

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION WITH PURPOSE: A MANUAL TO IMPROVE STUDENT GLOBAL  
COMPETENCE THROUGH COMMUNITY COLLEGE EDUCATION-ABROAD PROGRAMMING

by

Marc O. Thomas

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

Ferris State University

August 2016

© 2016 Marc O. Thomas

All Rights Reserved

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION WITH PURPOSE: A MANUAL TO IMPROVE GLOBAL COMPETENCY  
IN COMMUNITY COLLEGE EDUCATION-ABROAD PROGRAMMING

By

Marc O. Thomas

Has been approved

August 2016

APPROVED:

Roberta C. Teahen, Ph.D.  
Committee Chair

Piram Prakasam, Ph.D.  
Committee Member

Martin Stack, M.A.  
Committee Member

Dissertation Committee

ACCEPTED:

Roberta C. Teahen, Ph.D., Director  
Community College Leadership Program

## ABSTRACT

The increasing desire for student global competence among college graduates is changing the landscape of higher education. This dissertation explores the specific role that community colleges can play in this effort through the development of education-abroad programming. Two tangible outcomes — the development of an education-abroad infrastructure and the design of programming abroad — are the focus of this dissertation. This effort relies on research and practitioner expertise to inform the development of education-abroad infrastructure and programming that results in the intentional and effective design, instruction, and assessment of learning abroad that improves global competence. The central component of this dissertation is a manual development for hands-on use by global education practitioners.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	page
ABSTRACT.....	i
CHAPTER 1: GLOBAL COMPETENCE AND THE EDUCATION-ABROAD EXPERIENCE .....	1
Introduction: From Globalization to Global Competence.....	1
Definition of Terms.....	2
The Commitment for Competent College Graduates .....	6
Education Abroad: Background and Mission .....	7
The Contemporary Imperative to Educate Abroad: What We Know.....	9
Role of Education Abroad in Global Competence Development.....	11
The Problem and Proposed Solution .....	11
The Scope of the Problem in the Community College Context .....	12
Conclusion.....	13
CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	15
Introduction .....	15
Competent College Completion: The Components .....	15
Global Competence Categories and Characteristics.....	19
Critical Thinking.....	20
Effective Communication .....	21
Cross-Cultural Competence .....	23
The Purposeful Design of Education Abroad Experiences .....	24
Professional Standards.....	26
Logistics: Program Location .....	27
Logistics: Program Length .....	28
Preparation .....	30
Post-Return .....	30
Insights from Practitioners in the Field.....	32

Conclusion.....	33
CHAPTER 3: THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MANUAL.....	35
Introduction .....	35
The Manual’s Ebb and Flow .....	36
Conclusion.....	38
CHAPTER 4: THE EDUCATION-ABROAD MANUAL.....	39
Introduction .....	39
Education Abroad: Building the Infrastructure .....	39
The Student Role.....	39
Institutional Mission .....	40
Institutional Goal: Access.....	41
Institutional Goal: Diversity .....	41
Practical Application: Diversity and Inclusion .....	43
Institutional Goal: Student Success .....	46
Practical Application: Student Success .....	46
Institutional Goal: Program Sustainability .....	48
Practical Application: Program Sustainability .....	49
Institutional Need: Accreditation.....	54
Institutional Infrastructure and Campus Interconnectedness.....	55
Institutional Support and Resources.....	56
Practical Application: Institutional Support and Resources.....	59
Stage 1, Education Abroad Program Development: What Should Students Learn? .....	60
Education-Abroad Learning Theory: From Immersion to Intervention .....	63
Program-Abroad Design.....	64
Practical Application: Development of Course Proposal and Syllabus .....	65
Program Logistics: Location .....	66
Program Logistics: Duration .....	67
Program Logistics: Instructional Delivery Method.....	68
Applying Instructional Theory to Academic Programming Abroad: The Big Picture .....	69
Stage 2, Education-Abroad Program Development: How Should Learning Be Assessed? .....	70
Practical Application: Assessment of Learning .....	71

Pre-Departure Phase: The Link Between Planning and Implementation .....	73
Practical Application: Pre-Departure Activities.....	73
Stage 3, Education-Abroad Program Development: What is the Learning Plan?.....	75
Overarching Concepts.....	75
Program Abroad Design .....	75
Practical Application: Program-Abroad Design.....	77
Education-Abroad and Career Preparation: The Nexus .....	79
Practical Application: Career Preparation.....	80
CHAPTER 5: FINAL THOUGHTS AND PATH TO THE FUTURE.....	82
Introduction .....	82
Education Abroad: From Immersion to Active Reflection .....	83
From Immersion to Active Reflection: Implications for Implementation .....	84
Limitations of the Manual.....	85
Further Research and Practice .....	86
REFERENCES .....	90
APPENDIX A: Checklist for Developing Education-Abroad Programming.....	99

## CHAPTER 1: GLOBAL COMPETENCE AND THE EDUCATION-ABROAD EXPERIENCE

### INTRODUCTION: FROM GLOBALIZATION TO GLOBAL COMPETENCE

After the turn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, the cruise ship *Mauretania* could transport more than 2,000 passengers from New York to Liverpool in less than five days, roughly cutting in half the travel time of transatlantic vessels of the previous century. This efficiency came through advances in the turbine engine, which employed high-pressure steam to spin blades that resulted in more power and speed. Thus began the 20<sup>th</sup>-century global compression brought about by advances in communication and transportation.

As we advance through the 21<sup>st</sup> century, technological breakthroughs continue to bring the world closer together, but this time the voyage is not fueled by the turbine engine but rather the instantaneous interrelation of information and ideas at our fingertips. For example, the development of three-dimensional eye glasses is allowing for touch and voice commands to connect the user to a virtual world of unlimited information and people previously only available through a desktop computer. The future promises even more human connectivity. In 2016, research is underway to develop headsets that would facilitate telepathic communication between individuals. The potential for eyewear linking us to the world is a metaphor for the promise of faster, deeper, and more mysterious ways that might bring the world even closer. In light of the rapid and byzantine changes underway, a key question for educators to answer is

what knowledge and skills college graduates need to navigate 21<sup>st</sup> century globalization.

Ample research has been undertaken to identify the competencies needed by college graduates to be effective in the 21<sup>st</sup>-century age of increasing global connectedness. The Association of American Colleges and Universities (n.d.), in its “Global Learning Value Rubric,” offered the following measure of global learning: “Effective and transformative global learning offers students meaningful opportunities to analyze and explore complex global challenges, collaborate respectfully with diverse others, apply learning to take responsible action in contemporary global contexts, and evaluate the goals, methods, and consequences of that action” (para. 3). A broader discussion of the qualities embedded in global competence appears in Chapter 2 of this dissertation. Significant attention also has been paid to delineating the role of education-abroad programming in contemporary college learning. This dissertation will fuse these two pedagogical imperatives — the need for competent college graduates and the ability of education-abroad programs to fulfill that promise.

First, this chapter will define the terms connected with this discussion, all related but each sovereign. Then, it will briefly review the imperative outlined by scholars and employers for globally competent college graduates. It also will succinctly assess the current status and goals of collegiate education-abroad efforts. Finally, the chapter will culminate in a problem statement, along with a proposed solution.

## DEFINITION OF TERMS

**Global Competence.** Education, business, and governmental leaders have proposed varied definitions of global competence. And, of course, educators in different disciplines, employers in different industries, and political leaders of different parties and regions draw

different angles on the competency triangle. In brief, the literature describes global competence broadly as the skills needed to understand and analyze differences across cultures and perform 21st-century necessary work duties with a high skill level. Morais and Ogden (2011) offer a straightforward measure of this competence: self-awareness, intercultural communication, and global knowledge (p. 447). The elements of global competence as connected to education abroad will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2, the literature review, and Chapter 4, the manual.

**Global Citizen.** Oxfam (2015), the international non-governmental organization working to reduce educational and poverty inequality, positions the concept of global citizen squarely in the midst of education, achieved holistically through “developing the knowledge and understanding, skills, values, and attitudes that learners need both to participate fully in a globalized society and economy, and to secure a more just, secure and sustainable world than the one they have inherited” (p. 5). Oxfam includes in the characteristics of a global citizen someone who understands his or her role in the world, values diversity, understands global issues, and is committed to social justice. Morais and Ogden (2011) present three “overarching dimensions” of global citizenship: social responsibility, global competence, and international civic engagement (p. 447). The components of the Morais-Ogden social responsibility model include the ability to evaluate social issues in the context of global inequity, exhibit global empathy, and understand the interconnectedness between “local behaviors and their global consequences” (p. 448). The global competence component of the Morais-Ogden definition includes self-awareness, intercultural communication, and international knowledge, while the civic engagement ingredient is made up of involvement in civic organizations, the articulation of an international political voice, and the advancement of “purposeful local behaviors that

advance a global” agenda (p. 448).

**Education Abroad.** Zhang (2011) defines education abroad as a formal program that happens outside a participant's home country to “enhance and enrich students' learning experiences” (p. 83). In contrast to the more traditional concept of “study abroad,” education abroad encompasses a holistic approach to learning abroad, including academic, language, internship, work and similar experiences where academic credit is offered (p. 83). In recognition of the more comprehensive definition it represents, this dissertation will opt for use of the term “education abroad.”

**Study Abroad.** This term, as reported by Zhang (2011) is the one frequently recognized by students, faculty, and other practitioners. Similar in concept to “education abroad,” the connotation of the word “study” is thought to limit its application, and the use of study abroad is more likely to be seen in more dated academic journals and publications (p. 83).

**International Education.** Broadly described, international education encompasses “all educative efforts that aim at fostering an international orientation in knowledge and attitude,” as defined by Husén and Postlethwaite (1985). James (2005) pointed out that when taken literally, the term “international” education means study across two nations and might not inherently include study of differences in cultures, which can transcend nations. James opines that the term ‘international education’ “is perhaps reaching the end of its useful life” (p. 326). For the purposes of this dissertation, the term “global education” (below) will be favored over “international education” when discussing the broad concept of education across nations, cultures, and peoples.

**Global Education.** Farleigh Dickinson University offered a definition of global education

in a higher education context: “extend students’ awareness of the world in which they live by opening them to the diverse heritage of human thought, action, and creativity” (para. 3). The Evers (2015) definition helps describe its nature as more far-reaching than the bi-lateral function of international education: “Global education... investigates issues in a global context to reflect the complex web of social, economic, or scientific issues that transcend national boundaries” (para. 1). For the purposes of this dissertation, “global education” will be considered an overarching term to include the broad spectrum of education efforts that strive to enhance understanding in an increasingly world-wide environment. Global education is regarded as a broad mission that includes the concepts included in international education, multicultural education, and campus internationalization.

**Internationalization.** McCabe (2001) described internationalization as often closely connected with education efforts and as suggesting “cooperation and understanding between two countries and/or cultures” (p. 139). Hudzik (2011), for NAFSA, the Association of International Educators, explained internationalization as a “commitment, confirmed through action, to infuse international and comparative perspectives throughout the teaching, research, and service missions of higher education” (p. 6).

**Globalization.** This concept spans numerous disciplines, especially in the economic sphere. The Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2014) offers a multi-disciplinary definition, describing globalization as having “become one of the most fashionable buzzwords of contemporary political and academic debate” (para. 1). Stanford offered the following components of globalization: (a) the spread of free-market economic theory across the globe, (b) the encroachment of western politics, economics, or culture on other parts of the world, (c)

the spread of new technology (including the Internet) around the world, (d) the idea that humanity is heading toward shared global understanding and values, (e) the concept that time and geographic connections are reduced because of technology and transportation innovations. McCabe (2001) makes a distinction between globalization, sometimes carrying with it a negative connotation aligned with neocolonialism, while internationalization — defined above — often is connected with more virtuous themes around education and mutual understanding (p. 139).

**Multicultural Education.** Gay (1994) synthesized numerous definitions of multicultural education into the following key elements: “the content of multicultural education programs should include ethnic identities, cultural pluralism, unequal distribution of resources and opportunities, and other sociopolitical problems stemming from long histories of oppression... . Multicultural education means learning about, preparing for, and celebrating cultural diversity, or learning to be bicultural” (p. 3). Gay also presented a political component to multicultural education, advocating that an agenda for reform of education policies and practices accompany the curriculum to ensure full integration of the spirit of multiculturalism into the school fabric happens.

#### THE COMMITMENT FOR COMPETENT COLLEGE GRADUATES

The need for competent college graduates, as articulated by academics and employers, is ably outlined by the Association of American Colleges and Universities (2013). The AAC&U, in a study conducted by Hart Associates, surveyed more than 300 employers for whom at least one-quarter of their new hires possess a two- or four-year college degree. The survey indicated that the vast majority of employers (more than 90 percent) desired employees “with skills that

can contribute to workplace innovation” and who can “think critically, communicate clearly, and solve complex problems” (para. 4). Chapter 2, the Literature Review, will report in more detail the components of these sought-after competencies.

The second part of this dissertation equation is the role that education-abroad programming can have in developing skills and attributes that lead to global citizenship (including the advanced skills that employers seek in new hires). There are numerous accounts of education-abroad participation as life-changing experience. Scholars have cited enhanced global awareness, intercultural communication, cross-cultural business competence, and problem-solving in unfamiliar situations among the student competencies gained from participation in purposeful education-abroad experiences. These skills will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

#### EDUCATION ABROAD: BACKGROUND AND MISSION

The U.S. government, according to Studebaker (1944), U.S. Commissioner of Education for Presidents Franklin Roosevelt and Harry Truman, began its focus on international education in 1878. That year, Congress established an Office of Foreign School Systems to research and report on foreign education practices to offer American educators a better understanding of international education trends (p. 62).

Following World War I, the American Council on Education (ACE) launched a massive effort to send American students abroad, with some funding available to help students in financial need take part. The ACE undertook this effort, as reported by the New York Times (1924) to “give more Americans that broad understanding of the minds and culture of other peoples which is essential to international good-will and co-operation” (p. E15). While this was

not the first effort to do more to send U.S. students abroad, this pronouncement does adequately represent the beginning of the modern definition of education abroad. Studabaker (1944) laid out a similar mission — one focused on international exchange of people and ideas between education institutions — as World War II came to a close. His rationale centered on “understanding of the problems and cultures of other peoples as the basis for a better world order and a more enduring peace” (p. 68).

The President's Commission on Higher Education (1947), impaneled by President Truman, made pronouncements about higher education deeply rooted in Democracy, including a fundamental principle that “Education be directly and explicitly for international understanding and cooperation” (p. 8). The role of higher education has been a point of heated discussion. J.L. Morrill (1955), President of the University of Minnesota, described the U.S. government role of higher education as “widened and intensified,” including the use of education abroad to train both civilian and military personnel in international democracy operations: “Higher education has become an instrument of national policy in ways never intended by the founders of the Republic or the founders of early American colleges and universities themselves” (p. 41).

The imperative between national interests and education abroad continue as consistent elements of American foreign policy through the balance of the 20<sup>th</sup> century. As chronicled by Thompson (1966), President Johnson proposed international education as extending to all nations, whether “friend or foe” and reciprocal — involving teaching and learning. The Johnson global education program also was tied to U.S. foreign policy and as a step in the ladder toward world peace (p. 25). Burn (1980) articulated a dual mission for education abroad: language

proficiency and the promotion of U.S. national interest, as spelled out in President Carter's Commission on Foreign Language and International Studies (p. 125). While the Commission emphasized language study abroad, Burn posed important questions about the broader student experience: "All too often these programs may lack the careful predeparture orientation required, may isolate the U.S. students abroad with each other in an 'island' or 'ghetto' situation rather than try to integrate them into the local life and higher education system of the country" (p. 134). Burn also pointed to the Commission's adoption of another goal, that of the role of American business in international education. These education-abroad themes — programs with a well-defined purpose and those that help students develop global competencies for the workplace — are important foci of this dissertation.

#### THE CONTEMPORARY IMPERATIVE TO EDUCATE ABROAD: WHAT WE KNOW

We have gleaned much about the students who study abroad, in particular about the numbers and demographics of those students. In 2013-14, a total of 304,467 American college students studied abroad for academic credit, as reported by the Institute for International Education (2015). This represents a 5.2 percent increase in participation over the previous year. A relatively small number of these students, 6,404, were community college students, representing 2 percent of education-abroad participants from all institutions. Two-year public college students represented 32.5 percent of the total undergraduate enrollment, as reported by the National Center for Education Statistics (2014). Just over one-quarter of these students in 2013-14 are from minority populations (of Hispanic/Latino, Asian/Pacific Islander, Black/African American, Multiracial, or American Indian/Alaska Native descent). As reported by the National Center for Education Statistics, undergraduate minority students at post-secondary

institutions made up 40.6 percent of undergraduate students enrolled in fall 2013 at post-secondary institutions. Modest growth in the diversity of students who study abroad has been recorded. In 2009-2010, the number of minority students taking part in education-abroad was 57,665 (out of 270,604 total participants, representing 21.3 percent minority participation). Nearly two-thirds of education-abroad students are women, a demographic that has existed over many years.

We also know a great deal about the demographics of student education-abroad experiences. In 2013-14, nearly one-third of American education-abroad students studied in the United Kingdom, Italy, and Spain. The interest in Western European countries as an education-abroad destination has remained constant for many years. The fields of study of American education-abroad students in 2013-14 are dominated by STEM (science, technology, engineering, and math) at 23 percent, business at 20 percent, social sciences at 19 percent, foreign languages at 8 percent, and fine or applied arts at 7 percent. The majority (65 percent) of students take part in academic programs of eight weeks or fewer, or summer experiences. Only a fraction — three percent — take part in academic-year programs. The remaining students (32 percent) take part in programs of varying lengths, generally less than a semester. While the number of undergraduate students who take part in education abroad is gradually increasing, it still represents only one in ten of all who graduate.

