results Summary

Twelve semi-structured interviews were conducted with senior study abroad

administrators who collectively represented over 230 years of professional service in this field.

While respondents sometimes had differing opinions on specific topics, a hallmark of the

interviews was how thoughtfully and genuinely participants engaged in these discussions. It was clear that many of the individuals I spoke with enjoyed the opportunity to pause and think deeply about the field to which they have devoted their careers. The subsequent analysis of the data from the interviews resulted in seven main themes. The themes include the wide variety of structures and practices involved in study abroad administration; the effects that students and institutional type, finances, leadership, and culture have on study abroad structures and policies; the influences that lead to student and faculty involvement with study abroad; and the notion that there is no single formula for success when it comes to study abroad administration. These themes are discussed in the context of the research questions and in light of this study's guiding theories in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Participating in study abroad opportunities can benefit students academically, personally, and in their future careers; student participation in study abroad can also help institutions achieve their internationalization goals. Even more plentiful than the potential benefits of study abroad, though, are the options that college and university officials have when determining how to structure and administer their institutions' study abroad programs. The decisions that institutional leaders make in this area depend upon a variety of factors and those decisions in turn have wide-ranging effects on matters such as the types of programs that students participate in and how involved faculty are in study abroad operations. This study sought to understand how, why, and to what effect university administrators select particular organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad. In this final chapter, the three research questions will be revisited in light of the results obtained and the general implications of the study and suggestions for future research will be discussed.

Research Question #1

In this study, the first research question asked what organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies senior study abroad professionals perceive to differ across the study abroad programs of colleges and universities. There is considerable literature available that documents study-abroad related organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies (Brockington, 2002; Engle & Engle, 2003; Heisel & Kissler, 2010; Heitmann, 2007-2008; Helms & Brajkovic, 2017; Kwai, 2017). However, the purpose of this question was to

examine how study abroad professionals chose to discuss these structures and policies, noting what they focused on and what differences and options they explored. Interview questions sought to explore participants' perceptions about study abroad policies and structures broadly in today's U.S. postsecondary education landscape and were not specifically related to the one institution with which each participant was currently affiliated. Responses from individual semi-structured interviews with 12 participants fell under the categories of:

- Differences in type of study abroad experiences offered;

- Different methods for funding study abroad offices and for charging students to participate in study abroad programs;

- Several decision points related to study abroad credits and grades;

- Varying degrees of study abroad administrative centralization or decentralization;

- Differences in where study abroad offices appear in organizational charts; and

- Differences related to study abroad office staffing.

This extensive amount of variation is to be expected considering Pfeffer and Salancik's (1978/2003) resource dependency theory. Colleges and universities have varying environmental needs; internal and external constituencies such as faculty, prospective students, and current students have differential amounts of power; and institutional leaders have diverse interpretations of their organizations' vulnerabilities. It is therefore not surprising that, for example, faculty-led programs are prominent at one institution while third-party provider programs are the most common study abroad offering at another. The former case may be a response to an institutional culture of strong faculty control over the curriculum, while the latter scenario may be a response to widespread student interest in studying abroad in locations where administrators prefer to offer highly structured programs with on-site, local staff.

It is also possible, though, that the study abroad-related structures and policies in place at an institution are based on historical reasons, or simply reflect what has always been done. As Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003) note, leaders cannot pay attention to everything in their environment. Senior institutional leaders have many critical issues competing for their attention and even study abroad directors, who are more narrowly focused on the topic of international education, also have to deal with other pressing concerns such as human resource issues, student crises, and compliance and reporting. Unless an important stakeholder focuses attention on study abroad policies and structures, the status quo may win out over deliberate analysis and possible revision of these matters.

Alternatively, an evolving environment can also usher in change, or at least create a situation where it is possible. For instance, when an institution was in the early stages of Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle, such as awareness and commitment, having study abroad operations based in departments and colleges may have been the best way of leveraging limited resources and building interest among students, faculty, and administrators. Once an institution reaches the review and reinforcement stages of internationalization, however, a more centralized structure that avoids redundancies and ensures consistency and compliance may often be more effective. Similarly, building a database of standing study abroad credit approvals for exchange, third party, and direct enroll programs may not be possible during the awareness, commitment, planning, or early operationalization stages, but may become more feasible later in the operationalization process or during review and reinforcement. This is because in the later stage of the cycle, more resources are generally in place, internalization activities are more broadly accepted as part of standard practice at the institution, and faculty and administrators

may potentially be rewarded for taking the time to do the work that is necessary to build the credit database.

