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SHOULD I STAY OR SHOULD I GO?: FACTORS IMPACTING THE DECISION TO STUDY ABROAD AMONG STUDENTS WHO HAVE EXPRESSED INTENT

A Dissertation Presented

by

APRIL H. STROUD

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 2015

College of Education

Educational Policy and Leadership

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FACTORS IMPACTING THE DECISION TO STUDY ABROAD
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A Dissertation Presented

by

APRIL H. STROUD

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DEDICATION

For my children, Kiefer and Saskia

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Over the past nine years I have received support and encouragement from so many people. Gary Malaney convinced me to apply to the doctoral program and regularly reminded me to keep everything in perspective. I am so lucky to have had fellow graduate students Karen Howard, Ethan Kolek, Raldy Laguilles and Dan Saunders for friendship and a supportive, intellectually stimulating environment. During my data collection and analysis, Ethan offered welcome encouragement and statistical insights. My once office-mate, Rebecca Stone provided helpful input on my focus groups transcripts. April Zenisky most generously proofread my manuscript and offered invaluable advice before it went to my committee. Bradford Wheeler made weekends writing in Hills South less lonely. He also brilliantly suggested and executed a live stream of my defense.

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ABSTRACT

SHOULD I STAY OR SHOULD I GO?:
FACTORS IMPACTING THE DECISION TO STUDY ABROAD
AMONG STUDENTS WHO HAVE EXPRESSED INTENT

MAY 2015

APRIL H. STROUD, B.A., MOUNT HOLYOKE COLLEGE

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Study abroad is recognized as a valuable and increasingly essential aspect of higher education in America. Yet, for all the positive attention and high-profile initiatives aimed at expanding participation, the percentage of U.S. undergraduate who studies abroad remains small. Developing a better understanding of the factors that contribute to or hinder study abroad participation is critical to expanding participation. The purpose of this dissertation is to examine factors that influence participation among students at the University of Massachusetts Amherst who have expressed formal intent to study abroad. Specifically, this dissertation investigates who is more likely to study abroad and who is less likely and why students who intend to study abroad do not. To answer these questions, this study employs both quantitative and qualitative research methods through convergent parallel design.

Together, the results of the binary logistic regression analysis and focus group interviews provide an abundance of information on the variety of factors that influence participation among students who intend to study abroad. Positive influential predictors include GPA, honors college membership, prior travel abroad 3 or more times and having

studied a foreign language at the college level. Negative predictors are identifying an interest in study abroad from University outreach, being a transfer student, citing money as the biggest obstacle to study abroad, citing “other” as the biggest obstacle to study abroad, citing not being able to graduate on times as the biggest obstacle to study abroad and indicating at the time of completion of the study abroad profile that there is only some chance that they will study abroad. Focus group findings reveal that cost, academic barriers, and not wanting to miss out on time at the University deterred students who had expressed interest in study abroad from actually doing so.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction: Study Abroad and Its Growing Importance in Higher Education

> The role of the United States as a leader among nations is changing rapidly. Despite our position of international leadership for almost fifty years, we are ill-prepared to face changes in business, manufacturing, diplomacy, science and technology that have come with an intensely inter-dependent world. Effectiveness in such a world requires a citizenry whose knowledge is sufficiently international in scope to cope with global interdependence (Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange, CIEE, 1988, p. 1).

Study abroad professionals have formally advocated for the expansion of study abroad since 1988, when an Advisory Council for International Educational Exchange (CIEE) published *Educating for Global Competence*, a report that outlined goals such as achieving 10% participation of all undergraduates in study abroad by 1995, and 20-25% participation by 2008 (CIEE, 1990). The number of U.S. students studying abroad has more than quadrupled since the publication of the report, rising from just over 62,000 in 1987/1988 to over 289,000 in 2012/2013 (Institute of International Education (IIE), 2014a). While the growth of study abroad seems impressive, the proportion of American undergraduates studying abroad is only 9.1% of the enrollment, an increase of almost 5% over twenty years, but still a far cry from the goals outlined (IIE, 2014a; National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), 2015). Of the U.S. students who do study abroad, the vast majority goes for a semester or less with almost half of participants enrolled in programs that are only a few weeks in length (IIE, 2014a). Western European countries remain the overwhelming destination for American students; over 50% of the country's current study abroad numbers are attributed to programs in Western Europe (IIE, 2014a).

Additionally, study abroad participation underrepresents minorities, students of limited financial means, and men (IIE, 2014).

The notion of study abroad as an experience essential to the prosperity and future of the United States has been expressed by several U.S. presidents in recent years. President Clinton, in remarks on his international education policy, stated that study abroad was necessary "to continue to compete successfully in a global economy and maintain our role as world leader" (Clinton, 2000). Since then, government initiatives to advance study abroad have included the following:

- President George W. Bush with the support of Congress set a goal of sending one million students abroad every year by 2017 (Lincoln Commission, 2005);
- The U.S. Senate declared 2006 as "The Year of Study Abroad" (Government Printing Office, 2005);
- President Obama announced initiatives to increase study abroad participation to 100,000 in China and Latin American/The Caribbean (U.S. Department of State, 2010; U.S. Department of State, n.d.); and
- IIE, a leading non-profit organization that focuses on international education, announced its "Generation Study Abroad Initiative," to double the US study abroad participation in 5 years (IIE, 2014b).

While significant from a policy standpoint, it is likewise important to note that these initiatives offer some limited financial resources but little in the way of suggestions or support to help colleges and universities send more students abroad.

According to a national poll, 55% of college students consider study abroad prior to matriculating (American Council on Education, Art & Science Group, & the College Board, 2008) and a study of over 12,000 entering college freshmen throughout the country found that 60% of students expressed an interest in study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009). At a time when three out of four Americans worry about the economy (Brown, 2013), a national public opinion poll indicates that a strong majority of Americans view international education as crucial to preparing students for success in the global workplace (NAFSA: Association of International Educators, 2012). Americans consider study abroad to be essential to preparing the next generation with international skills and supporting the ability of the U.S. economy to be globally competitive (NAFSA, 2012).

A body of research that details the positive educational and personal outcomes which can result from study abroad validates favorable public opinion. Some of the identified beneficial outcomes of participation in study abroad include language proficiency (e.g., Davidson, 2007; Freed, 1995; Yager, 1998), learning outcomes such as world geography, cultural relativism, and awareness of global interdependence (Rubin & Sutton, 2001), intercultural competence (Kitsantas, 2004; Williams, 2005); social and psychological outcome variables including individual autonomy or self-efficacy, cognitive flexibility, sociability, interethnic tolerance, and world-mindedness (e.g., Bates, 1997; Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi & Lassegard, 2002; Ingraham and Peterson, 2005; McKeown, 2009).