Which students study abroad, along with the topic, location, and length of education-abroad experiences are well-documented. The connectedness of these programs to the current efforts for academic accountability, student engagement, and college completion are more elusive.

## ROLE OF EDUCATION ABROAD IN GLOBAL COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT

The potential benefit of participation in education abroad has been extensively studied. Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen, and Hubbard (2006) discovered increased intercultural sensitivity. In a study of more than 3,700 former education-abroad participants, Institute for the International Education of Students (n.d.) respondents reported gains in continued academic achievement, career-goal development, cultural understanding, and personal growth resulting from education abroad. Wang and Coffey (2014) conducted pre- and post-tests of education-abroad participant improvement in intercultural awareness, personal growth, and knowledge of global interdependence, with findings suggesting “that students greatly improved their global awareness as a result of the two-week summer study abroad” (p. 155). This dissertation will further explore the role of effective education-abroad programming in the acquisition of student global competence.

## THE PROBLEM AND PROPOSED SOLUTION

There are clear interests among the stakeholders in the drive for a meaningful college education. Educators, employers, students, accreditors, and lawmakers all have weighed in on the best path to the completion of a credential that has purpose and value. A key mission of this document is the alignment of these completion aims with the purposes of education-abroad programming.

More than three decades ago, King and Fersh (1983) described international programs on campus as “no longer optional for community colleges,” instead being “integral” (p. 2). Raby and Valeau (2007) reported a growing recognition of the need for community college international education, along with the struggle to achieve this goal: “Although most

community college leaders accept the basic concepts of international education and appear to understand its significance, college-wide implementation has been difficult to achieve” (p. 1). Fischer (2008) in the Chronicle of Higher Education, laid a clear path from community colleges as local workforce trainers to global educators, being able to “produce students who can collaborate with co-workers from other countries and cultures, who have an understanding of global economics, and who, perhaps even speak another language” (para. 2). Fischer described a wide range of commitment, resources, and success among two-year colleges at developing globally competent students, with activities spanning efforts to recruit international students to offering international internships.

#### THE SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM IN THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE CONTEXT

The role of the community college in education abroad is the focus of this dissertation. During the last decade, community college student participation in education abroad has recorded modest gains compared to undergraduate education as a whole. In 2003-04, the Institute for International Education (2015) reported 5,776 community college participants in education abroad, representing 3 percent of the total students who studied abroad. In 2013-14, the participation number increased to 6,404, which represented 2 percent of all students. During that time, the number of community college students increased by 10 percent, while the total students who studied abroad increased by 59 percent. In 2013-14, California’s community college students represented 2,299 out of the nation’s 6,404 two-year institution students who studied abroad. This level of participation means that California tallied more than one-third of community college students who studied abroad that year. Associate’s degree institutions in 24 states sent between zero and nine students abroad in 2013-14. These numbers help illustrate

the pressing need for increased opportunity among community college students to study abroad. The tradition of the community college in providing service primarily to the local community can make efforts to establish global programming more challenging. Treat and Hagedorn (2013) described the historical, and continuing, role of the community college as “meeting the needs of students in transfer, career and technical, developmental, and community education” (p. 5). Treat and Hagedorn also describe an evolving role of the two-year college as enhancing “instructional delivery to accommodate busy lifestyles coupled with economic downturns and uncertainties; to build partnerships; to expand outreach” (p. 5).

Community colleges have employed a variety of strategies to improve international experiences for students. Fischer (2008) reported that “long attuned to turning out graduates whose skills are calibrated to the needs of nearby companies, two-year colleges are now striving to meet the needs of multinational businesses seeking workers who can succeed in a worldwide marketplace” (para. 1). Colleges employ a variety of pathways, from internationalizing the curriculum to multicultural events on campus to education abroad. The ability of the learning experience abroad can meet the evolving student and community global need is a key question of this dissertation.

## CONCLUSION

The American Council of Education (2012) described campus commitment and strategic planning as fundamental to successful internationalization, while “appropriate administrative structures and staffing form the framework for successful implementation” (p. 9). Taking into account the mission and resources that the community college brings to bear, the overarching goal of this dissertation is to guide global educators in the development of education-abroad

infrastructure and offerings that are an integral step in the path to a meaningful college credential. The second chapter will review the critical literature addressing the desired skills and knowledge needed to develop competent graduates, as well as the research outlining the potential for education abroad to help students gain these competencies. Chapter 3 will outline the methodological approach to the research and the development of the manual. Chapter 4, the manual, will identify the considerations needed to establish and sustain an education-abroad infrastructure (often carried out in the form of an office), and blueprint the best practices for global educators to design a meaningful education-abroad experience. Chapter 5 will offer final thoughts for future research and practice to help advance the education-abroad field.

## CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter will review the following topics relevant to education abroad: the vast research on the skills and knowledge needed to build a globally competent 21<sup>st</sup> century college graduate, the ample scholarship on the potential benefits of education abroad, along with review of feedback from higher-education global education professionals about the potential for education-abroad programming to improve student global competence.

In developing a rubric for measuring contemporary global citizenship, Morais and Ogden (2011) asserted that global citizenship is “understood as a multidimensional construct that hinges on the interrelated dimensions of social responsibility, global competence, and global civic engagement” (p. 449).

The focus of this dissertation, including this literature review and the manual in Chapter 4, is on the teaching and learning elements of program development abroad — not on health, safety, emergency management, or business and finance operations, all of which are important, but rooted in a separate body of research and application.

### COMPETENT COLLEGE COMPLETION: THE COMPONENTS

An abundance of literature on the student competency expected at college graduation is available. This section will highlight the contemporary research on the skill and knowledge

acquisition needed to meet the demands of the 21<sup>st</sup> century workforce. The identified competencies will be organized into categories to lay the groundwork for use in education-abroad programming.

The Association of American Colleges and Universities provides a starting point for the discussion of competence, its research offering a blending of academic and employer perspectives. The AAC&U (2013) employer survey identifies the following competency priorities, as revealed through inquiry of more than 300 employers whose new hires were comprised of one-quarter or more two- or four-year college graduates. The survey indicated more than 90 percent of employers desired the following abilities in its new hires:

- Contribute to innovation in the workplace
- Think critically, communicate clearly, and solve complex problems
- Ethical judgment and integrity; intercultural skills; and the capacity for continued new learning.

The perceptions of college students and recent graduates afford additional and important insight into the components of effective workforce preparation. Hart Associates (2015), in a survey and focus group for the AAC&U, uncovered these observations from students, recent graduates, and employers:

- Broad learning, rather than knowledge needed for a specific field or major, should be emphasized in college curricula. These skills — namely critical thinking, ability to apply knowledge to real-world settings, effective communication, teamwork, and ethical decision making — should cut across academic disciplines and job fields.
- Applying academic learning to “real-world settings,” particularly through internship and work-study experience to help in the transition to post-college employment, is

key to career preparation (p. 5).

The perspectives of employers and students as represented in these survey results are an important building block of the education-abroad instructional design component discussion in Chapter 4 of this dissertation, which will offer guidance about the development of global programming that is intentional in improving student competency. Understanding and acknowledging the competencies that employers expect of new employees is ripe for incorporation into education-abroad curricula. Interestingly, many of these learning outcomes, including the development of critical-thinking capabilities, the application of classroom knowledge to real-world problems, and the ability to effectively communicate, are shared not only by students and employers as reported in this survey, but in general by the academic community as it seeks to reshape its learning opportunities to ensure that college graduates are prepared for citizenship and career.

In addition to the extent to which college learning outcomes translate into workplace skills, the Hart survey measured student and recent graduate perceptions about which experiences led most directly to a job offer. More than 90 percent of employers ranked an internship with an organization or company as a factor more likely to lead to hiring. More than 80 percent of students and employers surveyed identified completion of a project that documents problem solving, knowledge, research, and communication as a predictive factor in hiring. Experiences with more than 70 percent identification as a positive hiring factor included a “field project in diverse community with people from different background/culture,” service-learning project, collaborative research project, and writing across the curriculum emphasis. The factor with the most noticeable difference in value assessed by student and employer was

the “study-abroad program,” identified by 71 percent of students and 51 percent of employers as an important factor in hiring (p. 14). These student and employer perceptions, along with the insights presented in the balance of this chapter, will help lay the foundation for the guidance provided in later chapters on the development of purposeful education abroad.

Hays, an international recruiting firm based in Australia, released its list of soft and hard skills their corporate clients seek. Hays, as reported in the Illawarra Mercury (2012), identified the following skills as most important in the global marketplace:

- Language: “For those whose first language is English, being able to speak a second or third language with any ability is prized”
- Communication: Examples in this category including being able to effectively work as a team, build relationships, and make presentations
- Organization: “employers want staff capable of organising their day efficiently to make the greatest possible contribution to the business and add the greatest value” (p. 4).

Additional insight comes from business education researchers Eaton and Kleshinski (2014), who conducted an extensive review of the literature in management and business to develop a synthesis of employer-desired skills for employees to succeed in increasingly global markets. In their focus on college and university business programs, the authors cited the importance of a competency-based curriculum abroad, “tailored so that the emphasis isn’t on the abroad experience, but rather the learning outcomes from that experience and how it is applicable to the workplace” (p. 55).

Their work specified three areas of competence:

- The ability to operate globally, characterized chiefly through the ability to adapt

easily to foreign cultures and “traveling outside of someone’s comfort zone requires an open mindset and comfort with the uncomfortable, which for many, is no simple task.”

- Intercultural understanding, with more specific practical skills than achieved through “global operation,” including the ability to make culturally sensitive decisions, “coupled with knowledge about foreign cultures and norms.”
- Foreign language fluency, described by these researchers as “critically important as a distinguishing characteristic for potential employees.” (p. 51)

As the literature is reviewed and compared, broad themes about the prevailing wisdom about which skills are most needed emerges. In summary, the following overarching categories are identified through review of the literature as key to college graduate global competency: critical thinking, effective communication, and cross-cultural competence. The next section of this chapter will describe each competency area in more detail, as gleaned from more in-depth review of the literature.

#### GLOBAL COMPETENCE CATEGORIES AND CHARACTERISTICS

The previous section reviewed the skills and knowledge identified in the literature as generally needed for competence at graduation. This section organizes those identified competencies into broad categories, offering detail about the characteristics of competency in each broad category. This section will provide detail about how each of these competencies is defined in the context of global learning, and offer brief descriptions of the skills, knowledge and attitudes that make up each competency area.

## **Critical Thinking**

*(including the cognitive abilities to analyze and solve complex problems, to innovate and be creative, individually and in teams)*

Self-identity often is cited as a precursor for the development of critical thinking in a global context. In conducting research on experiential education, Young (2015) reported that “rather than being stable, identity is a continual process of integrating new experiences and molding new values, roles, and self-images based on context” (p. 11). Che (2009) applied the concepts of self-identity and the development of cognitive abilities to education abroad. Her research summarized the overarching goals of higher education as emphasizing the “development of student understanding, including an awareness of themselves and how they interact with the world” (p. 101). Che's narrative also focused on educational psychology research proposing that for a person to take their development to the next level, “struggle and dissonance” are required (p. 102). This concept of struggle has been identified by Che and others as an important component of improved competence resulting from education abroad, including through experiencing different language and culture.

Numerous additional studies explore the extent to which education abroad enhances student cognitive abilities. One, from Elmhurst College's Savage (2014) analyzed self-reporting data from 147 college students who completed semester or month-long education abroad in 2011-12. Several themes emerged as students were questioned about their experience abroad, the three most common being improved critical thinking, problem solving, and expanded “perspective.” One student, completing a service-learning project in an Afghanistan school, reported improved problem-solving abilities through “ongoing problem-solving by thinking

quickly on my feet, breaking things down and explaining complicated concepts” (p. 9).

An aspect of critical thinking is the application of lessons from one setting to another. Deeley (2014) described the possibility that employability skills are “closely interwoven” with student intellectual and personal development, “being able to learn from new experiences, to apply new knowledge, and... competencies, capabilities, and attributes” (p. 41).

In the cyber security industry, leaders are undergoing a similar worker skills assessment. Kuchler (2014), identified a growing skills gap in the cyber security field as attacks on public- and private-sector computer networks grow. Kuchler's Financial Times article pointed to the need for the realization that skills from one set could be adopted for expertise in another. Chris Ling, executive vice president of the business consulting firm Booz Allen Hamilton, oversees the firm's cyber security operation. He communicated the need for cyber security workers to be able to “figure out how to make things work, reverse engineer things, are really good at this, and they can learn the technology. Many are not trained as computer scientists” (para. 13).

### **Effective Communication**

*(including oral and written communication, individually and in teams)*

Chapel (1997), in the Journal of Business and Technical Communication, described an emerging definition of effective communication as closely interwoven with the related competencies needed by corporations striving for a global edge: “a cognitive process that involves acquiring cultural awareness and understanding, language knowledge (verbal and nonverbal), and motivation to use for the advancement of international business relationships” (p. 282). Stark-Meyerring (2005) included the following communications competencies as needed for business graduates in a global economy:

- Proficiency in communication through digital technology
- Understanding the new relationships and increased interactions among many local and global contacts
- Literacy in the political and economic forces that are reshaping transnationalization and the global communication around these issues (for example, international standards for labor and environmental protection)
- Skilled at interaction in multiple contexts, including a mobile and diverse workforce where “pluralized identities and blurred cultural boundaries” exist (p. 474).

Savage (2014) in a review of competency improvement of 147 education-abroad students who participated in semester and short-term (three- to four-week) programs, reported communication as one important reported competency. One student example illustrated the connection between communication and cultural competency. “I have had to negotiate conflicts, build relationships, and take the lead on occasion in a group of people. These opportunities have made me more confident in my ability to communicate across cultures” (p. 9).

The review of literature revealed some discord in the importance of knowledge of a second language as a key communications competency. The previously cited AAC&U survey of students and employers cited second-language acquisition as least important on the comprehensive list of competencies (25 percent of students and 23 percent of employers ranked it as important). However, scholars tend to position this skill as more important, particularly as a component of overall intercultural communications and cultural competency. In her study of best practices in language learning, Sercu (2005) described language and

intercultural competence as inherently linked. “To be able to promote the acquisition of intercultural competence, teachers themselves need to revisit their common sense notions of what it means to teach and learn a foreign language in light of a new teaching philosophy, that truly recognizes the intercultural nature of all encounters originating from different cultural backgrounds” (p. 18).

Language is deeply connected to education abroad. Students are encouraged to study in “non-traditional” countries, which includes countries that speak a language different from the students’ home country. The U.S. State Department, including through its Gilman Scholarship, encourages the study of languages deemed to be of “critical need” to the nation. And the existence of another spoken language can enhance or detract from students’ experience abroad depending on their proficiency.

### **Cross-Cultural Competence**

*(ability to analyze and solve problems with people from different backgrounds and cultures, awareness of and experience with cultures and societies outside the U.S.)*

Belgian Linguist Sercu (2005) assembled the following elements of intercultural competency: “willingness to engage with the foreign culture, self-awareness and the ability to look upon one’s self from the outside, the ability to see the world from others’ eyes, the ability to cope with uncertainty, the ability to act as a cultural mediator, the ability to evaluate others’ points of view, the ability to use culture learning skills and to read the cultural context” (p. 2).

Cultural competence is increasingly cited by employers as a necessity. Chicago-based international search firm CEO Kevin Kelly, quoted by Vanham (2013) in the Financial Times, discussed the business focus shift to global skills: “We had IQ, and we had EQ, but now it’s about the CQ,” Kelly said, drawing a picture of the shift in 20<sup>th</sup> century priorities in intelligence

quotient and emotional intelligence quotient to the 21<sup>st</sup> century emphasis on a prospective employee's cultural quotient (para. 2).

The direct experiences of students abroad also help paint a picture of cultural competence. A study by Root (2012) involved a review of 18 student reflective papers, each addressing adjustment, experience of cultural differences, collaboration with people abroad, language experience, and an assessment of gained competencies in their education abroad experience. A wide range of improved competencies were documented, including “learning to be more comfortable in uncomfortable situations, learning to view things from different perspectives, learning a new appreciation of the poor, learning to overcome stereotypes of homelessness, and learning to adopt an open mind” (p. 523). Root described an important competency shortfall as a lack of preparedness among some students to think and articulate cultural differences with depth.

In research from Savage and Wehman (2014), one student described the acquired skills in preparation for a teaching career, including being able to “interpret how culture affects education and have reflected on how this new information will help me be a better teacher. I am now able to better comprehend the backgrounds and upbringings of individuals who are different from me so I can better reach them and help them fulfill their learning needs” (p. 9).

#### THE PURPOSEFUL DESIGN OF EDUCATION ABROAD EXPERIENCES

This section is devoted to the review of the literature prescribing the design of competence-driven education abroad programs, and includes analysis of peer-reviewed research on the design and assessment of programming abroad and feedback from global education professionals.

Root (2012) offers guidance on the broad themes of education-abroad program development: “The assumption that an immersion experience alone is enough to trigger intercultural learning and therefore improve levels of intercultural competence still exists” (p. 528-529). Root proposes a different path, one with purpose that emphasizes rich pre-departure guidance, cultural mentoring during the experience, and reflective follow-up upon return.