An important conclusion related to this research question is the notion that study abroad administrators can and perhaps should get creative. Study abroad is no longer limited to the junior year abroad format that initially developed more than 100 years ago (Hoffa, 2007; Twombly et al., 2012). Embedded programs, which combine an on-campus class with an off-campus component, are an example of a fairly recent development in study abroad offerings. Technology can be used to connect students and faculty in the U.S. to students and faculty abroad; sometimes this is a stand-alone option for internationalization, and sometimes it is combined with travel and in-person meetings. Some institutions require their students to complete a study abroad experience, while others do not require it, but do engage in extensive fund raising to make international program participation feasible for as many students as possible. When it comes to study abroad-related structures and policies, study abroad office directors and other university leaders should look for innovative options that specifically meet the needs of their institutions and students.

Research Question #2

The second research question examined factors that senior study abroad professionals perceive to be relevant to decisions regarding organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies for study abroad. Why do they consider these to be relevant or important and what affects the relative importance of different factors at different institutions? This question sought to move beyond outlining difference and into explaining it. According to resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003), organizations do not exist in a vacuum but instead operate within an environment in which they are dependent upon other entities for certain

resources. Organizational leaders make choices that attempt to minimize the vulnerabilities that exist because of these needs. My analysis of the interview data, couched within this logic, led to several conclusions.

For example, it is clear that colleges and universities require students in order to fulfill their academic missions and to generate tuition. Study abroad offerings can be used to recruit students, or to bolster an institution's academic reputation. However, different types of programs – in terms of structure, length, and academic content – may appeal to different students, depending on their majors, interests, goals, financial means, and personal circumstances. Furthermore, different models of charging for study abroad are attractive to different students and families, depending on their financial situations, and have different effects on institutional budgets. An analysis of the interviews also showed that some study abroad directors believe that limiting study abroad offerings in an effort to keep costs down can ultimately be a counterproductive choice if it ends up having a negative effect on student enrollment in the institution. Therefore, when determining which programs to offer and how to charge for them, institutional leaders and international educators must consider several factors such as the college or university's overarching reasons for offering study abroad programming, the academic interests of current and potential students, and the financial flexibility of the institution and its students.

Additionally, the results of this study showed that college and university leaders and international education administrators should consider the full range of costs and benefits associated with their decisions. Different program types are costly to institutions in different ways. For example, the financial costs of third-party provider programs are readily apparent because of the outgoing payments an institution must make in a home school tuition model, or

because of the tuition an institution foregoes in a fee-based payment model. However, exchange programs can also be financially costly to an institution in terms of the number of staff required to successfully administer them. Many institutions offer a variety of study abroad program types, which is a method of diversification that may, according to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003), reduce the dependencies that can develop when institutions rely on only one type of program. For instance, when Andrew Cuomo began investigating the relationship between SAOs and third-party providers in 2007, this potentially created a vulnerability for colleges and universities that only or primarily offered third-party programs (Redden, 2007). However, offering a broad portfolio of program types can also be costly in the sense that it creates new constituencies – faculty who lead programs, partner universities abroad, other members of a consortium – to whom administrators potentially have to be responsive (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003). Similarly, different strategies for risk mitigation are costly in various ways. Using third- party providers or a full-service international insurance company may result in large direct charges. However, the alternatives, such as hiring enough staff to handle these matters internally or being inattentive to these concerns, can also be quite burdensome – financially or due to the assumption of high levels of risk.