Despite the documented interest in expanding and diversifying participation in study abroad by federal and state governments, non-profit organizations, institutions of higher education and the American public, study abroad continues to be an activity in

which only a small percentage of undergraduates participate. In order to increase participation for the benefit of individuals and the country, it is important to understand factors that contribute to students' participation and non-participation.

Research Question

Much remains to be learned about the factors that influence study abroad participation or non-participation among undergraduate students—especially those students who have taken concrete steps to inquire about study abroad. Therefore, the purpose of this mixed methods study is to determine whether or not certain factors impact participation among undergraduates who formally have expressed intent to study abroad. Specifically, this study is guided by two questions:

1) Among students who express intent to study abroad, who is more likely to study abroad and who is less likely? In addressing this question, this study examines a variety of factors that may influence study abroad participation including background characteristics (e.g., gender, race, income, distance of university from home, previous travel, interest in a foreign language, influence/support of family and peers), beliefs and attitudes (e.g., goals for study abroad, perceived obstacles to study abroad), institutional factors (e.g., faculty support, perceived faculty support, awareness of study abroad opportunities), extra-curricular factors (e.g., participation in extracurricular activities, membership in a social fraternity/sorority, participation in a sport), and academic involvement (e.g., GPA, academic major, minor, participation in honors program)
2) Why do some students who express intent to study abroad fail to do so?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine the population of undergraduate students at the University of Massachusetts Amherst who actively expressed intent to study abroad to determine how certain factors are related to student participation/non-participation in study abroad. This study will contribute to a small but growing body of research on factors that influence study abroad participation or non-participation among American undergraduates.

Previous studies have examined factors that influence American study abroad participation or the process of deciding to study abroad among the general undergraduate population (BaileyShea, 2009; Chieffo, 2000; King & Young, 1994; Loberg, 2012; Lozano, 2008; Miller, 2004; Salisbury, Umbach, Paulsen & Pascarella, 2009; Stroud, 2010). Researchers have focused their inquiry on the comparatively lower participation rates of specific groups within the general student population such as first-generation students (Andriano, 2010), minority students (Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Kasravi, 2009; Salisbury, Paulsen & Pascarella, 2011), community college students (Amani, 2011) and male students (Lucas, 2009; Shirley, 2006; Salisbury, Paulsen & Pascarella, 2010). Only a few studies have proposed theoretical models about how students decide to study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2001; Kasvari; 2009; Peterson, 2003). This study will examine participation and non-participation among students who have expressed intent to study abroad through the model proposed by BaileyShea (2009). The model, which includes background characteristics, beliefs and attitudes, intent, institutional factors, extracurricular involvement and academic involvement as they relate to study abroad participation or non-participation, will be explained in further chapters.

This study expands upon past studies in important ways. First, it explores participation and non-participation among a population of students who have expressed formal intent to study abroad. Previous research has explored either participation or intent to study abroad through data analysis of widely-administered, multi-institutional surveys of incoming or first-year students about their intent to participate in a variety of activities--including study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, Paulsen, & Pascarella, 2010; Salisbury, Paulson & Pascarella, 2011; Stroud, 2010). Although use of such data permits the examination of a multitude of variables in relation to participating in or an interest in participating in study abroad, the timing and manner in which many such surveys are administered fall short of capturing true intent.

Thus far, only one study (Booker, 2001) has explored the population of students who has actively taken steps to inquire about study abroad by visiting their campus study abroad office. Such a distinction is important. It is reasonable to assume that students who actively express intent through making an inquiry with their campus study abroad office are more interested in study abroad than students who express interest through a survey they completed at the start of their undergraduate education--when they had little idea about what it means to be a college student. Learning more about what affects study abroad participation or, more importantly, non-participation among students who actively seek out information about study abroad is essential to expanding. Such knowledge will help colleges and universities identify the steps to take to decrease the number of students from this group who either do not apply or drop out during the application process.

Second, this study will incorporate both quantitative and qualitative research methods through a concurrent design. Few studies on factors that facilitate or inhibit

study abroad participation among undergraduates have included the use of both qualitative and quantitative methods (see Loberg, 2012; Lucas, 2009; Miller, 2004; Kasravi, 2009). The capacity of quantitative methods or qualitative methods alone to gather all of the data needed to understand the complexity of study abroad participation/non-participation is limited. Harnessing both quantitative and qualitative data will provide a more complete picture of the factors that impede interested students from participating.

Finally, this research differs from previous studies by focusing exclusively on the University of Massachusetts Amherst, a large research university in the Northeast. Prior research on study abroad has found differential intent to participate and participation in study abroad by institutional type. Students who attend research universities, regional institutions and community colleges, are less likely than students at private, 4-year liberal arts colleges both to consider study abroad and actually study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009; IIE, 2014a; Salisbury, et. al., 2009). National statistics confirm these findings (IIE, 2014a). It is important to consider institutional differences in mission, focus, and structure when examining intent to study abroad because the types of opportunities, resources and supports available to students can vary. Nationally, public four-year institutions enroll over twice as many undergraduates as private, non-profit, four-year institutions (Snyder & Dillow, 2011), so it makes sense to concentrate the efforts to expand study abroad participation at public four-year institutions. Only 2 of the top 40 doctoral institutions sending the highest percentage of students abroad are public institutions (IIE, 2014a). The need for research focused on public research universities is

essential given that study abroad participation rates at public research institutions are substantially lower than private research or non-research institutions (IIE, 2014a).

Although some prior studies have examined study abroad participation at large public research universities in other regions such as the Mid Atlantic (Amani, 2011, Chieffo, 2000), the West Coast (Kasravi, 2009; Miller, 2004), the Southwest (Hamir, 2011), and the Midwest (Booker, 2001; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Lucas, 2009; Peterson, 2003), none have studied student populations in the Northeast. The region boasts the highest concentration of prestigious colleges and universities in the country, such as Harvard, Brown, and MIT; however, it is the region's public colleges and universities that educate a majority of its residents (NEBHE, 2014; Oakes, 2010). The University of Massachusetts Amherst enrolls more full-time undergraduate students than any other university—public or private—in the region (NEBHE, 2014). Even so, the University has been underfunded by the state for over a decade (Becker, 2010; Oakes, 2010). The Commonwealth of Massachusetts has cut public higher education funding more than all but six other states and drastically increased tuition & fees since 2000 (Gustafson, 2013). The loss of revenue from state funding has been made up only in part by tuition increases but also loss of faculty and support staff, eliminated course offerings, and other programs (Gustafson, 2013). The particular economic and political climate might produce challenges to study abroad participation not necessarily experienced by universities in other areas of the country, and therefore, warrants examination.