Experiential learning — knowledge building through action and reflection — is ripe for application in education-abroad programming. Passarelli and Kolb (2012) described the potential for global experience-driven learning to guide students to “new ways of thinking, acting, and relating in the world” (p. 137). The researchers highlight experiential learning as relevant to learning abroad because of its focus on holistic learning. Passarelli and Kolb discuss Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) as particularly applicable to education abroad when the following principles are employed:

- Learning is regarded as a process, not merely a final outcome. Similar to constructivism, learning happens through experiences that are “examined, tested, and integrated with new, more refined ideas” (p. 139).
- Learning includes the “resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world” (p. 139). Central to this process is action, reflection, and thinking.
- Learning is a holistic process, including thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving. It also borrows from the principles of the scientific method — problem solving, decision making, and creativity.
- Learning is about creating knowledge, as opposed to passively receiving information.

The last point (creating knowledge) is akin to the theory of educational constructivism, a process as described by Brooks and Brooks (1999) where “learners constantly change their internally constructed understandings of how their worlds function” (para. 11). Brooks and Brooks described the constructivist classroom as one where the learner is central, with each student’s understanding of the world and learning preferences playing an important role in building a new and deeper understanding of the lesson at hand.

### **Professional Standards**

The Forum on Education Abroad (2015) developed standards of practice for education-abroad, beginning with an imperative for institutions to articulate clear, written goals for programming abroad. As prescribed by the Forum, specific learning outcomes for each organizational program should be established. These goals should prioritize student learning and development, where “educational objectives remain central to program design and management” (p. 4). The education-abroad mission statement has been described as a starting point of a comprehensive program continuum. Engle (2013) urged a connecting of the dots, from program design to post-return assessment: “A finely established mission statement as a point of departure will guide and inform all that follows and logically find its affirmation in the resulting outcomes (p. 119).

California’s Coast Community College (CCCC) District Study Abroad Manual (n.d.) is representative of the guidance provided in that state, weaved together by the umbrella organization, the California Colleges for International Education. This document can serve as a benchmark for contemporary manuals in the delivery of education-abroad programming. This manual has evolved from one developed at the onset of the CCCC education-abroad office in

1988; this version likely dates from the early 2000s. The manual reviews the institutional mission for global education, outlines the organizational structure of international education at the institution, proposes standards for student health and safety abroad, sets out instructional standards for education abroad, qualifications and experience for faculty leaders abroad, institutional contractual salary and workload requirements for faculty abroad, delineation of faculty responsibilities from pre-departure to post-return, student selection and conduct standards, program financial procedures (including student financial aid), education abroad program development and institutional approval, procedures for use of external travel logistics provider, marketing and student recruitment outline, and program abroad evaluation guidance. The manual forthcoming in this dissertation will focus on the academic program development aspects of the education-abroad experience rather than the business, health, and safety requirements.

### **Logistics: Program Location**

Some emphasis on selection of “non-traditional” countries in the development of education-abroad programming has been suggested, with focus on the “life-changing” experience. This is particularly true when the learning focus is on problem-solving in unfamiliar situations. Che (2009) argued that struggle and cognitive dissonance are key to student development that education-abroad program development involving a location less familiar to the student will benefit “student development, social good, and for increasing social awareness and global mindedness to a greater degree than those that target more familiar locations” (p. 104). When dissonance is paired with a structured, nurturing education-abroad experience, Che pointed to greater potential for deep personal development and transformation.

## **Logistics: Program Length**

There has been much study and discussion of the ideal length of an education-abroad program. Dwyer (2004), in a comprehensive study of more than 3,000 education-abroad students over five decades, revealed deeper student impact for longer education abroad. The significant finding of this research reported an overall more significant and long-lasting influence on career for those who participated in an academic year (32-week) abroad than those who took part in a summer (six- to seven-week) program abroad. In the global competency areas of particular concern to this dissertation effort, the Dwyer study reported that 82 percent of academic year participants “acquired skills sets that influenced their career paths,” compared to 71 percent of summer students abroad. Similarly, 72 percent of yearlong education-abroad students reported enhanced abilities to “speak a foreign language which they utilize in the workplace,” compared to 67 percent of summer students (p. 159). Interestingly, in the Dwyer study, summer students indicated comparable or greater levels of positive effect from education-abroad participation as the slightly longer semester program participants. For example, in the acquired skill sets question, 73 percent of fall students abroad responded positively and 74 percent of spring students, compared to 71 percent of summer students. Dwyer interprets these results to suggest the potential for significant impact on student development across multiple competencies. “While it requires very careful educational planning, expert implementation, and significant resources to achieve these outcomes in a shorter-term length, the results of this study should encourage education-abroad educators and should reinforce the value of short-term programming of at least 6 weeks’ duration,” Dwyer concluded (p. 161).

Research from Mason, Powers, and Donnelly (2015) measured the language-acquisition improvements of nearly 2,500 education-abroad students from 1996 to 2012. These students studied with support from the Boren Award, established to support the study of language abroad by American college students. Using an assessment from the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, language proficiency before and after education abroad was measured. The results offered important lessons on the connection between length of program abroad and skill acquisition — in this case language. Results were measured against language thresholds — from novice to intermediate to advanced to superior. Sixty percent of students who participated in programs of more than six months experienced a gain of one threshold, while 40 percent of students in shorter programs made a gain of one threshold. The researchers noted particularly strong gains among students with no experience or at the novice level to make a threshold gain to an intermediate language level — in both shorter and longer programs.

The best components of longer-term education abroad can be modeled in shorter-term programs, which, because of academic calendars and cost, represent the bulk of current education-abroad selection by students. Chieffo and Griffiths (2009) pointed out that short-term programs often include field research, service learning, and internships, but generally do not allow for direct enrollment at a foreign institution. A shorter program can mirror longer experiences abroad through strategies like home stays, structured interaction with local students, and written reflection on the experience. Chieffo and Griffiths expressed that the programming elements are as important as the program length, pointing out that some longer programs abroad involve students studying abroad “are housed together in apartments and

have self-contained classes and tours, with most host culture interaction left to serendipity” (p. 368).

### **Preparation**

Literature that focuses primarily on preparation for education abroad is not voluminous, but much of it points to a deficiency in pre-departure training, signaling an area in need of special attention in this dissertation. Kruse and Brubaker (2007) highlighted the lack of resources devoted to preparatory activities not related to health and safety logistics: “With brilliant exceptions, most study abroad offices simply do not have the time or resources to provide more than cursory pre-departure cultural training” (p. 147). Deardorff (2009) emphasized the importance of pre-departure training in the area of student global competence improvement: “Unfortunately, interculturally competent global citizens do not occur naturally.” (p. 351). Deardorff suggested the need for comprehensive intercultural training and briefing on global issues as part of the preparation for education abroad.

Kruse and Brubaker (2007), in the context of language instruction abroad, offered several pre-departure activities designed to improve competency. Defining cultural learning, highlighting the role education abroad plays in the lifelong search for cultural identity, practicing and analyzing hypothetical cultural encounters, keeping a journal of domestic cultural behaviors for later reference abroad, and conducting ethnographic interviews of native speakers are among the pre-departure activities the language researchers suggest.

### **Post-Return**

The continuum from connecting education-abroad to institutional mission and improved competency to pre-departure orientation with depth to meaningful assessment of learning

abroad is adequately addressed in the literature. The responsibility of educators to add depth and analysis to assessment of education abroad is an important and growing theme in the literature. McLeod and Wainwright (2009) lament the rudimentary measures often employed in the field: “If the number of participants increased or participants reported they had slightly favored experience, then the programs were deemed successful” (p. 66).

Braskamp (2009) concurred with the notion that more precise measurement of education-abroad learning outcome development is needed. Using human development and intercultural communication theory, Braskamp pointed to the following framework as the building block of global learning assessment: “These primarily developmental processes consist of three major domains: cognitive (epistemological, awareness, knowledge), intrapersonal (identity attitudes, emotion), and interpersonal (behavioral, skills, social responsibility)” (p. 103). The Braskamp study employed the Global Perspectives Inventory (GPI) to semester-long education-abroad students before and after participation. The GPI includes questions in the following areas:

- Cognitive development, including assessing the student’s sense of the importance of cultural context in decision making, and understanding and awareness of different cultures and their impact on society;
- Intrapersonal, including understanding of the self, and respect for other cultures and degree of confidence in navigating complex situations;
- Interpersonal, including engagement with people from different cultures, demonstrating cultural sensitivity during those interactions, along with the interdependence and concern for others that comes with social responsibility.

In developing a rubric for evaluation of global learning that extends from institutional mission, the AAC&U (2007) developed the “Global Learning Inventory Framework — A Smart Grid for Global Learning.” The assessment includes the following components:

- Knowledge building, centered around the ability of students to employ a global perspective in tackling critical analysis;
- Social responsibility, highlighted by the assignment of importance to ethical intervention in global problems;
- Intercultural competencies, designated by the interpretation of other cultures with precision and the “ability to traverse cultural borders with greater skill and comfort” (p. 3);
- Experiential engagement, developed through hands-on experiences that deepen cultural understanding and competencies;
- Human capital, where “students acquire a deeper understanding of how being part of a diverse institution, workplace, or local and global community can enhance learning, expand horizons, and add complexity” (p. 3).

#### INSIGHTS FROM PRACTITIONERS IN THE FIELD

Rosalind Raby, executive director of the California Colleges for International Education, reported: “First and foremost, this is a STUDY abroad program. So, academic knowledge and excellence in the class objectives is crucial” (R. Raby, personal communication, November 14, 2015). Raby suggested emphasis on three areas of student development: course learning outcomes, competency skills abroad, and self-learning and awareness. Chris Sulincevski, international programs director for the St. Louis Community College (Missouri), described “academic knowledge, sensitivity and understanding of other cultures, communication among

cultures,” with an eye toward employability, as among the most important competencies to be gained from an education-abroad program (C. Sulincevski, personal communication, November 12, 2015).

Mesa Community College sent nearly 100 students abroad in 2013-14, the 11<sup>th</sup> largest contingent among the nation’s community colleges. Mesa is the largest in the Maricopa Community Colleges consortium in Arizona. The articulated Maricopa institutional mission and its international education mission are closely connected. In this spirit, the Maricopa “Study Abroad Faculty Directors Handbook” (n.d.) is detailed and intentional in describing the role of education abroad: “These overseas short-term programs are specifically designed to expose students to other cultures and peoples, and prepare them to participate in an increasingly interconnected global community that demands cross-cultural skills and knowledge” (para. 5).

Brookdale Community College in New Jersey emphasizes the importance of connecting academic learning outcomes, global competence improvement, and the inherent benefits of conducting the learning experience abroad. Its “Handbook for Faculty-Led Study-Abroad Programs” (2016) guides faculty to design programs that “combine academic learning cross-cultural experiences and be designed to make significant use of the cultural / historical / physical / human resources of the host environment” (p. 5).

## CONCLUSION

The literature reviewed chronicled the growing experiential nature of learning experienced in lands other than the student's home country, reflected by the evolution of the practitioners' shift from using the term “study abroad” to “education abroad.”

This dissertation has an ambitious plan: to employ the global competencies identified by

academic and employer leaders in the literature to lay the foundation for a manual for use by those seeking to design an education-abroad program that is intentional and purposeful in improving student competencies.

## CHAPTER 3: THE ORGANIZATION OF THE MANUAL

### INTRODUCTION

This dissertation's theme — that education abroad should be designed with intention and made effective through reflection — is the spirit by which this document was constructed. The research and writing were inspired by the practice of action research, where practitioners conduct scholarly inquiry to solve a real-world problem. Herr and Anderson (2005) describe the action research dissertation as “inquiry done *by* or *with* insiders to an organization or community” and as a “reflective process, but is different from isolated, spontaneous reflection in that it is deliberately and systematically undertaken and generally requires that some form of evidence be presented to support assertions” (p. 3). Mertler (2014) described a “cyclical and iterative” process for action learning implementation (p. 49). Mertler's four primary steps, along with corresponding actions connected to this dissertation, are as follows:

- Planning. Identify and limit the research problem, gather information (including review of the literature), and develop a research plan. Chapter 1 of this document identifies the research problem, Chapter 2 reviews the literature, and Chapter 3 (this chapter) outlines the methodology used to build the manual (Chapter 4).
- Acting and developing. Implement the plan, collect data, and analyze the data. Dissemination of the Chapter 4 (the manual) will offer global education practitioners the opportunity to put the plan into action, with intention and reflection. After the

manual is disseminated to practitioners in the field, an opportunity to evaluate the effectiveness of this formula, along with subsequent reflection and improvement, can happen.

- Reflecting: Sharing the research and reflecting on the process. Completion of this dissertation and dissemination to global education practitioners is intended to spur continuous improvement of the theory and practice outlined in this document.

#### THE MANUAL'S EBB AND FLOW

This manual is evidence based, constructed both through review of the scholarly literature and through comments from practitioners in the field. An extensive literature review was conducted, including analysis of peer-reviewed journal articles on the characteristics of a globally competent college graduate, along with a review of news reports on the skills employers seek for new employees. Review of peer-reviewed research on best practices in education-abroad programming also was conducted. Additionally, best-practices feedback from education-abroad practitioners was sought from the 15 community colleges that send the largest number of students abroad. More than 20 institutional education-abroad procedure manuals were reviewed, helping guide the inclusion of relevant topics in this manual. Priority in reviewing manuals was placed on community colleges with the largest international programs, along with manuals from four-year institutions with national and international reputations for excellence in education-abroad (for example, the University of Minnesota and Michigan State University). Key results from the practitioner feedback and manual review helped inform the development of the Chapter 4 manual.

Its content focus is on the design of an education-abroad curriculum that is effective in improving student competencies in knowledge and skills that are congruent with the

development of a college graduate armed with global citizenship and relevant professional skills. Although its focus is on the use of education abroad to facilitate the improvement of student global competence, its perspective is American in that it is designed for use by educators who design programming abroad for American students.

The manual offers guidance on two related purposes: the establishment of a new education-abroad office within a community college, and the design of a program abroad that improves student global competency.

Chapter 4 begins with direction on building the infrastructure that should be in place to pave the way for programming abroad. This section is divided into topics central to the contemporary community college: institutional mission, access to education, diversity, student success, program sustainability, and institutional accreditation. This section concludes with specific advice on the specific campus resources needed to ensure education abroad to the broader campus community.

Next, the manual guides the practitioner from infrastructure development to program development, moving from theory to practice. A learning-centered approach, Understanding by Design — where curriculum is built first by asking first what students need to learn, followed by the construction of learning experiences that answer the question through corresponding action — is employed. After a brief discussion of pedagogical theory on each topic addressed in the manual, practical guidance on how to transform the theory into practice is provided. Additionally, links to specific external resources for more information on a topic are offered.

The program development manual component offers guidance on the application of broad learning theory to an education-abroad setting. This manual component is organized

using the Learning by Design curriculum process, which includes three stages:

- What should students learn, including the learning outcomes needed for students to evolve into globally competent graduates.
- How learning should be assessed, including the connection of effective learning outcomes with education-abroad programming, and the development of a strategy to assess the extent to which students abroad showed meaningful gains in global knowledge and skills.
- The learning plan, where desired results and assessment goals are incorporated into specific learning activities abroad.

## CONCLUSION

This manual represents the intersection of theory and practice, using educational theory to inform best-practices in the development of valuable learning experiences abroad. It is holistic, beginning with the incorporation of institutional mission, flowing to the hands-on development of learning activities abroad.

## CHAPTER 4: THE EDUCATION-ABROAD MANUAL

### INTRODUCTION

The research and theory illuminated by this document culminate in two related practical purposes: the establishment of a new college education-abroad office and the subsequent design of a new education-abroad program. The guidance that this manual offers is intended especially for use in the community college, where interest in building international learning is growing, as is the challenge to accomplish this emphasis within the reality of declining resources and growing calls for accountability in public finances and student success. The following considerations are integral to the process of establishing an education-abroad office: institutional mission, accreditation, diversity, student success, and institutional infrastructure. Discussion of each of these institutional components as they relate to the establishment of an education-abroad office follows.

### EDUCATION ABROAD: BUILDING THE INFRASTRUCTURE

#### **The Student Role**

This journey for improved student global competence begins with the student. Wilson (2011) delineated the optimal role of the community college student in the learning process: “Assisted by faculty and staff, they develop learning goals as well as strategies for achieving those goals. They participate in developing learning environments that will facilitate

achievement of their learning goals” (p. 104). Wilson cited the Waukesha County Technical College (Wisconsin) Student Growth and Development Plan, where students lead efforts to “assess their progress toward achieving the college’s Critical Life Skills and identify activities that will help strengthen areas in which additional work is needed” (p. 104).

Weber-Bosley (2010) described the role of student engagement in global education: “The product of this considerable institutional investment must be a *globally engaged student* on the road to develop into a global citizen, empowered by high-impact learning” (p. 55). Empowering students with a role in designing their own learning in education abroad is a key ingredient in the development of individual global competencies among students through the experiential and reflective learning themes highlighted in this manual.

### **Institutional Mission**

The contemporary community college mission emphasizes student program completion, commitment to diversity, and accountability to external stakeholders. The first step in building an education-abroad office is to consider how institutional mission fits into the design. Connection to the institutional strategic planning helps ensure designing a program abroad that falls within the parameter of the mission, and helps build institutional justification and support for education abroad as part of the student road to completion. The role of education abroad in the institutional mission context typically can be determined by answering the following questions:

- Is education abroad (or international education) explicitly articulated in the institutional mission or vision statement?
- How does education abroad help carry out the broader institutional mission and

vision, from maintaining access to the institutional and supporting student success?

- Does the international program help carry out institution-wide or academic program learning outcomes?

The following section highlights several themes traditionally found in community college mission statements and spells out practical steps needed to carry the broad themes forward in the development of education-abroad infrastructure.