Based on participant responses, it was also apparent that institution size, mission, the relative strength of faculty governance, and the management choices made by senior leaders affect policies and study abroad administrative structures. For example, public and private colleges and universities operate in different legal and financial environments and research universities and liberal arts colleges operate to some degree according to different missions. An institution with tens of thousands of students faces different circumstances than an institution with hundreds of students. These factors affect the policy and structural options available to

administrators, and the choices that they make. According to Pfeffer and Salancik (1978/2003), when there are competing demands, those that reflect an institution's most critical dependencies receive attention. At a research university where the leadership is focused on rapidly increasing grant revenue and research productivity, offering financial incentives for faculty to lead study abroad programs (and thus be away, however briefly, from their research) may be less likely than would be the case at a teaching-intensive liberal arts college where administrators are focused on designing study abroad offerings that would appeal to prospective students in a competitive marketplace.

It should also be noted that at least some components of an institution's environment can change, resulting in different considerations for administrators making study abroad-related decisions. A public state flagship university is not suddenly going to morph into a private liberal arts college. However, that state university might see a shift in the percentage of its students who are majoring in fields where internships are the norm. In such a case, study abroad and institutional leaders may want to rethink the portfolio of programs they offer and include more that have a work placement component. Additionally, in recent years an increasing focus, both by those internal to institutions and those external to them, is on what one respondent called the "duty of care" when it comes to study abroad and risk management. This concern is a driver toward centralized structures and/or policies that ensure a certain level of consistency across all of an institution's study abroad options.

Additionally, the literature (Harari, 1992; Skidmore et al., 2005; Stohl, 2007) and the results of this study stress the importance of widespread faculty commitment to internationalization and the need for high-level leaders to provide both symbolic and practical support to related activities and goals. The critical role of faculty is expected within the context of Pfeffer and Salancik's

(1978/2003) resource dependency theory, because at most colleges and universities, shared governance, tradition, and academic freedom combine to make (tenured) faculty fairly powerful. Similarly, senior leaders are important because of their ability to allocate fiscal, human, and other resources and because of their role in influencing an institution's culture. When broad-based dedication to study abroad and internationalization activities has been established – as one expects at the later stages of Knight's (1994) internationalization model – it might be an opportune time to revisit policies related to study abroad credits and grades or to consider how faculty involvement in study abroad is valued during the tenure and promotion process. Study abroad office administrators who wish to see changes in their institutions' study abroad-related structures and policies should be attuned to their environment, nurture networks of supporters in various offices and at various ranks throughout the university, and be prepared to take or encourage others to take strategic action when appropriate.

Research Question #3

The third research question asked what senior study abroad professionals perceive to be the outcome- and process-based effects of organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad. This research question sought to determine the ramifications of the previously explained differences in study abroad structures and policies.

Based on participant comments and as alluded to in the discussion of Research Question #1, findings indicated that in some cases, these outcomes met the goal of the policies that were put into place, but in other circumstances, they were likely the unexpected consequences of a structure or policy that was chosen or that evolved for historical or unrelated reasons. For example, an institution may have a flagship study abroad program in a particular location because the professor who started the program decades earlier had connections there, not because

it is necessarily the best fit for students' interests today. Senior administrators and study abroad office leaders should regularly assess study abroad related structures and policies to determine if they have helpful, harmful, or neutral effects on desired study abroad outcomes.

This research showed that college and university leaders and international educators can use study abroad-related structures and policies to influence study abroad and internationalization at their institutions. For instance, funding the study abroad office directly, rather than requiring it to generate its own revenue, can increase central control over the study abroad office. Additionally, financial policies can be used to steer students toward certain types of programs. A home school tuition and portable financial aid model, for example, may encourage participation in third-party provider programs. A fee-based or cost recovery model that results in a wide range of program costs may encourage more study abroad participation by students with lesser financial means. However, in the absence of study abroad scholarships, such a model may cause these students to congregate in lower cost programs.

Academic policies can also steer students toward certain types of programs. The lack of a credit transfer database and/or the existence of an onerous credit approval processes may make students less likely to participate in exchange programs. Counting grades from all study abroad programs in students' GPAs may encourage some students to study abroad, confident in what this signals about academic quality and academic congruence with their home institution, while discouraging other students who are concerned about negatively impacting their GPAs while they acclimate to a new academic environment abroad.