Significance

Study abroad has been recognized as a valuable and increasingly essential aspect of higher education in America. It has received support, albeit mostly rhetorical, from

American presidents, non-profits, and leadership at colleges and universities across the country, as well as acknowledgment by a large proportion of the American public for its importance in the continued and future success of the United States. Yet, for all the positive attention and numerous high-profile initiatives aimed at expanding participation, study abroad remains an academic activity engaged in by only a small percentage of U.S. undergraduates. Developing a better understanding of the factors that contribute to participation or non-participation in study abroad is critical to achieving greater participation. It is not enough to rely upon assumptions or anecdotal evidence to enact change. If it were, the number of students studying abroad would be on target with the ambitious goals set by various non-profit and governmental organizations. Rather, it is imperative that research guide decisions on the measures that should be implemented to enable more students to study abroad. Studying students who have already expressed interest in studying abroad will lead to an understanding of how to streamline processes and remove potential barriers for those students. In turn, this will free up time for study abroad professionals to reach out to underrepresented populations and students who do not even consider study abroad, thereby expanding participation even further.

Summary

Only 9.1% of the U.S. undergraduate population currently studies abroad even though institutions of higher education, state governments and the federal government would like to expand study abroad participation. The goal of this study is to investigate factors that influence participation and non-participation in study abroad among students who have expressed formal intent to study abroad. After reviewing relevant literature on

participation in study abroad and the theoretical framework for this study, I will describe the research methodology for this study.

Definitions

The section is divided into terms for: (a) study abroad, (b) public research university, (c) program duration, (d) study abroad profile, (e) participant, (f) applicant, and (g) withdrawn.

Study Abroad

This term refers to any of a number of arrangements by which students complete part of their degree program through educational activities outside the United States. Such activities include -- but are not limited to -- classroom study, research, internships, and service learning. It should be noted that today, the field is referred to as education abroad, a term which encompasses any for-credit education that occurs outside the participant's home country. According to the Education Abroad Glossary (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2011), study abroad is just one type of education abroad. Other examples include volunteering, work, and directed travel for credit, "so long as they are driven to a significant degree by learning goals" (p. 10). However, since study abroad has become the standard term used by both students and those working in higher education, it is the term that will be used throughout this study.

Public Research University

Public research universities are institutions of higher education that are at least partially funded by state appropriations and are engaged in extensive research activity. Under the current Carnegie classification, these institutions are called doctorate-granting universities. Such institutions award at least 20 doctoral degrees per year and include

RU/VH: Research Universities (very high research activity), RU/H: Research Universities (high research activity) and DRU: Doctoral/Research Universities (The Carnegie Foundation, 2014).

Program Duration

The length of time that students are participating in an education abroad program will be defined according to the definitions established in the Education Abroad Glossary (Forum on Education Abroad, 2011):

a. Academic Year: Lasting 25 to 39 weeks
b. Semester: Lasting 12 to 17 weeks
c. Short term: Lasting eight weeks or less (e.g., summer, January, spring break, etc.)

Study Abroad Profile

A survey embedded in students' web-based study abroad accounts at the this study's focal institution. Students who wish to study abroad or meet with an advisor to learn more about study abroad must create an on-line account, which is partially integrated with the University's PeopleSoft information system for information such as race, expected graduation, GPA, and major. Upon creation of the account, students are prompted to complete the "Study Abroad Profile."

Participant

An undergraduate student who has taken part or is currently taking part in a study abroad program offered by or approved by the University.

Applicant

Prospective participant who has completed or is in the process of completing the necessary paperwork to be considered for admission to a study abroad program.

Withdrawn

Status of a student who has applied for and may have been accepted to a study abroad program and either subsequently notified the university study abroad office that they will not participate or never completed the application materials that were required to study abroad and were subsequently withdrawn by study abroad office staff.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter reviews three areas of literature that inform this study. First, in order to set a context for the study, it will provide an overview of the current study abroad climate in the United States, including initiatives by higher education institutions, state governments, the federal government, and non-profit organizations. National and institutional data on participation will also be reported, including differential participation by gender, race, and academic major as well as by study abroad location and program duration.

The second section will discuss the theoretical model used as a framework in this examination of how participants differ from non-participants among students who have formally expressed intent to study abroad.

The final section will review research on outcomes related to study abroad participation. Because the purpose of this study is to investigate factors that influence study abroad participation, an overview and analysis of research on study abroad intent and participation is included.

The Current National Study Abroad Climate

Globalization

Whether assumptions or actual research about the merits of study abroad have driven federal and state governments and public and private colleges and universities to support international study, in recent years, study abroad has experienced consistent growth with over a quarter of a million U.S. students currently studying abroad each year

(IIE, 2014a). This growth has coincided with globalization, which has altered the way in which Americans view the world. Globalization refers to “the compression of the world and the intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole” (Robertson, 1992, p. 8). In the past twenty years, political, economic and technological developments have changed countries’, companies’, and individuals’ perceptions of the world. Examples of globalization include trade (e.g., European Union, NAFTA) and business with growing numbers of multinational corporations (e.g., Coca-Cola, Siemens, and Unilever). The world is now a global market where historical and geographical divisions are becoming less and less relevant (Friedman, 2005). As a result, globalization has become important not only to business and politics, but also to education.

Internationalization

Increasingly, institutions of higher education are seeking ways to internationalize their campuses and prepare their students for a globalized world. NAFSA's working definition of internationalization is “the conscious effort to integrate and infuse international, intercultural, and global dimensions into the ethos and outcomes of postsecondary education. To be fully successful, it must involve active and responsible engagement of the academic community in global networks and partnerships” (NAFSA, 2014). Nonprofit organizations focused on international education hold conferences and workshops to assist universities with developing strategies to internationalize their campuses. For example, the American Council on Education offers two-year Internationalization Labs, which provide institutions with guidance to create internationalization goals and develop strategic plans for their campuses that might include developing global learning outcomes, infusing international learning

opportunities into the curriculum and co-curriculum, and developing strategic partnerships abroad (American Council on Education, 2015).

Study abroad is a prominent way institutions internationalize their campuses. Some colleges, such as Goucher College and Soka University of America require all of their undergraduates to study abroad (Haynie, 2014). An often cited indicator of overall institutional quality is the number of students participating in study abroad programs. A campus which has high participation in international education is perceived as offering a stimulating learning environment. In fact, it is not uncommon for international opportunities and initiatives to be touted in order to attract prospective students to colleges and universities. Ranking among the top 40 in the nation for the percentage of undergraduate students abroad in *Open Doors*, the annual report on international education exchange, is a source of pride for universities (e.g., New York University, 2014; Webster University, 2014).