### **Institutional Goal: Access**

The concept of the access to higher education through the institutional “open door” is the centerpiece of the traditional community college mission. As an example, the Bellevue College (Washington) mission statement articulates its recognition of the institution’s responsibility to “embrace the belief that widespread access to excellent post-secondary education is the cornerstone of a democratic society” (para. 3). The development of education abroad and the infrastructure encasing it should strive to carry out this obligation. The generally high cost of education-abroad programming can make this promise difficult to fulfill.

This commitment of the community college to offer an education to all who seek it should be, as much as possible, applied to the education-abroad opportunities at the college. The topics addressed in this manual, including diversity, student success, and institutional support and resources (including financial aid), help advance the open-door philosophy for the education-abroad student.

### **Institutional Goal: Diversity**

Closely connected to the open-door philosophy is the commitment to a diverse student body. As colleges strive for an inclusive campus, the education-abroad leaders should commit

to understanding the role of diversity in the broader institutional mission and include that commitment as it plans and puts its global infrastructure in place. Highline College, the American Association of Community Colleges' 2014 Advancing Diversity award winner, sheds light on the connection between commitment to diversity and student success in its overarching mission statement: "As a public institution of higher education serving a diverse community in a multicultural world and global economy, Highline College promotes student engagement, learning, and achievement, integrates diversity and globalism throughout the college" (para. 1).

The drive to increase diversity in education-abroad programming should be fused with the institution's overall student recruitment efforts. The existence of education-abroad at an institution can and should be a centerpiece of plans to inspire students to attend. The "practical application" section below includes examples of how this has been carried out at other higher education institutions.

Students who are underrepresented in education abroad, including those who are first-generation college attendees, racial or ethnic minorities, economically disadvantaged, or community college students in general typically come from backgrounds where overseas study itself is a foreign concept. Understanding the benefits of education abroad and having the financial means to take part are outside the experience of most of these students and their existing support networks. Specific strategies to help these students see themselves as education-abroad students are crucial.

Uniting education-abroad programming with overall college recruitment is an important first step in the effort to increase awareness and access around international programming.

As reported by Nadelson (2013), prospective college students gravitate toward

institutions that are perceived to yield rewards in social and career advancement (p. 59). Nadelson's research also suggested that the greater knowledge a student has about a specific academic program of interest, "the greater the perceived influence of the program on a student's decision to attend the university" (p. 60). Eagan (2014) in the annual national survey of more than 150,000 college freshmen, cited "to be able to get a better job" as the most important reason for deciding to attend college, cited by 86 percent of respondents as a "very important" factor (p. 38). A solid academic reputation and graduate job-placement success were the two most-often cited reasons for selecting a particular college, with 65 and 53 percent of freshmen, respectively citing these reasons as "very important" (p. 41). Specific interest in international education also was cited by freshmen, including half who indicated "Improving my understanding of other countries and cultures" as "essential" or "very important" college learning outcomes (p. 44). A little more than one-third of respondents reported a "very good chance" of their participation in an education-abroad program during college (p. 45). The factors that go into decisions about college — including college academic reputation, career preparation, and programming to expand global perspectives — can and should be at the forefront of the education-abroad professional's efforts to recruit a robust and diverse cadre of students into international programming.

### **Practical Application: Diversity and Inclusion**

Striving for diversity in education abroad begins with a holistic recruitment philosophy and continues with support for the diverse array of students who complete international study:

**Inject education-abroad programming** into the institution's overall student recruitment efforts. As one example, Hunter College (2006) in its four-year recruitment plan included

education-abroad options in its recruitment fair that targets community organizations including the Urban League to “utilize this resource to motivate these talented students to apply to Hunter College (p. 7). Similarly, Roberts (2013) introduced education-abroad opportunities in the strategic recruitment plan for Davenport University, advising university staff to highlight international opportunities to prospective students. Davenport’s recruitment plan promoted the global field placement options that are part of its applied science/social work program and the education-abroad programs and internships connected to its general business and international business programs (p. 132).

**Develop a message** that clearly communicates education-abroad benefits to target audiences (including students traditionally underrepresented in education abroad). The Center for Global Education, an international consortium of educators and partner organizations, prepared information specific to underrepresented students, ranging from professional and financial benefits to the potential to take on the role of cultural ambassador, allowing the student to play a role in dispelling media stereotypes that might exist.

**Undertake targeted recruiting.** The marketing plan should include broad-based efforts (for example press releases and internet presence). In addition, forming alliances that will facilitate outreach to targeted populations is recommended. Partnership with TRIO programs for first-generation and low-income college students, academic advising services, minority student groups, student marketing and international business associations, and student organizations akin to the education-abroad topic (for example, the Future Teachers Club for a teacher-education program abroad), is advised. In alignment with the open-door philosophy of educational access, strategically partner with professional associations that support building

infrastructure around inclusion in education abroad. NAFSA and the Institute of International Education (administrator of the Gilman Scholarship) are examples of these alliances. Service with these organizations likely will lead to informal support networks and tangible intelligence on strategies and funding in support of diversity.

**Take care to communicate** specifically with parents of students underrepresented in education abroad, including parents of first-generation college students. For example, the Diversity Abroad Network (2016) is an international consortium that offers resources on enhancing diversity in education abroad. The parent guide, in English and Spanish, includes rationales for education abroad, from gaining greater appreciation for one's own culture to needed intercultural employment skills.

**External Resources.** These resources can provide additional information in specific areas of focus. The materials below from the Center for Global Education offer handouts for minority students, offering specific guidance about how their individual racial, ethnic, or cultural background may influence their experience abroad. The parents' guides offer rationales for the importance of education abroad and practical suggestions for student health and safety abroad, both topics that could be helpful to parents of students — including first-generation college students — who have less international experience.

- 10 Reasons for African-American Students to Study Abroad. Center for Global Education. [http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement\\_afam.html](http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement_afam.html)
- 10 Reasons for Hispanic-American Students to Study Abroad. Center for Global Education. [http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement\\_hispam.html](http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement_hispam.html)
- 10 Reasons for Asian/Pacific Islander Students to Study Abroad. Center for Global

Education. [http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement\\_apia.html](http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement_apia.html)

- 10 Reasons for Native-American Students to Study Abroad. Center for Global Education. [http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement\\_natam.html](http://www.globaled.us/plato/statement_natam.html)
- Study Abroad for Parents. Diversity Abroad Network. <http://www.diversityabroad.com/guides/study-abroad-for-parents>
- Security and Safety: A Parents' Guide. NAFSA. [https://www.studyabroad.purdue.edu/safety/saf\\_parent\\_guide.cf](https://www.studyabroad.purdue.edu/safety/saf_parent_guide.cf)
- A Parent Guide to Study Abroad. Institute of International Education and American Institute for Foreign Study. <http://www.iie.org/~media/Files/Corporate/Publications/A-Parent-Guide-To-Study-Abroad.pdf?la=en>

### **Institutional Goal: Student Success**

Student engagement in learning, culminating in completion of a credential of value to the student, is driving the mission of the contemporary community college. The education-abroad office should undertake to support and enhance this mission.

Central New Mexico Community College (n.d.), 2013 AACC student success award winner, delineates its student success mission as ensuring “learning and support that promotes student persistence in achievement of education and training goals” (p. 5). Its goals in this area include the identification and measurement of strategies to promote persistence from one semester to the next, leading to successful completion of a degree, certificate, or transfer.

### **Practical Application: Student Success**

Connection between education abroad and campus efforts to help students engage and complete their academic programs is needed. These efforts might include the following actions.

**Conduct academic planning** within the education-abroad office, helping students build an overseas academic experience that is consistent with degree completion. The University of Minnesota Learning Abroad Center has among the most comprehensive student resources for education planning. Its “Study Abroad Handbook” presents a step-by-step guide for students, including a goal-setting rubric for selecting a program, specific guidance for course selection abroad, grades, transcripts, graduation requirements, and program options (from language study to field work to coursework at a foreign institution). Students are expected to complete an online “First Step” module — which highlights information on academic major and minor requirements — before meeting with a study-abroad adviser. Completion of a University of Minnesota Learning Abroad Center “Study Abroad Academic Planning Form” is required as part of the advising process. The planning form includes step-by-step instructions for selecting a program abroad and connecting it to graduation requirements.

**Incorporate student education-abroad activities** in college-wide student education plans. Under heightened pressure to improve student completion, institutions are establishing more formal processes to ensure planning for completion. Strategies typically include resources to ensure that each student sees an academic advisor and develops a map to graduation and/or transfer. An alliance with these campus efforts, resulting in global competence (including the option of education abroad), is critical. One example is Brookdale Community College, which has taken steps to integrate its student academic planning and college financing processes. Its “Enrollment Activation Form” is required of returning students to match academic progress with college funding options. The online application form includes a comprehensive interest and needs assessment inventory, including check-off items in areas such as tutoring, resume help,

internship assignments, and education-abroad opportunities.

**Include education-abroad planning** in academic program and department advising efforts. For example, the California State University, Chico makes available a “Student Success Map” including an interactive chart to global competence for several of its degree programs. Most CSU-Chico academic program success maps advise the selection of courses to meet the diversity graduation requirement during freshman year and participation in education-abroad programs by the junior year. The Latin American Studies success path includes senior-year sharing of the experience abroad with others.

**External Resources.** These resources provide specific guidance that may help the practitioner communicate and implement the connection of academic goals with participation in an education-abroad program.

- *Study Abroad Handbook*. University of Minnesota Learning Abroad Center.  
[https://umabroad.umn.edu/assets/files/PDFs/handbooks/Advising%20Handbook%2012%20\(1\).pdf](https://umabroad.umn.edu/assets/files/PDFs/handbooks/Advising%20Handbook%2012%20(1).pdf)
- *Academic Planning (form)*. University of Minnesota Learning Abroad Center.  
[https://umabroad.umn.edu/assets/files/PDFs/PeopleSoft/Common/AcademicPlanning\\_web.pdf](https://umabroad.umn.edu/assets/files/PDFs/PeopleSoft/Common/AcademicPlanning_web.pdf)
- *Student Success Maps*. University of California, Chico.  
[http://www.csuchico.edu/academicgps/student\\_success\\_maps/index.shtml](http://www.csuchico.edu/academicgps/student_success_maps/index.shtml)

### **Institutional Goal: Program Sustainability**

Balancing the strategic visions already mentioned — keeping the open door ajar, ensuring student success, cultivating a diverse campus — all contribute to final emerging imperative: sustaining these initiatives for the long term.

The Harrisburg Area Community College (n.d.) mission statement helps the practitioner understand the interconnectedness of the traditional and emerging strategic themes, by aligning “the College community, planning processes, resources, and systems to enhance enrollment, affordability, accessibility, quality, and innovation within our teaching and learning environment” (para. 1). This goal reinforces the long-term need for tuition that is affordable for students and internal practices that ensure effective fiscal management that allows quality educational experiences to guide students from class to completion.

Investment from across the campus (faculty, student organizations, student services) is important. Building support should begin with involvement in the strategic plan, which often is connected with the accreditation process. Earning broad support from inception or redesign is good public relations and also will provide opportunities for sustainability through the incorporation of education-abroad commitment in the various arms of the college — from freshman orientation to student success initiatives.

### **Practical Application: Program Sustainability**

The incremental inclusion of the indicators previously mentioned (attention to the open door, diversity, student success) form the building blocks of a strong academic program. Evidence of implementation of the institution’s articulated mission, support from the principal institutional decision makers, investment from the campus community through involvement in global education strategic planning are all part of building a sustained education-abroad program. Following are specific activities that will help contribute to sustainability of education-abroad infrastructure.

**Insert global education** into the shared-governance mechanisms of the institution.

Typically, these include the Academic or Faculty Senate, strategic planning and visioning committees, and the activities of the campus accreditation team. For example, Western Michigan University's Faculty Senate empaneled an International Education Council, which reviews and recommends enhancements to institutional global curriculum, faculty research with a global reach, community outreach, international students, and education abroad.

**Gain support from key decision makers**, usually the chief academic officer (provost or vice president) or college president. Rubin (2000) offers this advice on budget advocacy: "When resources are abundant, a more decentralized model of process may hold, with less emphasis on comparing policies and less competition between supporters of different policies" (p. 30). Steadily declining public resources for higher education is the norm, so under this model, a more centralized budget decision-making process is more likely than not. Building support through the varied components in this manual, including building global education into the strategic planning and governance policies, along with keeping the college executive team informed and involved in education-abroad activities (including pre-departure meetings and return ceremonies) will help build and continue executive support as the decline of public funding increases competition for institutional resources.

**Consider reliance on earmarked funds for global education** — those restricted for a specific purpose. Rubin (2000) described the reality of public budgeting, "based on funds, separate accounts for separate purposes. Money can be spent only through those accounts and cannot be freely swapped between accounts" (p. 23). One example of how to approach the separate fund model is the University of Texas-Austin approach, where a student fee of generally between \$1 and \$4 provides direct scholarships for education abroad. NAFSA (2009)

reported on the proceeds from this effort: “Each year UT-Austin awards over \$300,000 in scholarships to students participating in international student exchange or study programs. This is cash in hand that domestic students can use to pay program deposits, or buy their passport or plane ticket.”

**Be transparent.** Responsiveness to policymaker and institutional mandates for transparency in budgeting and program quality will help international programming efforts be consistent with current efforts to improve accountability. A congressional proposal to strengthen higher education public accountability, H.R. 4983 of the 2013-14 session passed the House but did not reach the President’s desk for signature. However, its provisions offered guidance for maintaining congruence with the transparency wishes of many current elected policy makers: number of students enrolled, student-faculty ratio, proportion of students who complete their degree programs, student funding sources including federal student loans, links between academic program data and federal government career projections. While these provisions in the Strengthening Transparency in Higher Education Act are intended for institution-wide reporting, attention to this data in international programming would help position these programs to be on-track for emerging budgetary requirements.

Similarly, President Obama’s higher education agenda, announced in 2015 around the establishment of an online college report card and additional expectations of higher education accreditors, included the following provisions: more accessible data on college cost, completion, debt, and post-college earnings. Additionally, data on access and institutional support of first-generation and low-income students including Pell grant allocation. Outlined by the U.S. Department of Education (2015), the Obama Administration’s primary goal in insisting on the

availability of additional data is to “help prospective students identify whether they can realistically expect that attending this school will provide a minimum level of employment and afford them value above and beyond a high school diploma” (p. 20).

**Seek and earn external support.** Increasingly, education-abroad practitioners are realizing the benefit of strategic engagement with external stakeholders, including the business community. Floyd (n.d.) in the Washington State University 2014-2019 strategic plan, articulated a connection among increasing its global reach, faculty and student intercultural exchange, and the University’s impact on global engagement in “health, agriculture, and sustainability” (p. 10). Similarly, the Ohio State University (n.d.) articulated a clear institution-wide international vision, including a commitment to “solving problems of world-wide significance” (para. 1). Through its global gateway offices, including its inaugural downtown business office in Shanghai, China, Ohio State plans vibrant connections among faculty research, executive training programs, alumni networking, business partnerships within Ohio, and new education-abroad programs. The international vision is included in each of its academic divisions. For example, the Ohio State College of Arts and Sciences (n.d.) presented a plan for integration of campus courses and education-abroad experiences. The Ohio State College of Engineering (n.d.) acknowledged the strategic imperative that “science and engineering are global endeavors” (p. 4) and laid out a plan for increased student participation in experiential learning, including in education abroad.

**Design and implement a communications plan** for education abroad with support from the appropriate campus marketing professional. The University of Northern Colorado (n.d.) pointed out that marketing is not simply selling your program, but it is highlighting the academic

purpose of the experience by “creating and delivering value to your target population (p. 29).

Understanding the reasons students want to take part — from the desire to a structured international learning experience to integration of course work from their major — is important. Identifying best practices for communicating the message, from classroom visits to social media, is necessary.

**External Resources — Institutional Governance.** This information offers specific guidance on different strategies for governance of international programming within the institution. The NAFSA program financing material includes several student and organizational funding models, along with specific case studies on efforts that have been successful at other institutions.

- *Faculty Senate International Education Council.* Western Michigan University.  
<https://wmich.edu/facultysenate/councils/international>
- *Models for Program Financing.* NAFSA.  
<http://www.nafsa.org/findresources/Default.aspx?id=17348>
- *H.B. 4983, Strengthening Transparency in Higher Education Act.* U.S. Congress.  
<https://www.congress.gov/bill/113th-congress/house-bill/4983>

**External Resources — Marketing.** These resources provide step-by-step guidance, including examples, of strategies for marketing education-abroad programs.

- *Study Abroad Program Leader Guide: Publicizing your program.* Michigan State University.  
[http://studyabroad.isp.msu.edu/faculty\\_handbook/recruitment/publicizing.html](http://studyabroad.isp.msu.edu/faculty_handbook/recruitment/publicizing.html)
- *Effectively Marketing Faculty-Led Study Abroad Programs.* University of Northern Colorado.

### **Institutional Need: Accreditation**

Accrediting bodies vary on the extent to which global education, and more specifically, education-abroad programming, are addressed in their written guidance on accreditation standards.

The Middle States Commission on Higher Education (2011) articulated clear guiding standards of teaching and learning in higher education congruent with the discussion of student competency: “The institution’s curricula are designed so that students acquire and demonstrate college-level proficiency in general education and essential skills, including at least oral and written communication, scientific and quantitative reasoning, critical analysis and reasoning, and technological competency” (p. 47).