Furthermore, study abroad-related structures and policies can encourage or discourage faculty involvement in study abroad and internationalization on their campus. As expected by Abes et al. (2002) and Goode (2007-2008), faculty may need logistical support from a study

abroad office in order to effectively and appropriately lead study abroad programs. If study abroad staff provide such support while making it clear that specific academic decisions are the purview of the faculty member, faculty may be more willing to teach on programs abroad. Aside from leading programs abroad, though, the results of this study made it abundantly clear that faculty are central to study abroad programming and policies in many ways. International education administrators and institutional leaders can make strategic choices to enhance faculty members' buy-in and involvement in study abroad operations. For example, Dwyer (2004), O'Rear et al. (2012), Vande Berg (2009), and Xu et al. (2013) found that study abroad participation was associated with positive, general academic outcomes. Study abroad administrators and institutional leaders could consider conducting research at their own institutions to try to determine how various study abroad programs affect students academically. This has the potential to not only lead to program improvement, but to also provide the kind of data and evidence that might convince skeptical faculty of the value of study abroad.

Finally, study abroad structures and policies can affect and drive campus internationalization, but may not generally affect the inclusion of these topics in an institution's mission statement or strategic plan. Senior leadership, institutional mission, and the absence or presence of competing priorities are instead key, as these set the overall tone and direction of the college or university. However, if study abroad and internationalization activities become important enough to faculty and students and if they are at least financially neutral and perhaps beneficial, they may become priorities where once they were not. This could cause a shift from awareness to commitment among senior leaders in Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle.

Implications and Future Research

As theme #7 in the results makes clear, there seems to be no one best way for international educators and college and university administrators to structure study abroad operations on their campuses. However, guided by the other themes and insights that emerged through this study, campus leaders can engage in thoughtful and intentional decision-making about study abroad related structures and policies, more aware of key points to consider and of the potential outcomes of their choices. Examples of two decision-making guides resulting from this research are shown below. These models depend on the exact circumstances and environments of individual institutions but outline important considerations for decision-makers to take into account.
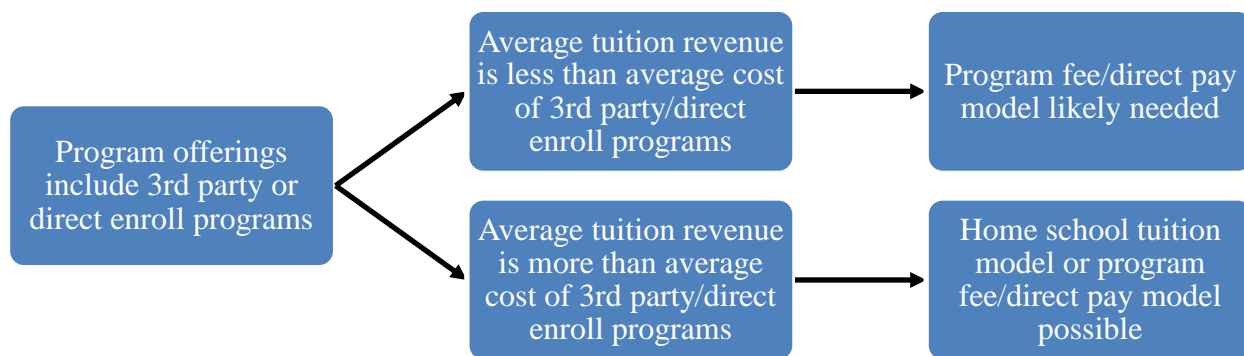
Program offerings include 3rd party or direct enroll programs → Average tuition revenue is less than average cost of 3rd party/direct enroll programs → Program fee/direct pay model likely needed

Average tuition revenue is more than average cost of 3rd party/direct enroll programs → Home school tuition model or program fee/direct pay model possible

Figure 2. Decision-making guide related to charging students to participate in study abroad programs.