Government Efforts

Study abroad has also caught the attention of state governments. Currently, 23 states have passed International Education Resolutions to promote study abroad and international education at the postsecondary level with more states considering similar resolutions (NAFSA, 2015b). While such initiatives raise the profile of international experiences as an educational priority, there is limited funding attached to these study abroad initiatives. Most colleges and universities, especially public institutions, will not be able simply to spend money to internationalize their campuses and send more students on study abroad programs. Rather, they will need to utilize research to identify and

implement low or no cost changes that will reduce barriers to students who wish to study abroad.

Nationally, a number of enthusiastic initiatives to increase study abroad participation have been introduced. In 2005, President Bush and Congress established the Lincoln Commission, a bipartisan federal commission that set a goal of sending 1 million students abroad annually by 2016/2017 (Lincoln Commission, 2005). The U.S. Senate declared, by unanimous vote, that 2006 was the "Year of Study Abroad" (Government Printing Office, 2005). The Senator Paul Simon Act, first introduced to Congress in 2007, seeks to increase study abroad participation to at least one million undergraduate students annually, mirror the demographics of the American undergraduate population, and expand study in nontraditional locations. The ambitious legislation has been introduced in two sessions of Congress. The bill was passed twice by the House and introduced in the Senate by current minority whip, Senator Richard Durbin from Illinois. It has enjoyed strong bipartisan support, and Sen. Durbin has indicated that he intends to reintroduce the bill, however political gridlock and more pressing contentious issues may mean it will never be signed into law. The Act, based on the recommendations by the Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program (NAFSA, 2015a) was inspired by the late Senator Paul Simon, a strong advocate of a national study abroad initiative. It would expand access to study abroad by making funds available on a competitive basis to institutions of higher education individually or as part of a consortium (Lincoln Commission, 2005; NAFSA, 2012). The legislation would establish an inventive new structure that will provide direct financial support to students to study abroad, while at

the same time requiring U.S. higher education institutions to send more students abroad (Lincoln Commission, 2005).

In 2009, President Obama launched the 100,000 Strong Initiative with the aim of significantly increasing the number of Americans studying in China to create a new generation of American experts charged with managing the growing political, economic and cultural ties between the two countries. Designed to help institutions of education establish or expand programs of study in China, and relying exclusively on private-sector funds, the 100,000 Strong Initiative was intended to strengthen the U.S.-China relationship. With a goal of having 100,000 Americans participate in study abroad by 2014, the initiative has fallen well short of its goal (Stetar & Li, 2014). President Obama announced a similar initiative, 100,000 Strong in the Americas, in 2011 to enhance competitiveness, increase prosperity, and provide study abroad opportunities to prepare a globally aware and culturally competent workforce (U.S. Department of State, n.d.). The goal is to increase participation by U.S. students studying in the Western Hemisphere to 100,000 students by 2020, which would more than double the current numbers of participants (U.S. Department of State, n.d.). The initiative states, "to reach our goal, colleges and universities must make study abroad accessible for all students, regardless of their major, socio-economic status, or the type of institution in which they are enrolled" (U.S. Department of State, n.d., ¶3). But, as with many of the initiatives referenced previously, few specific suggestions have been offered to colleges and universities on how to make study abroad in Latin America accessible to more students, and (consistent with other such plans) only nominal funding has been made available for institutions to support the initiatives.

In March 2014, yet another ambitious goal to expand participation in study abroad was announced. The Institute of International Education (IIE), a private not-for-profit organization that collaborates with governments, foundations, and other sponsors, launched “Generation Study Abroad,” a five-year initiative to double the number of U. S. college students studying abroad by the end of the decade (IIE, 2014b). To date, close to 300 college and universities from 48 states as well as the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs have committed to increase the number of students studying abroad (IIE, 2014b). Again, the initiative is backed by limited financial resources. The website extolls the virtues of study abroad, yet does not whatsoever mention how the doubling in 5 years is to be achieved.

Demographic-Specific Initiatives

The initiatives described above are aimed at dramatically increasing study abroad by American students, and efforts to this effect are increasingly focusing on expanding study abroad opportunities in the developing world and participation by non-traditional study abroad populations (e.g., men, non-White students, and STEM majors). Overwhelmingly, American students choose to study in traditional locations (e.g., Western Europe) over nontraditional destinations (e.g., Africa, Latin America) (IIE, 2014a). According to the most recent data from the Institute of International Education, 53.3% of American students who studied abroad in 2012/2013 did so in Europe, whereas only 15.7% did so in Latin America, 12.4% in Asia, and 24.6% in the sub-Saharan Africa (2014a). The most popular destinations for study abroad—the U.K., Italy, Spain and France--have not changed in the past 10 years, despite a changing political and economic environment that suggests that knowledge of the languages and cultures of countries such

as Brazil, Russia, India and China, with newly advanced economic development, will become important to the future success of America. Scholarship programs such as the Fulbright, National Security Language Initiative (NSLI) and the president's 100,000 Strong and 100,000 Strong Americas initiatives have likely increased participation in non-traditional destinations, but only slightly.

National data reveal persistent inequities in study abroad participation rates across a variety of categories. The percentage of men who study abroad each year is currently 35.2% (IIE, 2014). This figure has remained entirely unchanged over the past decade. Even though men account for 44% of degree-seeking undergraduate students, they do not study abroad at similar rates (NCES, 2014). Another group of students for whom participation rates are disproportionately low is racial or ethnic minority students. Non-White students represent only 23.6% of all students studying abroad (IIE, 2014a), despite the fact that they comprise 32% of the national undergraduate population (NCES, 2014).

Students with majors in science, technology, engineering, or mathematics (STEM), have for years represented a small percentage of students participating in study abroad, presumably due to the difficulty for students to complete major requirements abroad and the sequential nature of the courses. At the turn of the century, students with majors in mathematics/computer science, health sciences, physical sciences and engineering, comprised just 13.1% or 21,692 students studying abroad (IIE, 2001). The latest figures reported by IIE show that, for the 2012/2013 academic year, 65,223, or 22.5% of all students studying abroad were STEM majors (IIE, 2014a). Total participation in study abroad has doubled since 2000; however, participation by American students majoring in STEM fields tripled in that time, with the biggest increase

(9%) occurring between the 2011/2012 to 2012/2013 academic years (IIE, 2001; IIE, 2014a; IIE, 2014b).

Recent gains in study abroad participation among racially/ethnically diverse students and STEM majors can be credited to a push from non-profit educational organizations such as CIEE that first raised the alarm about differential participation in study abroad among certain populations in late 1980s. CIEE (1988) noted the importance of making study abroad available to more students to "improve this country's ability to meet contemporary challenges" (p. 3). Study abroad professionals have heeded the call and focused on these students by conducting outreach, to providing institutional scholarships. The creation of the Benjamin A. Gilman Scholarship, a congressionally funded program started in 2000 and sponsored by the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs at the U.S. Department of State and administered by the IIE, has also helped achieve growth of traditionally underrepresented students in study abroad. Students with high financial need, community college students, students in underrepresented fields such as the sciences and engineering, students identifying as racially diverse or with disabilities receive preference for the scholarships.