The need for assessment of student learning also is spelled out by the MSC: “procedures to assess learning for the award of academic credit (especially where such credit is part of an accelerated degree program) should define college-level learning and state clearly that credit is awarded for demonstrated learning, and not merely for experience” (p. 53-54)

The Higher Learning Commission (n.d.) incorporates the realities of global connectedness in its guiding principles for accreditation: “A contemporary education must recognize contemporary circumstances: the diversity of U.S. society, the diversity of the world in which students live, and the centrality of technology and the global dynamic to live in the 21st century” (para. 8).

In short, the education-abroad practitioner should take care that institutional commitment, academic and logistical infrastructure, and clarity and communication of

education-abroad objectives to stakeholders are in place.

### **Institutional Infrastructure and Campus Interconnectedness**

The establishment of an education-abroad office should include careful thought to its role in relationship to the broader campus. The extent to which key constituents are involved in planning, implementing and sustaining the new infrastructure can have tangible effect on longstanding success of global student learning. Brustein (2009) described an international infrastructure interwoven throughout the fabric of the institution: “true internationalization calls for *a thorough infusion of integration* of international experiences and perspectives within the teaching, discovery and engagement missions of each academic unit” (p. 250). Brustein touched on several essential elements to address in the design of a comprehensive internationalization focus on campus. In particular, connection to strategic plans across the institution, integration with curriculum plans, acknowledgement of financial operations, the establishment of global partnerships, and the existence of high-level institutional support, are central to successful efforts to building a successful education-abroad infrastructure. Further discussion on putting needed infrastructure in place follows. Typically, one academic year is needed to develop needed institutional infrastructure, with an additional year required to develop a specific education-abroad program, making the planning process from idea to feet on the ground a two-year venture. The specific timetable is dependent on the structure and size of a particular institution, as well as many other confounding variables.

The institutional infrastructure plan could be prepared by an institution-wide task force, or done under the direction of a professional staff person (perhaps through the appointment of an education-abroad coordinator who would direct infrastructure planning and operations as

programs are developed and implemented). The tenets of the placement of education-abroad infrastructure within the broader organization include securing top-level institutional commitment, grassroots engagement (often through strategic planning), and building internal and external coalitions around international education. The American Council on Education (2012) articulated the need for institutional infrastructure for comprehensive internationalization — including through education abroad — in its “Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses”: “This process requires a clear commitment by top-level institutional leaders, meaningfully impacts the curriculum and a broad range of people, policies, and programs, and results in deep and ongoing incorporation of international perspectives and activities throughout the institution” (p. 3). West (2012) offered specific advice on moving forward with building support among internal stakeholders, including:

- Begin efforts to build support with those closest to the issue, and branch out from those efforts (for example, anthropology faculty interested in the study of different cultures is a natural place to start, with the potential for linkages to their colleagues in other social science fields).
- Rely on the expertise of faculty, seeking out their expertise in other learning models, including the first-year experience course, learning communities, or service learning. Those involved in these learning opportunities may be more interested in making linkages with education-abroad opportunities for students.
- Use support from the top, but “remember that leadership is multi-level so redesign doesn’t only have to be from the top down” (p. 4).

### **Institutional Support and Resources**

As discussed in the previous sections of this manual, securing support from campus

leadership and external stakeholders — as well as aligning the education-abroad mission with the institutional mission — are key foundational steps. With institutional support and mission alignment in place, a thoughtful dialog with key internal players is crucial to move the infrastructure, and ultimately programming abroad, to reality. The expected on-campus partners include the following:

**Business office.** Education-abroad students will pay standard tuition for their coursework abroad, but generally have additional costs in housing and transportation. Working with the institution's business operation to determine the best way to collect and pay these costs is important.

**Risk management.** The health and safety of students abroad is paramount. The development of a plan to proactively incorporate student international health insurance, medical information documents that conform to federal health privacy law, and student conduct into the education-abroad operations across all programs abroad is required. Generally, the institution's attorney, risk management director, and student conduct officer will be involved in the development of risk management and crisis response plans.

**Curriculum committee.** The body at most institutions that oversees and approves the development of new courses and academic programs is the curriculum committee. At some institutions, the provost, chief academic officer, faculty senate, or academic affairs office might also play a role. Building the education-abroad program development effort into the existing institutional academic approval process is crucial to building stakeholder support and sustaining education-abroad programming, as discussed in previous sections of this manual.

**Financial aid office.** As with student access to higher education, financial aid can play an

important role in the ability of students to participate in an education-abroad experience.

Working with the institution's financial aid personnel to maximize financial opportunities for students should be part of the planning process as infrastructure is put in place, and as specific students make plans for experiences abroad.

**Multicultural and student life offices.** Forming alliances, even informal, with the offices that organize campus events on diversity, inclusion, and other student activities is likely to be beneficial. Formal partnerships might result as well, perhaps linking specific education-abroad opportunities with interested student organizations (for example, the international student association might want to partner to organize a program to a specific country, or the student marketing association might want to become involved with a marketing education-abroad experience).

**Professional development.** Faculty will have content expertise for the experiences abroad they will lead, but likely could benefit from intercultural communication training. The infrastructure planning phase should include identification of training for faculty leaders abroad to prepare them to help students prepare for cross-cultural differences and to lead the reflective activities that help students make tangible gains in global competence. Vande Berg, Quinn, and Menyhart (2012) offer specific suggestions on the area of faculty professional development, which they said has "become our most important focus" (p. 399). Their areas of professional development emphasis include communicating learning expectations with clarity, using experiential learning effectively, helping students apply holistic learning principles to their experience abroad, and effective assessment of learning. In addition, academic advisors — whether in academic programs or institution wide — should be briefed on student

opportunities abroad to aid in their communication with students.

### **Practical Application: Institutional Support and Resources**

To align with the institutional mission for student access, the design of an education-abroad program should implement strategies to augment student resources for international study.

**Identify an exhaustive list of external scholarship opportunities** that support efforts in the program and location priorities for your institution's education-abroad offerings.

**Communicate with the institution's financial aid office** to identify new and existing approaches to student aid for education abroad, from Pell Grant to federal loans, as well as educational financial planning tools that might help students.

**Unite efforts to enhance student financial resources** with the student completion goals outlined in the forthcoming student success section of this manual (in particular, the efforts to ensure that education-abroad coursework is congruent with student plans for a timely completion). Education-abroad academic credit incorporated seamlessly into academic planning is likely to result in cost savings.

**External Resources — Financial Aid.** These sites represent a window to the world of funding education abroad, including numerous additional resources for students with links to specific scholarship databases.

- *U.S. Study Abroad Scholarships and Grants List.* NAFSA.  
[http://www.nafsa.org/Explore\\_International\\_Education/For\\_Students/U\\_S\\_\\_Study\\_Abroad\\_Scholarships\\_and\\_Grants\\_List/](http://www.nafsa.org/Explore_International_Education/For_Students/U_S__Study_Abroad_Scholarships_and_Grants_List/)
- *Information for Multicultural Students Studying Abroad: Scholarships for Multicultural Students.* Michigan State University.

<http://studyabroad.isp.msu.edu/people/studentsofcolor/scholarships.html>

- *Funding Study Abroad. Valencia College.*  
<https://valenciacollege.edu/international/studyabroad/students/fundingstudyabroad.cfm>
- *Financial Aid Arrangements Form for Study Abroad.* State University of New York.  
[http://www.geneseo.edu/webfm\\_send/5494](http://www.geneseo.edu/webfm_send/5494)
- *Financial Aid & Study Abroad: Basic Facts for Students.* NAFSA, 2014.  
[http://www.nafsa.org/Find\\_Resources/Supporting\\_Study\\_Abroad/Network\\_Resources/Education\\_Abroad/Financial\\_Aid\\_\\_\\_Study\\_Abroad\\_\\_\\_Basic\\_Facts\\_for\\_Students/](http://www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Supporting_Study_Abroad/Network_Resources/Education_Abroad/Financial_Aid___Study_Abroad___Basic_Facts_for_Students/)

**External Resources — Professional Development.** These resources offer practitioners a forum for sharing ideas, as well as specific opportunities for professional development in education abroad and related international education topics.

- *Knowledge Communities.* NAFSA.  
[http://www.nafsa.org/Connect\\_and\\_Network/Networking\\_with\\_NAFSA/Professional\\_Networks/Knowledge\\_Communities/](http://www.nafsa.org/Connect_and_Network/Networking_with_NAFSA/Professional_Networks/Knowledge_Communities/)
- *Training and Events.* The Forum on Education Abroad. <https://forumea.org/training-events/>
- *Professional Development.* Council on International Education Exchange.  
<https://www.ciee.org/what/>

#### STAGE 1, EDUCATION ABROAD PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT: WHAT SHOULD STUDENTS LEARN?

John Dewey (1933) suggested that “we do not learn from experience...we learn from reflecting on experience” (p. 78). This dissertation chapter provides guidance for the construction of an education-abroad program with a strong focus on learning that leads to the

acquisition of global competence skills. The theory and practical advice offered in this chapter ultimately are built around Dewey's notion of reflection to facilitate effective learning and will serve as a guide for the higher education professional to develop an education program abroad with intent and purpose. Because of growing interest from a growing cadre of community colleges to develop and enhance global programming, emphasis is placed in this document on the role of two-year institutions to develop opportunities abroad. However, to maximize its usefulness, every effort has been made for each section to be self-contained to allow institutions of assorted kinds and at various stages of implementation of global programming to benefit from this guide. Like the global experiences this manual strives to inspire, it is developed with intent, relying on the literature, hands-on documents, and practical feedback from education-abroad professionals. The first section of the manual offers guidance on aligning education-abroad programming with institutional directives on access, diversity, student success, program sustainability, and accreditation. Next, focus is on the development of programming abroad — with emphasis on learning that is intentional in its development of student global competence facilitated through both immersion activities and structured reflection on those activities. Each topic presents a backdrop rooted in theory and research, followed by practical guidance. The practical guidance offers specific steps to take, with many topics including external resources offered as blueprints for success. Throughout, focus is placed on the interconnectedness of international programming with other institutional functions and the relationship among educational theories when transformed into practical use.

This manual takes a process approach informed by learner-centered instructional design models, where practitioners begin by identifying what students should learn and move from

that point to how they should learn it. The first issues addressed in this manual are “foundational” — the steps that should be taken in the overarching design of an education-abroad program. These foundational steps are closely aligned with institutional mission, which often include access, diversity, student success, program sustainability, and accountability.

The next steps are more directly related to the Understanding by Design instructional model, guiding the education-abroad instructional designer through the following stages:

**Stage 1: Identifying Desired Results.** This step is where the learning goals are identified for the education-abroad experience. The primary question about what students should learn is answered.

**Stage 2: Determining Evidence.** This step is centered on figuring out how you will assess whether students have learned the desired outcomes spelled out in Stage 1. Ultimately, this step is about ensuring that the evidence collected will lead to reasonably accurate assessment of desired student learning.

**Stage 3: Learning Plan.** This phase is about transforming the desired results and assessment goals into strategies and activities that result in student learning abroad.

As the education-abroad program design is built, a dual-pronged approach is needed: consideration for academic program content standards and the development of global competence. For example, an education-abroad program centered on International Business would include learning outcomes in content (such as a region’s role in the 21<sup>st</sup> century economy) but also learning outcomes focused on the application of those content outcomes in global competence that can be achieved through immersion and reflection during the experience abroad (perhaps problem-solving to develop intercultural competence).

To fulfill the previously addressed imperatives of student success, completion, and program accountability, the education-abroad experience should be associated with academic credit that is part of the student path to a credential (diploma, certificate, or transfer requirement achievement). Additionally, to justify the assignment of resources for education abroad, care should be taken to build experiences into the program abroad to aid in student development of global competence as defined by educators and employers.

### **Education-Abroad Learning Theory: From Immersion to Intervention**

Pedagogical theory helps frame the effort to design education-abroad programming that has success in improving student competency in intended outcomes. At one end of the teaching and learning spectrum is positivism, a theory grounded in the learner building on existing knowledge through fact-finding. Johnson (2003) described positivism as where students are encouraged to master “expert understandings and to develop their own skills of observation, classification, and logical analysis” (p. 284). Paige (2015) applied the positivist approach to learning abroad, where “intercultural competence would be thought to occur naturally, derived from whatever experiences students might be having with host country persons” (para. 6).

Continuing along the theoretical learning continuum, the education-abroad designer encounters relativism, where intercultural competence occurs through immersion abroad, often experienced through home stays, enrollment in subject-matter coursework, and formal or informal interaction with locals. The relativist attempts to explain the complex intercultural interactions, but the focus is not on self-reflection or applying the lessons of one context to another. This relativist approach to intercultural education can be put in the scientific

framework of Einstein's Theory of Relativity, which proclaimed that the speed of light is constant, but might be seen differently depending on a person's position in time and space. As described by Emspak (2014), "there is no "absolute" frame of reference. Every time you measure an object's velocity, or its momentum, or how it experiences time, it's always in relation to something else" (para. 3). In short, Einstein's theory provides for the reality of different vantage points, but prescribes that the realities that exist are constant. Bennett (2012) applied the relativist approach to global understanding: "After an acknowledgement of our differing world views, there is nothing much more to be done, except perhaps to decry the efforts of the more powerful to impose their world view on the less powerful" (p. 97).

Moving further along the learning spectrum is constructivism, which brings us to an approach where knowledge is not simply transferred from teacher to learner, but rather constructed by the learner. The hallmark of constructivist-oriented instruction, which can take many forms, is its active rather than passive stance. Hoover (1996) described the constructivist classroom as one where students "apply current understandings, note relevant elements in new learning experiences, judge the consistency of prior and emerging knowledge, and based on that judgment, they can modify knowledge" (para. 4). Each of these learning theories will play a role in the development of this manual's forthcoming practical guidance.

### **Program-Abroad Design**

With institutional infrastructure in place, the education-abroad program development process can begin. The subsequent sections of the manual guide the learning abroad program developer through the steps needed to help make the experience abroad in congruence with the mission of the community college and the learning expectations of the student. With this

mission in mind, the education-abroad designer will build a program that begins by asking what the student should learn, which instructional methods support that learning, how the experience complements instead of hinders degree completion, and how learning will be assessed. In general, because of the guidance offered in this manual is intended for community college use in developing new infrastructure and programs, the underlying assumption is that short-term programs of less than a semester abroad are realistic given existing college and student resources.

### **Practical Application: Development of Course Proposal and Syllabus**

The education-abroad course proposal should address:

- The curricular focus, including the academic program area to which the program belongs, and the extent to which an existing course will be used or adapted
- The specific learning outcomes planned for the academic program abroad
- The global competency outcomes desired (for example, intercultural competence)
- The rationale for conducting the course abroad instead of on campus
- The rationale for offering the learning in the proposed location abroad
- How this academic program will advance student academic completion goals? (for example, whether or not the credit associated with the program abroad count toward student graduation requirements)
- The number of credits earned, contact hours completed, and program length (number of weeks or semesters), in accordance with institutional guidelines
- The teaching methods employed and mode of delivery (face-to-face, hybrid, or online)

- The faculty expertise to teach and manage the academic program abroad.

The syllabus should address the following issues: course description, credits, academic learning outcomes, global competency outcomes, instructional methods, evaluation methods, and tentative itinerary that integrates course topics, assignment due dates, travel plans. Take care to include pre-departure and post-return activities.

#### **External Resources.**

- Understanding by Design. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. <http://www.ascd.org/research-a-topic/understanding-by-design-resources.aspx>
- The Guide to Successful Short-Term Study Programs Abroad. NAFSA. [https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/guide\\_to\\_successful\\_short-term.pdf?n=3985](https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/guide_to_successful_short-term.pdf?n=3985)
- Short-Term Study Abroad Programs Faculty Handbook. NAFSA (from Towson University). [https://nafsa.org/File/faculty\\_handbook\\_towson.pdf](https://nafsa.org/File/faculty_handbook_towson.pdf)
- Student Guide to Study Abroad. Institute for International Education. <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Publications-and-Reports/IIE-Bookstore/Student-Guide-to-Study-Abroad-2013/Student-Guide-to-Study-Abroad-2013-eBook-Download>

#### **Program Logistics: Location**

There is emphasis on the encouragement of student education-abroad in non-traditional destinations, usually defined as non-Western cultures (including Asia, Africa, Eastern Europe, the Middle East and Latin America). Ogden (2006), for NAFSA, argued that these locations generally lead to “changes in attitude, flexibility and the development of complex problem solving skills” (para. 2), all elements of the global competencies in which practitioners desire improved student skill. Che (2009) articulated the benefits of experiencing “struggle and

dissonance” during education-abroad as a vehicle for competence improvement, often realized through study in non-traditional locations (p. 102).

Given the emerging evidence of experiential experience and critical reflection on student competency through education abroad, location should be considered in concert with other program factors, including program design with focus on reflective activities.

### **Program Logistics: Duration**

The benefits of long-term education abroad (generally described as a semester or longer) are well-documented. Dwyer (2004), in a study of more than 3,000 education-abroad students over five decades, revealed a deeper student impact for longer education abroad, including for the development of skills that helped in career preparation and in language ability. Dwyer’s analysis of the body of literature, along with her own research education-abroad participants, fueled her conclusion that longer-term experiences yielded greater benefit. However, many survey areas — including understanding differing cultural values, increased self-confidence, and enhance ability to tolerate ambiguity — showed little difference in competence gains between academic year and semester students abroad. A likely explanation, according to Dwyer, is “that well-planned, intensive summer programs of at least 6 weeks’ duration can have a significant impact on student growth across a variety of important outcomes” (p. 161). Antonakopoulou (2013) in research of American education-abroad students in Greece, compared the intercultural competency gains of students in four-week and three-month programs. In measuring understanding of local perspectives, values, world views, and communication of host culture, the researcher noted “evidence of high achievement of sociocultural adaptation scores for all students regardless of the time spent in the new culture”

(p. 67).