As Figure 2 shows, if study abroad administrators choose to offer third-party programs, they must then assess both their average real tuition revenue and the cost of the third-party

programs when determining how students will pay for these programs. Officials at public

colleges and universities will likely need a program fee or direct pay model, while those at

private colleges and universities, depending on their tuition and their discount rate, may have
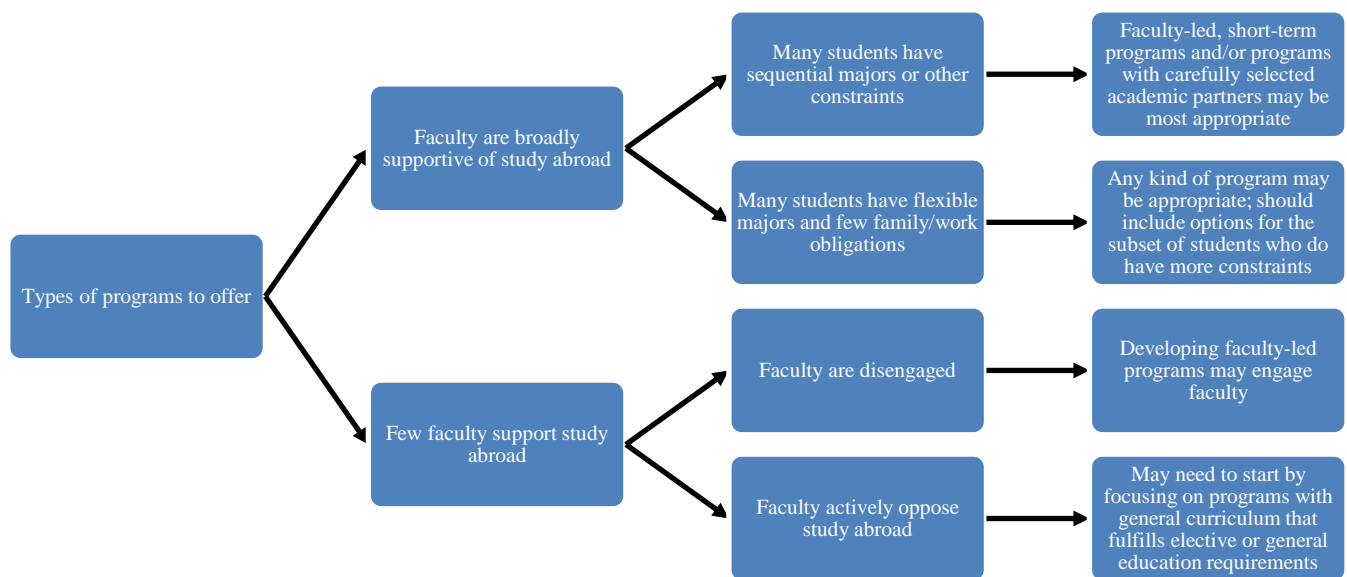
more options.

Figure 3. Decision-making guide related to types of study abroad program offerings.

Figure 3 addresses what factors college and university administrators should take into

account when considering their study abroad program portfolio. In this model, considerations

related to faculty come before considerations about students, which could imply an institution

that has strong faculty governance and relatively minimal concerns about enrollment. At an

institution where boosting the number of students is the number one priority, the model may look

different and factors related to students' interests and circumstances may need to come before

those related to faculty.

This study suggests several interesting areas for future research. More general case studies for a variety of institutions could be instructive, especially if these occur and can be compared across different political and economic contexts – during Democratic or Republican presidencies, during economic booms or busts, or during times of relative peace or increased conflict. Another potential area for future research would be case studies specifically focused on institutions that have made changes to study abroad-related policies, procedures, or structures. A close examination of the decision-making process and of the outcomes of the changes would be an opportunity to explore how the differences, factors, and effects identified in this study play out in practice and to determine if there were other important elements not identified in this research. Alternatively, an action research design at an institution where leaders were trying to reach a goal, such as increasing the number of students who study abroad on programs that last longer than six weeks, could be very interesting. According to Merriam and Tisdell (2016, pp. 54-55), active research occurs when the researcher seeks to enhance a practice or lead an organizational change as part of the research design. This kind of study could examine, for example, how changing the way students are charged to study abroad affects participation patterns and the kinds of programs students choose. It could also be instructive to explore some of the same topics covered in this study from the perspective of faculty, students, or other university administrators, such as current study abroad advisors or staff from Registrar's, Bursar's, or Financial Aid offices.