Duration and Types of International Study

The most recent data available from IIE reveals that 60.3% of U.S. college students studying abroad select short term programs that run for eight weeks or less during the academic year or summer or winter breaks, an increase from 45.3% of students who participated in short-term study abroad programs during the 1999/2000 academic year (IIE, 2001; IIE 2014a). The growth in the sheer number of students participating in study abroad appears to come at the expense of program duration. If the goal is merely to

increase the numbers of students abroad, then this would be good news. However, it is the positive outcomes that study abroad affords that are cited by advocates as reasons for expanding study abroad participation. A number of studies have found that study abroad programs with longer durations provide more impact for increasing global mindedness, language acquisition and immersion in the culture (Davidson, 2007; Dwyer, 2004; Kehl & Morris, 2008; Neppel, 2005).

Study abroad program offerings have increased dramatically in the past decade. To illustrate this point, the IIE Passport, a comprehensive national directory of programs included over 6,000 listings in 2005, but currently lists over 10,000 programs (IIE, 2007; IIEPassport.org, 2015). The programs listed in the IIE Passport often do not include programs specific to a college or university, such as a faculty-led program, so the IIE Passport data actually underestimates the number of actual study abroad opportunities. With the sheer volume of programs available, it is becoming increasingly difficult for study abroad professionals to be able to evaluate the quality of each program, assessing the student learning, facilities, student support and safety. For these reasons, some have expressed concern about a focus on increased numbers (Altbach, 2002; Stetar & Li 2014). Phillip Altbach, Director of the Center for International Higher Education at Boston College, cautioned that the Simon Act emphasizes “quantity over quality”--expanding the number of study abroad participants with little consideration to the programs students participate in and the quality of learning that takes place in them.

There is a clear interest on the part of state and federal governments and study abroad professionals alike in not only expanding the number of students studying abroad annually, but also diversifying who participates and where they study. However, what is

known about the factors that influence study abroad participation is not consistent across studies and therefore requires further exploration. Without clear and consistent research on the topic, measures to increase and diversify participation in study abroad, such as scholarships programs and mandates, cannot have the impact intended.

Study Abroad Research

Despite regular 2% growth annually in students studying abroad (IIE 2014a), and study abroad's growing presence in U.S. universities' internationalization rhetoric, actual research on study abroad is sparse. There are a number of factors that contribute to the limited research on study abroad. First, study abroad is a relatively new field within education. Although a handful of junior year abroad programs existed in the 1920s and 1930s, it was not until federal initiatives such as the Fulbright Program passed in 1946, the National Defense Education Act of 1958 and the International Education Act of 1966 that American interest in the wider world increased and helped pave the way for academic study abroad programs similar to those available today (Hoffa, 2009). The earliest study abroad opportunities were programs founded by professors, most of whom taught foreign languages. These programs were usually exchanges arranged between a U.S. college or university and an overseas college or university (Hoffa, 2009). In the early to mid-1960s a number of organizations and consortia were formed to help campuses evolve their own policies, practices and programs for study abroad, and gradually, the field grew to include not only exchanges and departmental or college programs at institutions overseas or satellite campuses abroad, but also programs organized by agencies specializing in international education, also known as providers (e.g., Arcadia, CIEE, IES).

Second, the professors who founded the earliest study abroad programs did not have a body of research and professional knowledge on which to draw. They were largely operating on their own and when they conducted research, the research was not about study abroad, but on topics within their academic disciplines. The National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (NAFSA) was created in 1948 (it is now known as the Association of International Educators), but for its first decades, the organization focused exclusively on students coming to U.S. colleges from other countries (Hoffa, 2009). It was not until the early 1990s that the organization formally recognized the professional development needs of campus personnel working as advisors to students who wished to study abroad. However, those professionals handling the increasing numbers of U.S. students studying abroad were still dissatisfied with NAFSA's lack of attention to issues related to study abroad, and in 2001, a group of education abroad professionals founded the Forum on Education Abroad (Forum on Education Abroad, 2010). The mission of the Forum is to develop and implement standards of good practice, to encourage and support research initiatives, and to offer educational programs and resources to its members.

Another factor contributing to the limited amount of research on study abroad is that generally speaking, those working in study abroad are not trained social science researchers. As study abroad has become more popular and developed into a field, the path to a career in the profession has changed from faculty and administrators who fell into the profession because they and/or their institutions identified the need for study abroad advising on their campuses, to individuals who have chosen the profession. More and more positions in the field require advanced degrees and the field is slowly changing

to include professionals who have the skills and knowledge necessary to conduct research.

Finally, it is often the case that study abroad offices are understaffed and therefore, simply are unable to plan and conduct research. On most campuses, study abroad offices are their own departments and not well integrated into academics, which has mean that higher education researchers (e.g., those not working in study abroad) have not focused on study abroad. Given the fact that the study abroad opportunities available to students grow exponentially each year, professionals are frequently busy sorting through and evaluating programs and advising students.

Study Abroad Outcomes

Because course credit is typically awarded for study abroad, one would expect that institutions of higher education would seek to measure the academic progress and achievement of their students abroad. Also, one would expect institutions of higher education to evaluate study abroad programs not only in terms of institutional indicators such as enrollment (see Gillespie, Braskamp & Braskamp, 1999), but also in terms of direct measures of knowledge gained. In reality, most institutions have not actively pursued outcomes assessment of study abroad. Rather, study abroad professionals most often collect program evaluation data upon completion of a study abroad experience (e.g., Cash, 1993). Such evaluations may ask students to rate their satisfaction with the program, the courses, and/or the housing, for example. Some also ask students to evaluate the impact of their experiences (e.g., Hartlan, 2011; Laubscher, 1994). Although such data can be helpful for study abroad offices to gauge student satisfaction about study abroad programs and help promote study abroad on their campus, they do not identify or

evaluate specific academic and personal outcomes. The recognition of the need for quality assessment of education abroad is not new. In fact, in the early 1970s, Dieter Breitenbach wrote:

> If one looks at the numerous 'evaluation reports' which have been written on exchange programmes, one cannot avoid the impression that major survey and research institutes adopt unthinkingly and without even a minimal degree of scientific preparation the line of questioning suggested by their sponsors… They then proceed to eulogies which throw positive light on the institutions concerned with the administration of such programmes… but have little to do with academic credibility. (1973, p. 465)

Thirty-five years later, Immetman & Schneider (2008) lamented: "[d]espite anecdotal evidence that students are generally satisfied with study-abroad programs, the assertion that international education provides an effective vehicle for promoting student development and the acquisition of valuable knowledge and skills requires objective verification" (p. 64).