Similarly, Horn and Fry (2013) in a study of the likelihood of education abroad to inspire a lasting commitment to volunteerism, discovered that the reality of a shorter program did not reduce the gains made by an appropriate location or program type (such as language study, internship or service learning). Horn and Fry, whose research included more than 6,000 education-abroad alumni from 22 institutions and service providers, concluded that “short-term experiences in developing countries and short-term service learning may thus positively influence the propensity for development volunteerism, though such programs must be carefully designed” (p. 1174). Two themes in particular emerge from this discussion of program duration: (1) Given the comparatively limited resources of community colleges and their students, the option of shorter, and less expensive, programs abroad, is a growing reality. (2) To ensure a good return on investment, the importance of thoughtful attention to the development of desired competencies during programming abroad is emphasized.

### **Program Logistics: Instructional Delivery Method**

Traditional face-to-face instruction and the development of online instruction gave rise to a hybrid, or blended, format where online learning components augment the face-to-face instruction. Demand for institutional cost savings and responsiveness to student needs has been a factor in the development of online and blended learning. These demands, along with the fast-expanding and changing use of technology in the classroom, make the discussion of the role of blended learning in education-abroad program critical.

Norberg, Dziuban, and Moskal (2011) cited a dramatic decrease in students who take courses with only face-to-face components (a predicted drop from 14 million in 2012 to 4

million five years later). The researchers, who investigated various models of blended learning, described an emerging reality where “blending becomes a mix of place vs. non-place events” (p. 7). This notion has important implications for education-abroad programming, which typically has multiple learning locations. The potential for online learning to augment the face-to-face experience exists. Demirer and Sahin (2013) explored the possibilities of using the online components of blended learning to effectively support the transfer of knowledge delivered in the face-to-face course time. In their experimental research design, the group that participated in blended learning demonstrated enhanced transfer of knowledge to multi-media projects compared to students who took part in only face-to-face instruction. In particular, the researchers noted increased opportunities to “actively engage in shaping their own learning, facilitate greater reflection on course content and broaden students’ learning” (p. 526). A well-designed online discussion forum, allowing for more interaction among students because of the time and place flexibility that comes with an online platform, was cited as an important reason for the recorded learning gains.

Practitioners should give careful consideration to the use of online learning platforms as part of the delivery of education-abroad programming, especially for components of the pre-departure materials and the reflective analysis during and after the program abroad.

### **Applying Instructional Theory to Academic Programming Abroad: The Big Picture**

The focus of this manual is on the connection between immersion, experiential learning, and guided reflection during the experience abroad. An emerging body of research suggests that the immersion — the opportunity for interaction with the culture abroad — is just the beginning. In a study of 61 education-abroad programs, Georgetown University measured the

improved global competency of nearly 1,300 students, along with a control group of 138 students. Interestingly, some of the mainstays of international programming — the home stay and direct enrollment in a foreign university, and participation in structured cultural activities abroad — made little shift in intercultural competency in this study. Additionally, the Georgetown research suggested that the length of the program alone was a minimal factor in improving student competency. Paige and Vande Berg (2012) reported the most significant element of the Georgetown University study was the use of “most predictive of intercultural development is cultural development” (p. 37), put into action with faculty-guided student reflection on the experience. This research has contributed to the premise of this dissertation that the improved competence through education abroad is implemented through the immersion-experience-reflection continuum.

## STAGE 2, EDUCATION-ABROAD PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT: HOW SHOULD LEARNING BE ASSESSED?

Assessment of what was learned grows out of previously addressed topics — including student success and accountability. Educators are driven to ensure student learning; external stakeholders want to see the learning documented. Nunley (2011) pointed to the pressing need to connect the open door of the community college to clear commitment to confirmation that learning is happening after students walk through the door. Nunley equated providing access without value-added learning to “an empty promise” (3). In short, determining what students should learn (outcomes) is the first step; reviewing the effectiveness of those outcomes follows.

Musil (2006), for the Association of American Colleges and Universities, outlined the importance of establishing learning outcomes and connecting those to specific methods of assessment. Under this model, global education learning goals should be established in each

segment of the institution: overarching institutional goals, general education goals, division or departmental goals, individual course goals, and campus life goals. The institution-wide goals might allow for deep reflection among internal and external stakeholders about the role of global education in its organization. The establishment of division and department goals might seek to address both alliance with the institutional goals as well as areas where a program's nuance might warrant a divergence from the overarching goals. Musil also argued for individual course outcomes for global learning to be connected to overarching and departmental goals. She cautioned: "Without this coordination and alignment, students will continue to experience episodic and unconnected opportunities for global learning" (p. 9).

Data from Nunley reported a national trend going well beyond multiple-choice testing as the standard for assessment of student learning. Alternate methods include simulations, demonstrations, employer or external expert surveys or interviews, and portfolios that highlight learning outcome achievement.

As outlined by Musil, the process for attaching assessments to learning goals is complex. It should include deep and thoughtful discussion among the stakeholders, consensus around appropriate assessments, broad application of the agreed-upon goal/assessment continuum, review of the assessment results, and willingness to revise "course objectives, outcomes, or assessment strategies accordingly to improve students' global learning in future courses" (p. 15).

### **Practical Application: Assessment of Learning**

In short, conducting meaningful assessment is to review or establish learning outcomes and then synchronize those outcomes with appropriate assessment to ensure that learning has

happened. Guidance from the AAC&U and Musil (2006) advocates the development of “multiple, robust, interdisciplinary learning opportunities at increasing levels of intellectual challenge” (p. 2). The following examples are illustrative of establishing a continuum from goals to outcomes to assessments:

**Goal:** generate new knowledge about global studies. **Outcome:** Students can pose critical questions about power relations as they investigate the dynamics of global transactions as applied to a social problem important to their field. **Assessment strategies:** pre- and post-test to demonstrate mastery; student portfolios to document growth across the experience.

**Goal:** Cultivate intercultural competencies. **Outcome:** Students can view a single issue from multiple perspectives and are more comfortable with complexity and ambiguity. **Assessment strategies:** intercultural competency survey instrument, faculty observation of interactive dynamics, student self-assessments at regular intervals (p. 16).

#### **External Resources.**

- *The Essential Learning Outcomes.* Association of American Colleges and Universities. [https://www.aacu.org/sites/default/files/files/LEAP/EssentialOutcomes\\_Chart.pdf](https://www.aacu.org/sites/default/files/files/LEAP/EssentialOutcomes_Chart.pdf)
- *How to Write Program Objectives/Outcomes.* University of Connecticut. <http://assessment.uconn.edu/docs/HowToWriteObjectivesOutcomes.pdf>
- *Writing Objectives Using Bloom’s Taxonomy.* University of North Carolina - Charlotte. <http://teaching.uncc.edu/learning-resources/articles-books/best-practice/goals-objectives/writing-objectives>
- *Global Learning: Aligning Student Learning Outcomes With Study Abroad.* NAFSA. [https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/NAFSA\\_Home/Resource\\_Library\\_Assets/Networks/CCB/AligningLearningOutcomes.pdf](https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/NAFSA_Home/Resource_Library_Assets/Networks/CCB/AligningLearningOutcomes.pdf)

- *Assessing Global Learning*. Association of American Colleges and Universities.  
[http://archive.aacu.org/SharedFutures/documents/Global\\_Learning.pdf](http://archive.aacu.org/SharedFutures/documents/Global_Learning.pdf).

### **Pre-Departure Phase: The Link Between Planning and Implementation**

Planning for programming abroad and assessment of programming abroad should flow seamlessly into pre-departure activities, which should serve as a solid bridge to gaining intercultural competency during learning abroad. Lou and Bosley (2012) described the pre-departure workshop as a means to “familiarize students with intercultural concepts as well as issues of perception, interpretation, and evaluation” (p. 347). It also is a chance to begin the assessment process, to gauge individual student global competence and lay the groundwork for student learning to come.

As discussed in the previous section on assessment, determining what students should learn and connecting that to learning activities that lead to mastery of the outcomes is at the heart of our mission. The use of an instrument during the pre-departure phase to assess global competence will serve a dual purpose: to establish an intercultural competence benchmark for each student and to aid in the overall assessment of student learning.

### **Practical Application: Pre-Departure Activities**

Select an intercultural or global competence assessment instrument that helps carry out the student learning outcome goals and assessment plan. The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) or the Global Perspectives Inventory (GPI), as examples, provide for assessment of individual global competence. The IDI asks questions to place students on a continuum from a monocultural to intercultural mindset. As presented by the IDI’s administrator, the MDB Group (2011), a student closer to a monocultural mindset might see “cultural differences based

on one's own cultural values and practices," while someone with a more intercultural perspective would tend to analyze the world "based on one's own and other cultural values and perspectives" (p. 1). The GPI, hosted by Iowa State University (n.d.), measures "how students think, view themselves as people with cultural heritage, and relate to others from other cultures, backgrounds and values" (para. 1). The GPI gauges cognitive, interpersonal, and intrapersonal student dimensions. Each inventory provides an individual report on each student's intercultural competence.

Introduce key cultural concepts, including the implications of externalizing U.S. cultural nuances, the likelihood of misunderstandings that result from intercultural communication differences, and "culture shock," the challenge of adjusting to a new culture.

#### **External Resources.**

- *Study Abroad Orientation Handbook*. University of Missouri.  
[https://mystudyabroad.missouri.edu/\\_customtags/ct\\_FileRetrieve.cfm?File\\_ID=575](https://mystudyabroad.missouri.edu/_customtags/ct_FileRetrieve.cfm?File_ID=575)
- *Icebreakers and Activities*. NAFSA (Prepared by the University of Maryland).  
[http://www.nafsa.org/Find\\_Resources/Supporting\\_Study\\_Abroad/Network\\_Resources/Education\\_Abroad/Icebreakers\\_and\\_Activities/](http://www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Supporting_Study_Abroad/Network_Resources/Education_Abroad/Icebreakers_and_Activities/)
- *Pre-Departure Checklist*. University of Arkansas.  
<http://studyabroad.uark.edu/students/preparing-to-go/pre-departure-checklist.php>
- *Study Abroad Packing List: Created for Students by Students*. Oakland University.  
[http://oakland.abroadoffice.net/res/saoffice\\_static\\_pages/2068/updated%20Study%20Abroad%20Packing%20List.pdf](http://oakland.abroadoffice.net/res/saoffice_static_pages/2068/updated%20Study%20Abroad%20Packing%20List.pdf)
- *Predeparture Preparations Tips from Students*. University of Minnesota. Learning Abroad Center Information for students with disabilities.

<http://umabroad.umn.edu/students/identity/disabilities/preplanning>

- *The Global Perspective Inventory (GPI)*. Iowa State University.  
<http://www.gpi.hs.iastate.edu/>
- Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI). <https://idiinventory.com/>

### STAGE 3, EDUCATION-ABROAD PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT: WHAT IS THE LEARNING PLAN?

#### **Overarching Concepts**

Three concepts — purpose, interaction, and reflection — form the building blocks of effective learning. Kuh (2008), in describing high-impact teaching and learning practices, recommended devoting “considerable time and effort to purposeful tasks; most require daily decisions that deepen students’ investment in the activity” (p. 14). An example of such a high-impact practice might be a writing center that commits to small instructor-student ratios and regular, sustained interaction and feedback among students, peer advisors, and faculty in support of gains around the learning outcomes.

#### **Program Abroad Design**

With the Understanding by Design framework, the key question to answer in Stage 3: Learning Plan. This phase is about transforming the desired results and assessment goals into strategies and activities that result in student learning abroad. Research into the effectiveness of specific education-abroad program ability to improve global competence reveals clues for building a program with measurable transformation. Engle (2012) outlined a French practicum abroad built around a “five-pointed star” including planned engagement in French family life, community service, local sport or club, weekly conversation with a French peer, and optional direct enrollment in a local university class. This program was language focused, structuring a

holistic approach to language acquisition, from anticipating and practicing language needs for upcoming activities, incorporation of vocabulary in the non-language courses, and class reflection on experiences through writing, readings, interviews with locals, and presentations. Additionally, limits on communication with non-local people were put in place to help facilitate full cultural interaction with the students' present experience.

Dewey's assertion about the importance of reflection as an integral step in the learning process has been tested, both in 21<sup>st</sup> century vocational and educational settings. Di Stefano (2015) offered evidence to confirm the notion of reflection as paramount as part of a corporate training model. In research chronicled in the Harvard Business Review, Di Stefano argued that "one of the critical components of learning is reflection, or the intentional attempt to synthesize, abstract, and articulate the key lessons taught by experience" (p. 1). The premise of Harvard research is, in brief, that learning by doing often is of benefit, but that without reflection and analysis of the action, learning is minimal. A key question is where the point of diminishing returns from the experience sets in, essentially, when an additional task should be substituted by reflection on the already-completed tasks. The Harvard research showed that "individuals who are given time to reflect on a task improve their performance more than those who are given the same amount of time to practice with the same task" (p. 3). The rationale for the improved learning through reflection was attributed to the improved self-efficacy gained from the time offered for reflection. The practical application can be realized, including in this effort to design an education-abroad experience that yields tangible improvement in student competency. The skeletal axis of this process is the blending of action and reflection, taking care not to diminish emphasis on reflective activities.

The University of Minnesota Maximizing Study Abroad (MAXSA) project incorporated the concepts of experiential learning and connection of the education-abroad experience to the past, present and future of the student participant. Paige (2012) outlined the following principles guiding the development of programming abroad under the MAXSA model, developed, evaluated and revised beginning in 1993:

- Communicate learning strategies as a backdrop to the learning program, so students can “employ them to enhance learning” (p. 312).
- Employ the learning in a continuum, from pre-program to in-country to post-program.
- Encourage interactive learning, where students use daily experiences to inspire learning.
- Facilitate reflection, where learning is enhanced by “providing students with key culture and language concepts to help make better sense of their experiences” (p. 312).

### **Practical Application: Program-Abroad Design**

Engle (2012) proposed a handful of action-items on which to focus in education-abroad design: regular interaction with foreign nationals, repositioning one’s self in the society abroad, attempting new ways of interaction, exercising understanding and empathy of the new culture (p. 298).

Closely aligned with the experiential tasks are reflective activities: recording and sharing events, noting and reacting to observed and experienced cultural differences, engaging in discussion of experiences with a theory-based framework, “cataloging/schematizing cultural values and assumptions” (p. 298).

Build on the intercultural competence benchmark established in the pre-departure inventory as you design assignments and activities. Fry (2010) included several tasks that allowed students to build upon their frame of reference in describing their experience abroad. For example, an assignment given early in the experience might ask students to identify a photo or song that describes the education-abroad experience, with explanation about how it “embodies your study abroad experience for you thus far, and why” (p. 3). Student questions to answer include: “What cultural lens are you viewing your experience through? What holds importance for you? How can you portray this experience to others, and discuss the differences you are encountering?” (p. 5).

Assignments might rely on assigned readings to guide students to inquiry learning activities. Tomasek (2014), in the development of an education-abroad course in Malawi, included a World Bank reading on poverty in Malawi, along with inquiry questions such as “How do Malawians view the value of literacy?” and “How do Malawians describe their current (or evolving) culture?” These questions could be answered from a blending of the readings and structured interactions — perhaps language partners or homestay hosts. Broader questions from the Malawi course include questions like, “How do we, as developed western citizens fit into the bigger picture of this region?” and “What are our responsibilities (if any) to regions similar to this?” and “How much is enough and what is considered enough for a ‘good life’?” (p. 3).

Reflection on experiences should happen throughout the program abroad, incorporated into discussions and assignments. Syracuse University (n.d.) articulates the following components of reflective themes: “crucially reflect upon their experience, integrate their

learning into their lives at home, decipher stereotypes, and develop means to speak and write critically about their time abroad.” The Purdue University College of Science (n.d.) includes education abroad as one vehicle for fulfilling its requirement for global competency. Its capstone reflective paper prescribes the following line of inquiry:

- “In what ways is the culture where you studied different from your own?
- How is this culture similar to your own?
- What, if anything, shocked you?
- How does this culture define “learning” or “knowledge”?
- How have cultural differences made you more aware of your own culture — of its benefits, limitations, strengths, or biases?
  - In what ways might your own culture/society benefit by learning from that of others, specifically from the one in which you studied?
  - How do cultural differences allow others to view you differently than you view yourself?”

### **Education-Abroad and Career Preparation: The Nexis**

Connection of the education-abroad experience to college curriculum and career competence is an important theme of this dissertation. Helping students communicate the outcomes of their experience abroad is a key component of the mission of the challenge of a global program with intent and purpose. The learning experience abroad is different and one that many have not personally experienced. It is crucial for students to be able to say more than, “It was a life-changing experience, but it’s so hard to explain.” Global education professionals need to be skilled in helping students articulate the competency improvement to

graduate school admission officials and employers.

### **Practical Application: Career Preparation**

NAFSA (2013) offered strategies for connecting activities abroad with future career opportunities. Included in this repertoire are the following activities:

- Keep a journal of intercultural experiences that moved participants outside their comfort zone.
- Record skill acquisition and improvement.
- Schedule meeting with employers abroad “to compare how culture impacts work and to understand your field of interest in a more global way” (p. 7).
- Continue the action and reflection after return from abroad, perhaps as an education-abroad ambassador or by publishing experiences on a blog, self-published book, or campus or professional venue.