Additionally, this study focused on high-level structures, policies, and outcomes related to study abroad. It did not actively explore the specifics of program design and how this may affect study abroad students' learning and development. A few participants mentioned or alluded to the fact that how study abroad programs are designed can influence students' cultural

immersion and learning. A study that explored this more deeply, examining how study abroad policies and structures affect specific student learning outcomes, could be very interesting. Along the same lines, respondents mentioned ongoing efforts in the field of international education to appeal to a more diverse student population – including students from lower income backgrounds, first generation students, and male students. Research that focuses on how study abroad-related structures and policies directly affect such efforts and that explores how students from underrepresented groups experience such policies and structures could be very valuable.

Conclusion

U.S. institutions of higher education vary in their administrative and fiscal structures and policies for study abroad programs. This study sought to fill a gap in the literature by exploring and explaining those differences and their effects. Three broad research questions were addressed through the analysis of interviews with senior study abroad professionals and with the guidance of resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978/2003) and Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle.

Just as it is clear that the Forum on Education Abroad's Standards of Good Practice (Forum, 2015) provide the equivalent of guardrails rather than a road map, the interviews conducted with study abroad experts and described here provide the basis for decision-making guides for college and university leaders and international educators to use as they consider their study abroad programming. Key questions for decision-makers to ask include:

- What type of institution is it?
    - Is it public or private? How many students are enrolled?
    - What is the institution's mission, and how does internationalization fit in the stated mission?

- o How financially healthy is the institution?

- Who are the students being served?

  - o What are their majors?

  - o What financial means do students have?

  - o What are student and family expectations related to study abroad experiences?

- What kinds of study abroad programs do institutional leaders, including faculty, want students to experience?

- How involved are faculty in study abroad? Can and should they be more involved?

Exploring these questions will help decision-makers to determine what is possible, financially, academically, and culturally, and to then choose programs and make policies and administrative decisions that serve to advance their institutions through Knight's (1994) internationalization cycle.

College and university leaders and international educators have the ability to use organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies to shape study abroad outcomes and internationalization on their campuses. The first steps are identifying desired outcomes and completing an environmental scan by analyzing campus culture, the student population, the institutional mission, financial resources, faculty attitudes and activities, and constraints and opportunities. Leaders can then identify the structures and policies that may help them best achieve their goals within the context of their unique circumstances. The keys are to make deliberate and intentional decisions, rather than relying upon notions of what has always been

done or what other institutions do, and to be as fully aware as possible of the potential effects of those decisions.

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APPENDIX A

GENERAL INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Topic: Background

- Tell me about your professional background. (Probes: How long have you worked at your current institution? At what other institutions have you worked; what positions have you held?)

- Describe your current job responsibilities.

Topic: Organizational, Fiscal, and Administrative Structures and Policies

- When you think about study abroad administration broadly and particularly about study abroad for undergraduates, what options do institutions have when considering how to structure their study abroad operations? (Probes: Centralized vs. decentralized, chief international officer, types of programs offered)

- What you think about study abroad administration broadly and particularly about study abroad for undergraduates, what options do institutions have in terms of financial policies? (Probes: How students are charged to participate, what financial aid students can use)

- If there are other important policy choices you think institutions make regarding study abroad administration, please describe those. (Probes: Including internationalization in mission statement and strategic plan, policies regarding study abroad credit)

Topics: Factors that Colleges and University Administrators Consider

- What factors or circumstances do you think college and university administrators consider when making decisions about how to structure study abroad administration? Why do you think these are important?

- What factors or circumstances do you think college and university administrators consider when making decisions about study abroad related financial policies? Why do you think these are important?

- What factors do you think college and university administrators consider when making decisions about other policies? Why do you think these are important?

- How do you think the relative importance of different factors varies by institution? (Probes: Does it matter if an institution is public or private? Large, medium, or small? The mission of the institution? Prestige of the institution? How many Pell eligible students the institution has? How tuition dependent the institution is? If it has had a high-profile problem related to study abroad? How well-established internationalization activities are at the institution?)