Yet today, it is still the case at the majority of institutions that data collection related to study abroad -- if it occurs at all -- consists of little more than descriptive information, such as the number of students abroad by country or the student profile by academic year, gender and race. However, simply knowing how many students studied abroad is not equivalent to knowing what knowledge, skills and values those students acquired (or failed to acquire) as a result of their abroad experiences. Although the primarily demographic data collected are all useful in looking at the productivity, efficiency, and effectiveness of the educational enterprise, critics state that these tend to approximate student learning outcomes through corollary data rather than measuring learning directly. Student learning is, after all, the purpose for the entire higher education enterprise, yet several factors have led accountability processes in the past to skirt

learning outcomes assessment (Zernike, 2002). For example, the most valuable learning outcomes, such as advanced critical thinking, and strong verbal and writing skills can often be the most difficult to measure (Sutton and Rubin 2001). Likewise, learning outcomes related to study abroad, such as cultural relativism and global interdependence, present challenges for researchers to evaluate.

Despite the challenges to measuring learning outcomes, the growing trend in higher education accountability is a more central role for student learning outcomes assessment (Allan, 1996; McDaniel, Felder, Gordon, Hrutka & Quinn, 2000). This heightened accountability specifically directed toward student learning is fueled in part by increased competition for student enrollment. In this environment, students and employers are no longer satisfied that an official seal on a diploma signifies an adequate level of learning among graduates. Instead, students seek hard evidence that their investments have yielded real dividends in terms of demonstrable gains in student knowledge and skill between admissions and graduation (Wellman, 2001; Zernike, 2002). All areas of higher education, including study abroad (Gillespie, Braskamp & Braskamp, 1999) are being asked to demonstrate measurable student learning outcomes. As assessment of outcomes becomes more common in U.S. college life, education abroad is likely to be scrutinized both on its own terms and as part of the total experience of educational institutions.

In 2007, recognizing the need for study abroad outcomes assessment, the Forum on Education Abroad published A *Guide to Outcomes Assessment in Education Abroad* (Bolen). The publication provides tools for study abroad professionals to implement outcomes assessment as a part of education abroad programming. Editor Mell C. Bolen

admits that study abroad outcomes assessment "is still in its infancy" so the guide "can only be a first attempt at outlining topics of inquiry and methods for exploring them" (p. 2). Its impact is yet unknown. In the roughly five years since the guide has been available, no research on study abroad outcomes assessment has been published.

Below is a brief overview of some of the study abroad research that falls under the outcomes assessment category. These include foreign language acquisition, learning outcomes and developmental outcomes.

Foreign Language Acquisition

Foreign language study is one of the first areas of study abroad outcomes researched. Foreign language professors and teachers have been interested in identifying aspects of foreign language study conducted in the target language host environment that produce results superior to those from home-country language study (Freed, 1995; Milleret, 1990). Such studies are based on the idea that students who converse regularly with native speakers in real-life situations will be advantaged over those whose language learning occurs only in the classroom. While some researchers have found this to be the case (Yager, 1998), interestingly, other studies have found that study abroad can actually undermine proper grammar in the foreign language; students immersed in home stay situations sometimes achieve lesser gains in language proficiency than students who reside in international dorms (Veguez, 1984).

One of the largest studies on foreign language learning outcomes as a result of study abroad was sponsored by the American Council of Teachers of Russian (Rivers, 1998). The Council found that speaking and listening proficiency gains were significantly less for students in homestay placements than for students in dormitory placements. The

findings, counter to intuition, are indicative of the fact that foreign language learning outcomes from study abroad can vary great. Study abroad is not a guarantee that students will demonstrate learning gains. There are many predictors to gains in in language proficiency; the setting of the language study may be a less important predictor than individual student differences such as gender and previous language background.

Specific Learning Outcomes

Beyond the realm of foreign language education, a number of scholars have called for expanding learning outcomes assessment to broader evaluations of study abroad programs (Gillespie, Braskamp, & Braskamp, 1999; Rubin & Sutton, 2001; Sideli, 2001; Vande Berg, 2001). While no national research exists, one state-wide system study is currently underway. The University System of Georgia Learning Outcomes of Students Studying Abroad Research Initiative (GLOSSARI), funded by a $537,000 federal grant, is using assessment to focus on the cognitive and academic outcomes of international education. The University System began collecting data through the GLOSSARI project on study-abroad student outcomes in 2001 and preliminary findings indicated that students who study abroad were better able to navigate in complex environments and remain in college to finish their degrees at significantly higher rates than those who never participate in study-abroad programs.

Rubin & Sutton (2001) have published only the first of six components of the longitudinal GLOSSARI initiative: a comparison of study abroad participants and non-participants on self-reported learning outcomes. The researchers found that students who studied abroad exceeded the comparison group on three of seven studied learning

outcomes: knowledge of world geography, knowledge of cultural relativism, and knowledge of global interdependence.

Some surveys of returned study abroad participants attempt to evaluate the overall impact that the abroad program has had on their goals and personal characteristics (see, for example, British Columbia Centre for International Education, 2002; Hansel & Grove, 1986; Laubscher, 1994). Although such information can be helpful for increasing program quality, recruiting students and in developing institutional support, opinion data and self-assessments of personal growth do not provide data about academic benefit.

Developmental Outcomes of Education Abroad

Research on outcomes that relate to the personal development of study abroad participants is particularly important because it relates to topics such as coping mechanisms and group dynamics. Some of the developmental variables that have been studied include individual self-sufficiency or self-efficacy, cognitive flexibility, sociability, tolerance, and world-mindedness (e.g., Bates, 1997; Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Juhasz & Walker, 1988; Kehl & Morris, 2008; Lathrop, 1999; Nash, 1976; McKeown, 2009; Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi & Lassegard, 2002; Ryan & Twibell, 2000).

Because studies on developmental aspects of study abroad outcomes have utilized different instruments, it is challenging to generalize across this work. However, the research in this area does suggest that studying abroad has a significant impact on many developmental outcomes. For example, prolonged cultural immersion is deemed to impact students on “island” study abroad programs, in which students live and study with other American students in curriculum designed especially for American students (Sell,

1983) over students participating in other types of programs. Whether or not such developmental effects are short-lived or not is unknown. It could be the case that some campus-based programs or initiatives on multicultural issues might bring about similar results as those obtained from study abroad.