Additional guidance from NAFSA comes in the form of an assessment framework to guide students to competent communication of the experience abroad. First in this process can be a student self-assessment, where they identify skills acquired or improved (from adapting to new situations to communication despite language barriers to leading multicultural groups). A written record of the experience, in the form of a resume entry, also is important, including entries about the credit-bearing education program abroad, program experiences and activities, and skills acquired,

#### **External Resources.**

- *Not Just “Life-Changing”*: Helping U.S. Students Articulate Skills Garnered from Study Abroad. NAFSA.  
[http://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/Chez\\_NAFSA/Find\\_Resources/Supporting\\_Stud](http://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/Chez_NAFSA/Find_Resources/Supporting_Stud)

y\_Abroad/Network\_Resources/Education\_Abroad/Not%20just%20life%20changing.pdf

- *Study Abroad Career Plan: A Guide for Advising Students*. NAFSA.  
[http://www.nafsa.org/Find\\_Resources/Supporting\\_Study\\_Abroad/Network\\_Resources/Education\\_Abroad/Study\\_Abroad\\_Career\\_Plan\\_A\\_Guide\\_for\\_Advising\\_Students/](http://www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Supporting_Study_Abroad/Network_Resources/Education_Abroad/Study_Abroad_Career_Plan_A_Guide_for_Advising_Students/)

*Education Abroad & Career Competencies: Conveying Competencies to Employers.*

Michigan State University.

[http://studyabroad.isp.msu.edu/about/docs/Career\\_CIBER%20conference\\_2010\\_presentation.pdf](http://studyabroad.isp.msu.edu/about/docs/Career_CIBER%20conference_2010_presentation.pdf)

## CHAPTER 5: FINAL THOUGHTS AND PATH TO THE FUTURE

### INTRODUCTION

This dissertation strives to merge pedagogical theory, global education research, and best practices into practical guidance for the implementation of education-abroad curricula. Constructivist learning theory — a learner-centered happening where faculty guide students to build new knowledge through the intersection of experience and emerging knowledge — has appropriate application in education abroad. Education theory rooted in the constructivist tradition lays the groundwork for learning abroad that leads to tangible improvement in global competence. The notion that education abroad be connected philosophically with the entirety of academia is important. The pressure to perform represents part of the argument for this connectedness, particularly the external drive for improved education results and, increasingly, the idea that funding will be tied to these measured outcomes. Asking and answering the question, “what is the added value of these outcomes being learned abroad?” dictates that education-abroad programming be rooted soundly in the educational mission of the institution and broader efforts to build an education system that prepares students for 21<sup>st</sup> century citizenship and career. In this spirit, this dissertation has charted a course for education abroad built on constructivist learning theory, enhanced by experiential learning theory, and improved by recent research showing the need to move from a model where the student is merely

“immersed” in culture abroad to one where the student is actively engaged in a reflective process that facilitates sustained competency improvement.

### **Education Abroad: From Immersion to Active Reflection**

Early efforts at education abroad were rooted in the idea that contact with other cultures was important to human development. The American Council of Education, as reported in the *New York Times* (1924), launched a “huge project for promoting good-will between nations opportunities for travel and study in institutions abroad,” its focus on financial scholarships to students, “though eager to go, are unable to do so because of their financial condition” (p. E15). The project mindset was cosmopolitan, professing that the “ultimate hope for world peace lies in international education; not only local education of the people of each country, but broad world-viewing educations which enlightens the people of each nation.” The absorption of “first-hand information on the spot vivifies and complements book learning,” the ACE argued in 1924. This view, more recently described as “immersion,” still represents the foundation of education abroad.

Two elements — one a programmatic focus on global competence in preparation for career; the other a learning theory that immersion must be elevated to include structured reflection to maximize competence improvement — are the essence of this written effort.

Paige and Vande Berg (2012), in an exhaustive review of education-abroad best practices, point to the following programmatic components as meaningful in the effort to instill tangible competency improvement: providing a cultural mentor, offering cultural context, ensuring cultural engagement, and guiding comprehensive inspiring reflection (p. 53-54). Using this global competency model framework, Chapter 4 of this dissertation laid a theoretical

foundation for transformational education-abroad learning, flowing into a manual offering practical guidance for practitioners.

### **From Immersion to Active Reflection: Implications for Implementation**

The fundamental lesson of this dissertation, gleaned from the research presented in the literature and from the wisdom of practitioners, is that immersion abroad must be reinforced through structured and guided reflection of the students taking part in education-abroad programming. Done with skill and intention, student competency in needed post-graduation experience will result. The most successful programs abroad outlined in this work helped students anticipate possible cross-cultural interactions, designed and scheduled immersive activities from home stays to community service, and guided students through a reflective process to frame and reinforce the lessons from their experiences.

Paige and Vande berg (2012) highlighted the importance of “intercultural learning throughout the study abroad cycle” (p. 55) from pre-departure training to post-return reflection. To measure the success of global competence improvement, assessment should be devised early in the process, constructed with broad-based involvement from stakeholders from faculty to employers, and connected closely with the learning design. In short, develop learning outcomes that are rigorous, learning activities that are engaging, and assess learning that aligns with the reflection mission outlined in this work. The formative assessment employed will more closely resemble a competency portfolio or reflective project than a multiple-choice test. The assessment stage should conclude with measured results used to inform program revisions, flowing into the next education-abroad cycle. For example, aggregate data from the pre- and post-experience intercultural inventories can help the practitioner identify the competencies to

emphasize. Observations from the leader abroad of learning activities and cultural engagements, and the corresponding reflection activities that are most challenging for students, can inform future program improvements.

This work flows from research to practice, culminating in an “owner’s manual” for those preparing to design or lead an education-abroad experience. The manual helps the global educator align the experience abroad with institutional culture (beginning with the mission and vision) and translate the theory to practice (including step-by-step blueprints for international curricula from syllabus to post-abroad priorities).

#### LIMITATIONS OF THE MANUAL

The manual is designed with an eye toward helping as broad an audience as possible. Each section strives to go into moderate detail and provide step-by-step guidance about the design and implementation of education abroad. However, the following considerations come to mind when contemplating the movement of this dissertation from paper to practice:

**One size fits all.** This manual is intended to be comprehensive, guiding the practitioner from large and small institutions. Many who consult this work will be in the infancy stage of learning-abroad programming and will benefit from the flow from start to finish. However, some practitioners’ work will be in-progress, perhaps with some curricular components in place, but others wanting for more development. If a practitioner needs guidance in a specific area only (perhaps assessing learning abroad), every intent is that the section in question will be helpful. In particular, the “External Resources” sections of each topic will offer additional guidance. The manual user should keep in mind the interconnectedness of each topic. It is possible that one topic in the manual —perhaps the development of a course proposal — could

be helpful to the practitioner. However, the extent to which the interconnectedness of these individual topics (for example institutional mission to the course proposal) is a question that may require feedback from those who consult this work.

**The resource deficit.** This document is intended to be comprehensive, rooted in best practices and the desire to change lives. In reality, some practitioners will not have the institutional resources to implement this plan with the ideal robustness.

**Lack of control.** Discussion of the limitations of this manual, and the underlying research, would be incomplete without discussion of the lack of a control group. A classic experimental design bases its credibility on the existence of a group that receives the treatment and a group that did not. The cost and complexity of education abroad would make such a comparison challenging. However, applying the rigor of a classic experimental design to the lessons of the lessons of this dissertation would be a worthwhile venture.

**Practice makes perfect.** The primary shortcoming of the manual is that it has not yet been put into practice. Much thought went into the development of the manual, but its effectiveness will not be realized until it is put to use in the field. In the spirit of the guidance this manual offers on assessment, practitioners are encouraged to share the lessons learned and engage with this writer in a process of continuous improvement.

#### FURTHER RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

Topics for potential further research and practice are plentiful, and include the following.

More emphasis on connecting learning outcomes with post-graduation needs is warranted. Much progress has been made to improve connections between education-abroad learning outcomes and student career readiness. Heightened efforts to ask employers about

their skills needs and tailor learning abroad to better meet those needs is warranted. This effort likely would require amplified listening by educators to employer perspectives on what constitutes student competency. Likewise, educating employers about the potential for education abroad designed with intention to develop skills employers is needed.

Improved guidance to students about how to explain their experience abroad to potential employers is needed. Most every education-abroad practitioner has heard a student proclaim, “I was transformed, but the experience was so life changing that I can’t explain it.” It must become our collective imperative to help our returned learners abroad to articulate how the experience changed them and how it will apply to future meaning, and devote more effort to employing brainpower and resources to this effort on behalf of our students.

Expanded efforts to incorporate education abroad as part of a larger mission to broadly improve global competence among students is worthy of consideration. Forming alliances with campus executive leadership, faculty, academic advisors, and multicultural centers could lead to the initiation of a sweeping effort to ensure that every student has a global learning experience, whether on-campus or abroad.

Increased attention on the individual global competence needs of each student is desirable. More focus on intercultural competency assessment for incoming college students could lead to a better understanding of their needs and the carving of a global competence pathway for each student.

The importance of professional development should not be overlooked. Training all faculty in intercultural competence would enhance their teaching skills overall and put them in a competent position to lead the intervention efforts outlined in this document. Prospective

faculty leaders abroad would be well-served to review the work of Passarelli and Kolb (2012), who offer guidance about teaching abroad competence from an experiential learning lens. Employing different teaching roles to accommodate different learning styles — and enhance global competence — is an important part of the faculty-abroad leader repertoire. The researchers suggest the alternating roles of facilitator, expert, evaluator, and coach as faculty guide students to global competence. For example, the leader as facilitator concerned with improving student understanding of other cultures might adopt a warm and affirming style, leading students in discussions and reflective journals. A leader interested in coaching students to improved teamwork skills might take an “applied, collaborative, risk-taking” approach while leading students through field projects, role plays and simulations (p. 151).

Other viable resources for preparing to guide student intercultural competence improvement exist. For example, the Purdue University Center for Institutional Excellence offers an online eight-module course for this purpose, including topics on teaching cultural worldviews, intercultural openness, intercultural communication, intercultural curiosity, intercultural empathy, and cultural self-awareness. See <http://www.purdue.edu/cie/learning/global/toolkit/index.html> to access the training.

Carefully consider the role that technology may play in education abroad. Online instruction offers the potential to make the pre-departure and instructional process more effective, as communication advances have the potential to minimize student engagement with the culture they are studying. Additionally, use of technology to aid in pre-departure preparation, in-country reflective activities, or post-return assessment could be particularly valuable as community colleges embark on the reality of increased reality of global experiences

that happen within a shorter time-period abroad.

More broadly, focusing on increasing the numbers of students who study abroad — as is often the focus — is a good start. Designing global learning opportunities that lead directly to improved competency is crucial, as is linking program design closely to measurement of the improvement achieved. The educator who is intentional in the design and assessment of global learning — and who keeps an open mind in gleaning lessons learned from this process — is likely to inspire the most student success. Attention to quality, along with quantity, is important.

Our goals for education abroad are lofty, including ensuring that programming is successful in improving the global competency of those who take part, along with increasing the number of students who study abroad and cultivating a more diverse group that has access to educational experiences abroad. These goals, done with purpose, will help make sure our efforts abroad play a significant role in shaping the next generation of global citizens.

## REFERENCES

- American Council on Education (2012). Mapping Internationalization on U.S. Campuses: 2012 Edition. Retrieved from <http://www.acenet.edu/news-room/Pages/Mapping-Full-Report.aspx>.
- Antonakopoulou, E. (2013). Sociocultural adaptation of U.S. education abroad students in Greece: The effects of program duration and intervention. *Frontiers: the Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad* Vol. XXIII: Fall 2013, 60-72.
- Association of American Colleges and Universities (2013). *It Takes More than a Major: Employer Priorities for College Learning and Student Success*. 2013. Washington, DC: Association of American Colleges and Universities and Hart Research Associates. Retrieved from <https://www.aacu.org/leap/presidentstrust/compact/2013SurveySummary>
- Association of American Colleges and Universities (n.d.). Global Learning Value Rubric. Retrieved from <https://www.aacu.org/value/rubrics/global-learning>.
- American Council of Education (2012). Mapping internationalization on U.S. campuses: 2012 edition. Retrieved from <http://www.acenet.edu/news-room/Pages/Mapping-Full-Report.aspx>.
- Anderson, P., Lawton, L., Rexeisen, R., and Hubbard, A. (2006). Short-term study abroad and intercultural sensitivity: A pilot study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, Vol. 30, 457-469.
- Bellevue College. (February 3, 2015). 1200 College Vision, Core Values, Mission and Goals. In *Policies and Procedures*. Retrieved from <http://www.bellevuecollege.edu/policies/id-1200/>.
- Bennett, M. (2012). Paradigmatic assumptions and a developmental approach to intercultural learning. In M. Vande Berg, R. Paige and K. Lou (Eds.), *In Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It* (pp. 90-114). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Braskamp, Larry A.; Braskamp, David C.; Merrill, Kelly. (2009). Assessing progress in global learning and development of students with education abroad experiences. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, v18, 101-118.

- Brooks, M. and Brooks J. (1999). The courage to be constructivist. Educational Leadership. Association for Curriculum and Development, November 1999. Vo. 57, No. 3. Retrieved from <http://www.ascd.org/publications/educational-leadership/nov99/vol57/num03/The-Courage-to-Be-Constructivist.aspx>
- Brookdale Community College (2016). Handbook for Faculty-Led Study-Abroad Programs. Retrieved from <https://www.brookdalecc.edu/documents/international-center/2016-faculty-led-st-prog/faculty-led-study-abroad-handbook-updated-spring-2016.pdf>.
- Brustein, W. (2009). It takes an entire institution: A blueprint for the global university. In R. Lewin, (Ed.), *The Handbook of Practice and Research in Study Abroad* (pp. 249-265). New York: Routledge.
- Burn, B. (1980). Study abroad and international exchanges. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Sciences*. Vol. 449, 129-140.
- California's Coast Community College District. (n.d.). Study Abroad Manual.
- Central New Mexico Community College. (n.d.). Strategic Direction Plan 2016-2020. Retrieved from <https://www.cnm.edu/about/strategic-direction/documents/strategic-direction-2016-2020>.
- Chapel, W. (1997). Developing International Communications Management Competence. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*. Vol. 11, No. 3, 281-296.
- Che, S. et. al. (2009). Constructive Disequilibrium: Cognitive and emotional development through dissonant experiences in less familiar destinations. In Lewin, *The Handbook of Practice and Research in Study Abroad*, Chapter 7, pp. 99-116. Association of American Colleges and Universities, New York: Routledge.
- Chieffo, L. and Griffiths, L. (2009). Here to stay: Increasing acceptance of short-term study abroad programs. In Lewin, R., ed., pp. 365-380. *The Handbook of Practice and Research in Study Abroad*.
- Deardorff, D. (2009). Understanding the challenges of assessing global citizenship. In Lewin, *The Handbook of Practice and Research in Study Abroad*, Chapter 20, pp. 346-364. Association of American Colleges and Universities, New York: Routledge.
- Deeley, S. (2014). Summative co-assessment: A deep learning approach to enhancing employability skills and attributes. *Active Learning in Higher Education*. Vol. 15(1), 39-51.
- Demirer, V. and Sahin, I. (2013). Effect of blended learning environment on transfer of learning: an experimental study. *Journal of Computer Assisted Learning*, Vol. 29, 518-529.
- Dewey, J. (1933). *How We Think*. Boston, MA: D. C. Heath & Co.

- Di Stefano, G., Gino, F., Pisano, G. & Staats, B. (2015). *Learning by thinking: Overcoming the bias for action through reflection* (Working Paper 14-093). Harvard Business School. Retrieved from [http://www.hbs.edu/faculty/Publication%20Files/14-093\\_cf6e76d2-8e4b-466f-bf1c-e8d694afd2bc.pdf](http://www.hbs.edu/faculty/Publication%20Files/14-093_cf6e76d2-8e4b-466f-bf1c-e8d694afd2bc.pdf).
- Diversity Abroad Network (2016). *Study Abroad for Parents*. Retrieved from <http://www.diversityabroad.com/guides/study-abroad-for-parents>.
- Dwyer, M. (2004, Fall). More Is Better: The Impact of Study Abroad Program Duration. *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 10, 151-163.
- Eagan, K. et al. (2014). *The American freshman: National norms fall 2014*. Los Angeles: Higher Education Research Institute, UCLA. Retrieved from [www.heri.ucla.edu](http://www.heri.ucla.edu).
- Eaton, T. V., & Kleshinski, A. S. (2014). Improving undergraduate learning for employability through international exposure. *American Journal of Business Education*. 7(1), 49-57.
- Engle, E. and Engle, J. (2012) Beyond immersion: The American University of Provence experiment in holistic intervention. In M. Vande Berg, R. Paige and K. Lou (Eds.), *In Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It* (pp. 284-307). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Engle, L. (2013). The Rewards of Qualitative Assessment Appropriate to Study Abroad. *Frontiers: The interdisciplinary journal of study abroad*, 22, 111-126.
- Emspak, J. (2014, November 26). *8 Ways You Can See Einstein's Theory of Relativity in Real Life*. Retrieved from <http://www.livescience.com/48922-theory-of-relativity-in-real-life.html>
- Evers, T. (2015). International Education. Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. Retrieved from [http://cal.dpi.wi.gov/cal\\_interntled](http://cal.dpi.wi.gov/cal_interntled).
- Farleigh Dickinson University (2015). Global Education Definition. Retrieved from <http://view2.fdu.edu/global-education/global-education-at-fdu/global-education-vs-globalization/>.
- Fischer, K. (2008, October 31). Community colleges pursue many paths to create international campuses. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, Vo. 55, Issue 10, P. B8.
- Floyd, E. (n.d.). *Strategic Plan 2014-2019*. Washington State University. Retrieved from <https://strategicplan.wsu.edu/wp-content/uploads/sites/153/2014/07/WSU-Strategic-Plan-2014-2019.pdf>.
- Forum on Education Abroad. (2015). *Standards of Good Practice for Study Abroad*. 5<sup>th</sup> edition. Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Retrieved from <http://forumea.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/Standards-2015.pdf>.