Topic: Effects of Organizational, Fiscal, and Administrative Structures and Policies

- How do different decisions about organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad affect faculty involvement in study abroad? (Probes: What structures or policies make faculty more or less likely to contribute to program development, to lead programs, to conduct site visits or participate in program evaluation, to help with foreign credit evaluation?)

- How do different decisions about organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad affect risk management and study abroad? (Probes: How

do different structures and policies affect rules about studying abroad somewhere that has a travel warning? How do they affect interactions with university counsel? How do they affect the chain of command or plan of action in times of crisis?)

- How do different decisions about organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad affect overall internationalization of the institution? (Probes: What leads to widespread internationalization and makes it part of an institution's culture? How does internationalization come to be included in mission statements and strategic plans?)

- How do different decisions about organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad affect student participation in study abroad? (Probes: Number of students who study abroad, how long they study abroad, the type of program in which students participate)

Topic: In closing

- Is there anything you wanted to talk about that we didn't cover?

- To whom else would you recommend that I speak to about this? Why? Would you introduce me to him or her by email?

APPENDIX B

CONSENT LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF GEORGIA
CONSENT LETTER

Understanding Differences in Study Abroad Administration Structures and Policies

Dear Participant,

My name is Becky Gunter and I am a student in the Executive Doctorate in Higher Education Management program at the University of Georgia under the supervision of Professor Karen Webber. I am inviting you to take part in a research study.

The purpose of this study is to understand expert perspectives regarding why and how university administrators select particular organizational, administrative, and fiscal structures and policies related to study abroad administration and the effects of those decisions. My general research questions are:

- What organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies affect the study abroad programs of colleges and universities?
- What factors do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be relevant to decisions regarding organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies for study abroad?
- What do senior study abroad professionals perceive to be the outcome and process-based effects of organizational, fiscal, and administrative structures and policies related to study abroad?

Study Procedures:
You are being invited to participate in this research study because you have held a director-level or higher position in study abroad administration for five or more years and you have given at least one study abroad-related conference presentation or have held a leadership position in The Forum on Education Abroad or NAFSA: Association of International Educators within the past five years.

If you agree to participate in this study:

- We will collect information about your opinions regarding the importance of, reasons for, and effects of different study-abroad related structures and policies.
- We will ask you to participate in an approximately one-hour interview using Skype or a similar video conferencing technology. If you prefer, the interview can be completed over the phone. With your permission, the interview will be recorded for further analysis by the researcher.

- We will follow up later this summer by email to ask you to confirm that you agree with the contents of an attached summary transcript of the interview. Additionally, follow-up clarifications may be sought via email or an additional brief Skype session or phone call.

Risks:

Participants will be asked to share their expert, personal opinions about a variety of topics related to study abroad administration structures and policies. You will be asked to speak for yourself, not for your institution or any other organization; there are no foreseeable risks to participate in this study. Participants will not be identified by name, specific title, or specific institution. Participation is voluntary. You can refuse to take part or stop at any time without penalty, and you can skip any questions that you would prefer not to answer.

Benefits:

Your participation may offer higher education administrators and international educators, including yourself, insights to guide their own study abroad-related administrative decisions.

Audio Recording:

The interview will be recorded for analysis by the researchers only and will be destroyed following full completion of the study and acceptance of the dissertation. Please reply by email to becky.gunter@uga.edu to indicate if you agree to have this interview audio recorded or not. You may still participate in this study even if you are not willing to have the interview recorded.

Privacy:

Research records will be labeled with pseudonyms that are linked to you by a separate list that includes your name. The coding system will be kept in a secure file in a separate location during data collection and will be destroyed following full completion of the study and acceptance of the dissertation. In the reported findings, interviewed subjects will not be identified by name, specific title, or specific institution; participants will be identified with a pseudonym.

If You Have Questions:

Please feel free to ask questions about this research at any time. You can contact the Principal Investigator, Dr. Karen Webber, at 706-542-6831 or kwebber@uga.edu or you can contact the Co-Investigator, Becky Gunter, at [] or becky.gunter@uga.edu. If you have any complaints or questions about your rights as a research volunteer, contact the IRB at 706-542-3199 or by email at IRB@uga.edu.

Please keep this letter for your records.

Sincerely,

Becky Gunter