There are many desirable learning outcomes students may gain during college, and the potential developmental outcomes of studying abroad (e.g., self-efficacy, global competence, etc.) are among the strongest. While developmental outcomes personal attitudes and traits may not reflect specific learning outcomes, they do provide insight into outcomes attainable by various types of cross-cultural life experiences. A recent study on the effect of study abroad on intercultural competence came to this conclusion, finding that intercultural competence may be a function of something other than the experience of study abroad (Salisbury, An, & Pascarella, 2013). In fact, the study found that study abroad had little influence on students' appreciation of cultural differences.

In terms of psycho-social or personal development, research indicates that study abroad can be transformative for its participants. Among the outcomes often cited are increased individual autonomy or self-efficacy (Bates, 1997; Lathrop, 1999; Ryan & Twibell, 2000), sociability (Ryan & Twibell, 2000), interethnic tolerance (Beach, 1995, Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Lathrop, 1999; Paige, Cohen, Kappler, Chi & Lassegard, 2002), new perspective on American society and culture and on role of the United States in the world (Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Paige, et al., 2002), and world-mindedness (Bates, 1997; Kehl & Morris, 2008; Paige, et al., 2002). Some areas that have yet to be studied are tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility, new perspective on the role of the U.S. in the world and appreciation of difference.

One of the obvious challenges of seeking to establish effects of studying abroad on learning outcomes is that significant results are subject to alternate interpretations. Although a few studies compared students' pre- and post- study abroad experiences (Beach, 1995, Bates, 1997; Flash, 1999; Herman, 1996), most studies lacked pre-abroad comparisons between the two groups (Carlson & Widaman, 1988; Gillespie, et al., 1999; Hansel & Grove, 1986; Laubscher, 1994). Absent that comparison, it is reasonable to argue that any differences between those who have participated in study abroad and those who have not are simply due to institutional GPA requirements for those who typically choose to study abroad, and not at all attributable to the study abroad experience.

Conceptual Framework

BaileyShea's Decision to Study Abroad Framework

To examine how study abroad participants differ from non-participants among a population of undergraduate students who expressed formal intent to study abroad, this study utilizes an existing framework proposed by BaileyShea (2009) in her research on factors that affect study abroad participation. Although a few other researchers have proposed models (Booker, 2001; Peterson, 2003; Kasravi, 2009), none have been applied and tested empirically. As with all investigation in the social world, a framework should be scrutinized and tested, reviewed and revised as a result of investigation (Guba & Lincoln, 1989).

This framework, which includes variables identified in prior research, is based on Astin's (1993) Input-Environment-Output model (I-E-O), Astin's (1984, 1999) student involvement theory, and Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action (TRA).

According to the theories and model used in the framework, BaileyShea organized variables into the following categories:

a) individual background characteristics;

b) student beliefs and attitudes;

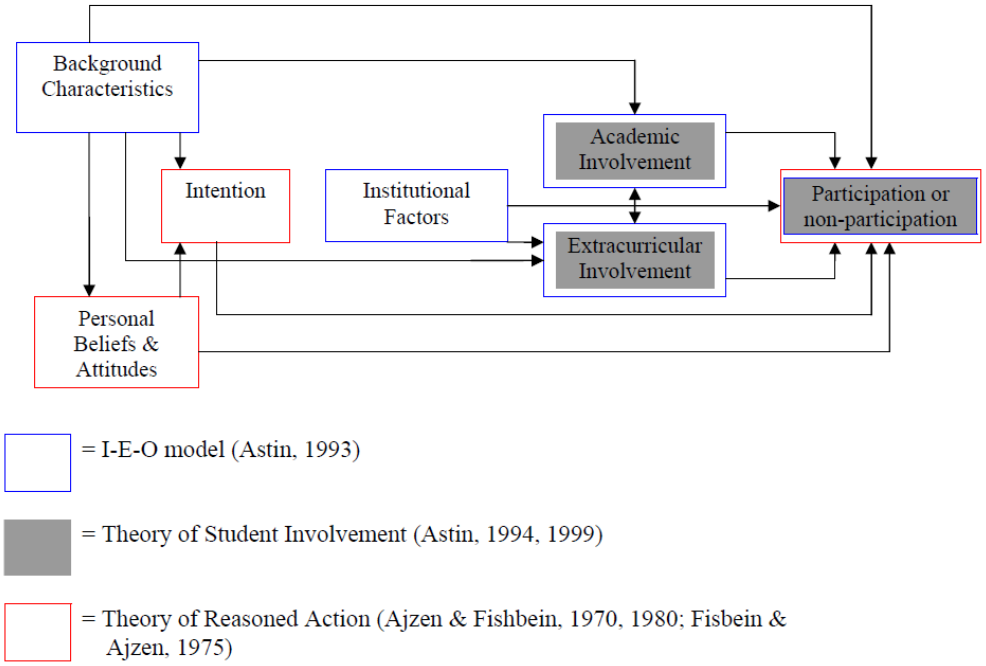
c) intention to study abroad;

d) institutional factors;

e) extracurricular involvement; and

f) academic involvement.

Figure 1. BaileyShea's Decision to Study Abroad Framework (2009)

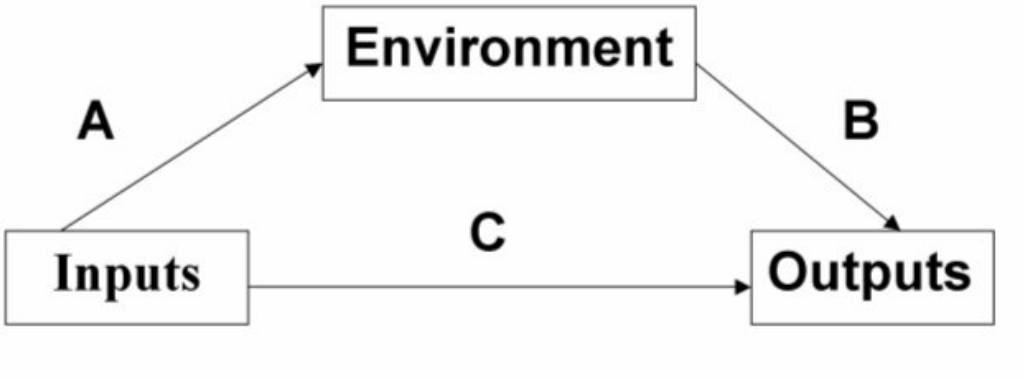


Astin's Input-Environment-Output

I-E-O serves as the basic structure of BaileyShea's framework and has been used to examine such varied topics as student satisfaction and degree completion (House, 1999), spirituality (Bryant & Astin, 2008), and the prediction of male college students'

willingness to prevent rape (Stein, 2007). The model highlights the impact of interaction between student background characteristics and the college environment on student outcomes (Astin, 1993). The extensive application of the I-E-O model in higher education research might be attributed to its simplicity and usefulness in assessing a variety of educational outcomes.