- Fry, G. (2010). EdPA/OLPD 3013: Global identity: Connecting your international experience to your future [Syllabus]. Learning Center Abroad, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN. Retrieved from <http://umabroad.umn.edu/assets/files/pdfs/academic/globalidentity/syllabus.pdf>.
- Gay, G. (1994). A synthesis of scholarship in multicultural education. North Central Regional Educational Laboratory. Retrieved from <http://www.ncrel.org/sdrs/areas/issues/educatrs/leadrshp/le0gay.htm>.
- Harrisburg Area Community College. (n.d.). 2015-2019 Journey to Excellence. Retrieved from <http://www.hacc.edu/AboutHACC/2015-19StrategicPlan/Goal-3.cfm>.
- Hart Research Associates (2015). Optimistic about the future, but how well prepared? College students' views on college learning and career success. Washington, D.C., April 29, 2015. Retrieved from <https://www.aacu.org/leap/public-opinion-research/2015-students>.
- Herr, K. and Anderson G. (2005). *The Action Research Dissertation: A Guide for Students and Faculty*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Higher Learning Commission. (n.d.). *The Criteria for Accreditation: Guiding Values*. Retrieved from <https://www.hlcommission.org/Criteria-Eligibility-and-Candidacy/guiding-values.html>
- Highline College (August 2013). *Mission Statement*. Retrieved from <https://www.highline.edu/about-us/mission-statement/>.
- Hoover, W. (1996). The practice implications of constructivism. SEDL Letter, Volume IX, No. 3. Southwest Education Development Laboratory. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/pubs/sedletter/v09n03/practice.html>.
- Horn, A. S., & Fry, G. W. (2013). Promoting global citizenship through study abroad: The influence of program destination, type, and duration on the propensity for development volunteerism. *Voluntas*, 24(4), 1159-1179.
- Hudzik, J. (2011). Comprehensive Internationalization: From Concept to Action. NAFSA: Association of International Educators: Washington, D.C. Retrieved from [https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/NAFSA\\_Home/Resource\\_Library\\_Assets/Publications\\_Library/2011\\_Comprehen\\_Internationalization.pdf](https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/NAFSA_Home/Resource_Library_Assets/Publications_Library/2011_Comprehen_Internationalization.pdf).
- Hunter College (2006). *Department of Recruitment and Outreach Strategic Plan 2006-2010*. Retrieved from <http://www.hunter.cuny.edu/middle-states/repository/files/standard-8/Dept%20of%20Recruitment%20and%20Outreach%20Strategic%20Plan%202006-2010.doc>.
- Husén, T. and Postlethwaite, T.N. (1985). *The International Encyclopedia of Education: Research and Studies*. Oxford: Pergamon.

- Illawarra Mercury (2012, March 7). Top Ten Global Skills Shortages, p. 4.
- Institute for International Education (2015). Open Doors Data: U.S. Study Abroad. Retrieved from <http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Open-Doors/Data/US-Study-Abroad>.
- Institute for the International Education of Students (n.d.). Alumni survey results. Retrieved from <http://www.iesabroad.org/study-abroad/why/alumni-survey-results>.
- Iowa State University (n.d.). *About the GPI*. Retrieved from <http://www.gpi.hs.iastate.edu/>.
- James, K. (2005). International education: The concept, and its relationship to intercultural education. *Journal of Research in International Education*, vol. 4(3), 313-332.
- Johnson, J. et. al. (2003). *Essentials of American education*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- King, M., and Fersh, S. International education and the U.S. community college: From optional to integral." *ERIC Junior College Resource Review*, Spring 1983.
- Kruse, J. and Brubaker, C. (2007). Study abroad: Tips for student preparation, immersion, and postprocessing. *Teaching German*, Vol. 40, No. 2 (fall 2007), 147-152.
- Kuchler, H. (2014, February 24). Cyber security industry launches skill search. *Financial Times*. Retrieved from <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/b7d0dce4-923e-11e3-8018-00144feab7de.html#axzz4DwV0nUtY>.
- Kuh, G. (2008). *High-impact educational practices: What they are, who has access to them, and why they matter*. Association of American Colleges and Universities. Retrieved from [https://keycenter.unca.edu/sites/default/files/aacu\\_high\\_impact\\_2008\\_final.pdf](https://keycenter.unca.edu/sites/default/files/aacu_high_impact_2008_final.pdf).
- Lou, K. and Bosley, G. Facilitating intercultural learning abroad: The intentional, targeted intervention model. In M. Vande Berg, R. Paige & K. Lou (Eds.), *Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It* (pp. 335-359). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Mason, L., Powers, C. and Donnelly, S. (2015). *The Boren Awards: A report of oral language proficiency gains among academic study abroad programs*. New York: Institute of International Education. Retrieved from [http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Publications-and-Reports/IIE-Bookstore/The-Boren-Awards-A-Report-Of-Oral-Language-Proficiency-Gains#.V4KPKCK\\_6tjo](http://www.iie.org/Research-and-Publications/Publications-and-Reports/IIE-Bookstore/The-Boren-Awards-A-Report-Of-Oral-Language-Proficiency-Gains#.V4KPKCK_6tjo).
- McCabe, T. (2001). Globalization and internationalization: The impact on education abroad programs. *Journal of Studies in International Education* Summer 2001, vol. 5 no. 2, 138-145.

- McLeod, M. and Wainwright, P. (2009). Researching the study abroad experience. *Journal of Studies in International Education*. Vol. 13, No. 1, Spring 2009, 66-71.
- MDB Group. (2011). *Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) Sample Feedback Report*. Retrieved from <https://idiinventory.com/products/the-intercultural-development-inventory-idi/>.
- Mertler, C. (2014). *Action Research: Improving Schools and Empowering Educators*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Middle States Commission on Higher Education (2011). *Characteristics of Excellence in Higher Education: Requirements of Affiliation and Standards for Accreditation*. Retrieved from <http://www.msche.org/publications/CHX-2011-WEB.pdf>.
- Morais, D. and Ogden, A. (2011). Initial development and validation of the global citizenship scale. *Journal of Studies in International Education*. 15(5), 445-466.
- Morrill, J. (1955). Higher education and the federal government. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, vol. 301, 41-45.
- Musil, C. (2006). *Assessing Global Learning: Matching Good Intentions with Good Practice*. Association of American Colleges and Universities. Retrieved from [http://archive.aacu.org/SharedFutures/documents/Global\\_Learning.pdf](http://archive.aacu.org/SharedFutures/documents/Global_Learning.pdf).
- Nadelson, L. et al. (2013). Why do they come here? The influences and expectations of first-year students' college experience. *Higher Education Studies*. Vol. 3 (No. 1).
- NAFSA (2009, December 4). *Models for Program Financing*. Retrieved from [http://www.nafsa.org/Find\\_Resources/Supporting\\_Study\\_Abroad/Network\\_Resources/Education\\_Abroad/Models\\_for\\_Program\\_Financing/](http://www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Supporting_Study_Abroad/Network_Resources/Education_Abroad/Models_for_Program_Financing/).
- NAFSA (2013). *Study Abroad Career Plan: A Guide for Advising Students*. Retrieved from [http://www.nafsa.org/Find\\_Resources/Supporting\\_Study\\_Abroad/Network\\_Resources/Education\\_Abroad/Study\\_Abroad\\_Career\\_Plan\\_A\\_Guide\\_for\\_Advising\\_Students/](http://www.nafsa.org/Find_Resources/Supporting_Study_Abroad/Network_Resources/Education_Abroad/Study_Abroad_Career_Plan_A_Guide_for_Advising_Students/).
- National Center for Education Statistics (2014). *Digest of Education Statistics: 2014*. Retrieved from [http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d14/tables/dt14\\_306.10.asp?referrer=report](http://nces.ed.gov/programs/digest/d14/tables/dt14_306.10.asp?referrer=report).
- The New York Times (1924, January 20). Details of Plan for Wider Culture: World Benefits to be derived from study-travel courses described by Mr. Marks., p. E15.
- Norberg, A., Dziuban, C., Moskal, P. (2011). A Time Based Blended Learning Model. *On the Horizon*, 19(3): 207-216.
- Nunley, C., Bers, T. & Manning, T. (2011). *Learning Outcomes Assessment in Community Colleges, Occasional Paper #10*. National Institute for Learning Outcomes Assessment.

- Retrieved from <http://learningoutcomesassessment.org/>.
- Ogden, A. (2006). Why study abroad? Highlighting reasons for non-traditional destinations. Retrieved from [http://www.nafsa.org/\\_file/\\_why\\_study\\_abroad\\_reasons.pdf](http://www.nafsa.org/_file/_why_study_abroad_reasons.pdf).
- Oxfam (2015). Education for Global Citizenship: A guide for schools. Retrieved <http://www.oxfam.org.uk/education/global-citizenship/global-citizenship-guides>.
- Paige, R. (2012). The Maximizing study abroad project: Toward a pedagogy for culture and language learning. In M. Vande berg and R. Paige (Eds.), *Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It* (pp. 308-334). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Paige, R. (2015). Interventionist Models for Study Abroad. In J. Bennett (Ed). *The Sage Encyclopedia of Intercultural Competence*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483346267.n183>.
- Paige, R. and Vande Berg, M. (2012). Why students are and are not learning abroad: A review of recent research. In M. Vande berg and R. Paige (Eds.), *Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It* (pp. 29-58). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Passarelli and Kolb (2012). Using experiential learning theory to promote student learning in programs of study abroad. In M. Vande berg and R. Paige (Eds.), *Student Learning Abroad: What Our Students Are Learning, What They're Not, and What We Can Do About It* (pp. 137-161). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- President's Commission on Higher Education (1947). Higher education for American democracy. U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Purdue University College of Science. (n.d.) *Language and Culture Experiential Guidelines*. Retrieved from [https://www.science.purdue.edu/Current\\_Students/study-abroad/language-and-cultural-requirements.html](https://www.science.purdue.edu/Current_Students/study-abroad/language-and-cultural-requirements.html).
- Raby, R. and Valeau, E. (2007). Community college international education: Looking back to forecast the future. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, Summer 2007, Issue 138, p5-14.
- Roberts, M., Zuraw, L. Kingrey, D. & Lucas, A. (2013, December). Davenport University Strategic Recruitment Plan 2014-2015. Retrieved from <http://www.davenport.edu/Portals/0/IR/StrategicPlanning/2014-15StrategicRecruitmentPlan.pdf>.
- Root. E. and Ngampornchai, A. (2012). "I came back as a new human being"; Student descriptions of intercultural competence acquired through education abroad experiences. *Journal of Studies in International Education*. 17(5), 513-532.

- Rubin, I. (2000). *The Politics of Public Budgeting: Getting and Spending, Borrowing and Balancing*. New York. Seven Bridges Press. Retrieved from <http://0-web.a.ebscohost.com.libcat.ferris.edu/ehost/ebookviewer/ebook/bmxlymtfXzM1MjlxX19BTg2?sid=cc960235-6996-4699-9852-6228cd025dab@sessionmgr4001&vid=0&format=EB&rid=1>.
- Savage, M. and Wehman, T. (2014). Assessing the impact of international experiential education on the critical thinking skills and academic performance of college students. *International Journal of Arts and Sciences*, 7 (1), 1-18.
- Sercu, L. (2005). *Foreign Language Teachers and Intercultural Competence: An International Investigation*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters, Ltd.
- Starke-Meyerring. (2005). Meeting the challenges of globalization: A framework for global literacies in professional communications programs. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*. Vo. 19, No. 4. October 2005, 468-499.
- Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2014, June 10). Globalization. Retrieved from <http://plato.stanford.edu/entries/globalization/>.
- Studebaker, J. (1944). The United States Department of Education. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. Vol. 235, No. 1, 62-68.
- Syracuse University (n.d.) *Critical Reflection on Study Abroad*. Retrieved from <http://suabroad.syr.edu/news/criticalreflections.html>.
- The Ohio State University (n.d.). *Ohio State Vision, Mission, Values, and Goals*. Retrieved from <https://oaa.osu.edu/vision-mission-values-goals.html>.
- The Ohio State University College of Engineering. (n.d.). *Strategic Plan 2014-2020*. Retrieved from [https://oaa.osu.edu/assets/files/strategicPlanning/2015-plans/College-of-Engineering-eac\\_v3.pdf](https://oaa.osu.edu/assets/files/strategicPlanning/2015-plans/College-of-Engineering-eac_v3.pdf).
- Thompson, K. (1966). American education and the developing areas. *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, vol. 306, no. 1, 17-32.
- Tomasek, T. (2014). STA 297 — Malawi: The Warm Heart of Africa Preparatory Seminar [Syllabus]. Elon University, Elon, NC. Retrieved from [http://www.elon.edu/docs/web/academics/international\\_studies/facstaff\\_resources/study-abroad/Example%20Supporting%20Document-%20Malawi%20Pre-Departure%20Course%20Syllabus.pdf](http://www.elon.edu/docs/web/academics/international_studies/facstaff_resources/study-abroad/Example%20Supporting%20Document-%20Malawi%20Pre-Departure%20Course%20Syllabus.pdf).
- Treat, T. and Hagedorn, L. (2013), *Resituating the Community College in a Global Context*. *New Directions for Community Colleges*, Spring 2013, vol. 161, 5—9.

- University of Northern Colorado (n.d.). Faculty handbook: *Designing and Leading a Faculty-Led Study Abroad*. Retrieved from [http://www.unco.edu/cie/studyabroad/Documents/Abridged\\_FLSA\\_Handbook.pdf](http://www.unco.edu/cie/studyabroad/Documents/Abridged_FLSA_Handbook.pdf).
- U.S. Department of Education (2015). *Better Information for Better College Choice & Institutional Performance*. Retrieved from <https://collegescorecard.ed.gov/assets/BetterInformationForBetterCollegeChoiceAndInstitutionalPerformance.pdf>.
- Vande Berg, M., Quinn, M., and Menyhart, C. (2012). An experiment in developmental teaching and learning: The Council on International Education Exchange's Seminar on Living and Learning Abroad. In M. Vande Berg, R. Paige and K. Lou (Eds.), *Student Learning Abroad: What our students are learning, what they're not, and what we can do about it* (pp. 383-407). Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing.
- Vanham, P. (2013, March 11). Skills for global business. Financial Times. Retrieved from <http://www.ft.com/cms/s/0/5860c3a6-8596-11e2-bed4-00144feabdc0.html#axzz4DwV0nUtY>.
- Young, J., Natrajan-Tyagi, R. and Platt, J., (2015). Identity in flux: Negotiating identity while studying abroad. *Journal of Experiential Education*, published online 21 April 2014. Retrieved from <http://jee.sagepub.com/content/early/2014/04/20/1053825914531920>.
- Wang, J. and Coffey, B. (2014). Does a study abroad class make a difference in students' global awareness? An empirical study. *International Journal of Education Research*, Vol. 9, No. 1, Spring 2014, 151-162.
- Weber-Bosley, G. (2010). Beyond immersion: Global engagement and transformation via student reflection in long-term study abroad. In E. Jones (ed.), *Internationalisation and the student voice: Higher education perspectives* (pp. 55-67). New York: Routledge.
- West, C. (2012). Engaging stakeholders in internationalization: strategies for collaboration. NAFSA. Retrieved from [https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/Chez\\_NAFSA/Find\\_Resources/Internationalizing\\_Higher\\_Education/engaging\\_stakeholders.pdf](https://www.nafsa.org/uploadedFiles/Chez_NAFSA/Find_Resources/Internationalizing_Higher_Education/engaging_stakeholders.pdf).
- Wilson, C.D. (2011). Leadership for learning. In T. O'Banion and C. Wilson (eds.), *Focus on learning: A learning college reader* (pp. 103-104). Phoenix, AZ: League for Innovation in the Community College.
- Zhang, Y. (2011). Education abroad in the U.S. Community College. *Community College Review*, vol. 39, 81-200.

APPENDIX A:  
CHECKLIST FOR DEVELOPING EDUCATION-ABROAD PROGRAMMING

Concept Development: 18 months before departure

Task	Done
Align program idea with institutional mission and vision statements	
Assess student interest in the program abroad idea through formal and informal processes	
Build internal support, including commitment from institutional leadership, curriculum committee, and faculty in the discipline	
Transform your idea into proposal form consistent with your institution's procedures	
Leverage external stakeholder support, including local and regional economic development leaders, industry advisory boards, and other academic institutions as appropriate	

Program & Logistics Development: 12 months — 6 months before departure

Task	Done
Develop clear goals about what students should learn, including course learning outcomes and global competencies	
Plan activities, assignments and reflective activities to support learning abroad	
Begin the program assessment cycle by developing an assessment plan to accompany the learning outcomes and learning activities	
Determine the program location abroad	
Determine the length and timing of the program to maximize student participation	
Determine the delivery method (face-to-face, online, hybrid)	
Coordinate health/safety and emergency logistics with the appropriate college official	

Determine minimum and maximum enrollment levels	
Build a program budget	
Make a student recruitment plan	
Develop travel itinerary	
Create the course syllabus	

Pre-departure Plans: 3 months to departure day

Task	Done
Communicate final travel itinerary with students and families	
Conduct pre-departure sessions on logistics, cultural competence, and learning plan	Done

Post-experience Follow-up

Task	Done
Continue the assessment cycle by completing post-return assessment activities and use the results to guide possible future program improvement.	