Figure 2. Astin's Input-Environment-Outcome (I-E-O) Model



Inputs "refers to those personal qualities the student brings initially to the education program (including the student's initial level of developed talent at the time of entry)" (Astin, 1993, p. 18). Examples of student inputs are demographic information, educational background, degree aspiration, reason for selecting an institution, financial status, career choice, major field of study, and reason for attending college (Astin, 1993). Inclusion of input data when using the I-E-O model is crucial because inputs directly influence both the environment and outputs, thus having a "double" influence on outputs—one that is direct and one that indirectly influences through environment.

Environment "refers to the student's actual experiences during the educational program" (Astin, 1993, p. 18). The environment includes everything that happens during the program course that might impact the student, and therefore the outcomes measured.

Environmental items can include the staff, curricula, instructors, facilities, institutional climate, courses, teaching style, friends, roommates, extra-curricular activities, and organizational affiliation (Astin, 1993).

Outputs "refer to the 'talents' we are trying to develop in our educational program" (Astin, 1993, p. 18). Outputs are outcome variables that may include post-tests, consequences, or end results. In education, outcome measures have included indicators such as grade point average, exam scores, course performance, degree completion, and overall course satisfaction.

Because of the generic nature of the I-E-O, some researchers have found it helpful to clarify (e.g. Kim, 2001) or modify (e.g., Pascarella, 2001) Astin's model. It is clear that prior research on study abroad participation (and available data) informed BaileyShea's choice of variables to include as measures of input and environment. The I-E-O has been included in another study of participation in study abroad—one specifically focused on first-generation students (Andriano, 2010). Citing a lack of "specificity on how environmental variables may interrelate," (p. 48), Andriano (2010) included Pascarella's General Model of Assessing Change (1985) to determine additional variables that affect student change to include in a quantitative study of secondary data from the 2003 and 2006 administrations of the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE). The study found three statistically significant variables that positively impacted the decision to study abroad: living in campus affiliated housing, enrolling in foreign language coursework, and attending a private institution.

Astin's Theory of Student Involvement

Astin's (1984) theory of involvement suggests that the more students are involved in both academic and structured and unstructured social activities in college, the more they learn. According to Astin (1984), the most influential types of involvement are "academic involvement, involvement with faculty, and involvement with student peer groups" (p. 126). The quality and quantity of the student's involvement impacts several educational outcomes including cognitive learning, satisfaction with the entire college experience, and increased rates of student retention (Astin, 1984, 1999). For a student to be involved in the learning process, they must invest energy in academic relationships and activities. The amount of energy a student invests in these types of activities will vary based upon the student's interests, goals, and other commitments.

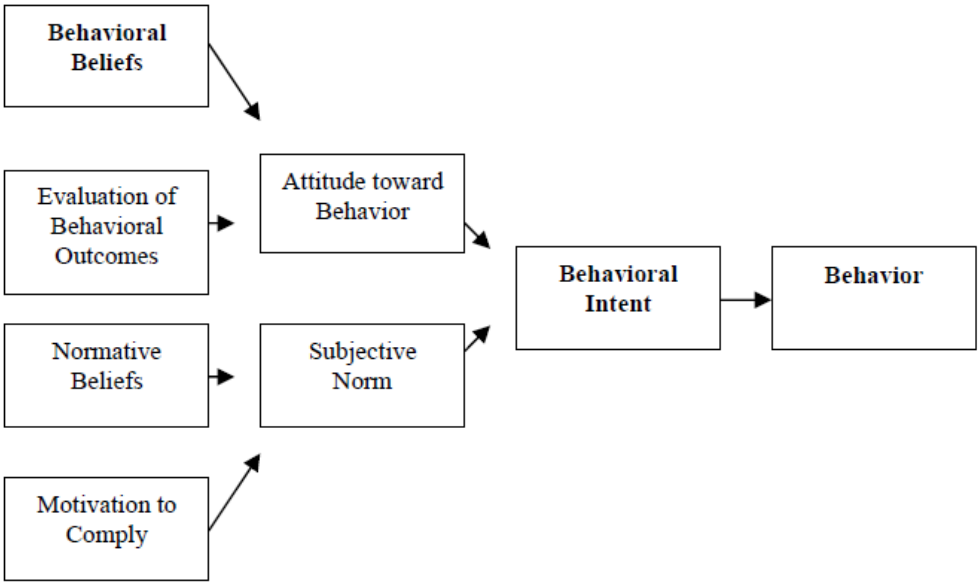
BaileyShea applied Astin's theory to the conceptual framework used in the 2009 study, through the inclusion of academic and extracurricular variables. It was hypothesized that participation or non-participation in study abroad is influenced by student involvement variables. A number of studies on study abroad participation have included variables that capture involvement in extracurricular activities (Kasvari, 2009; Miller, 2004) and academic involvement (e.g., Booker, 2001; Chieffo, 2000; Cloughly, 1991; Hamir, 2011; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993) as they relate to students' decision to participate in study abroad.

Fishbein & Ajzen's Theory of Reasoned Action

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) was developed to help explain study consumer behavior; however, it has been applied to examine various student behaviors in the field of education, such as enrolling in continuing education (Pryor, 1990),

participating in distance education courses (Becker, 1998), and gambling among college students (Thrasher, Andrew, & Mahoney, 2007). The goal of the TRA is to predict and understand an individual's behavior from behavioral intention, attitude, and the influence of subjective social norms. TRA posits that the intention of a person to behave in a particular manner is a function of two determinants, namely, the person's nature and the social influences on that person. A person's positive or negative view toward performing a particular behavior is known as their attitude. The social pressure to perform a particular behavior placed on an individual by the society of which they are a part is known as a subjective norm and defines three determinants of human behavior: intentions which are dependent on attitudes and subjective norms (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970).

Figure 3. Fishbein & Ajzen's Theory of Reasoned Action



It is interesting to note that in addition to BaileyShea (2009), a number of other studies on participation in study abroad have proposed a model or conceptual framework based on Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action (Amani, 2011; Booker,

2001; Kasravi, 2009; Peterson, 2003; Phillips, 2014). Booker (2001), the first to apply the theory to examine the differences between study abroad applicants and non-applicants, included two additional consumer theories: the generic model of consumer decision making (Engel, Blackwell, & Miniard, 1995) and the concept of buyer readiness (Kotler, 1988). Today, Booker's consumer-based approach to exploring study abroad participation among college students might be met with some controversy among academics who warn that the customer metaphor is inappropriate to describe students' relationships to universities (see Cuthbert, 2010; Svensson & Wood, 2007).

Although TRA is a consumer theory, it does help identify some variables (e.g., attitudes, beliefs and the influence of others) on a students' decision to study abroad. Peterson (2003), who conceptualized attitude toward study abroad as relating to personal factors and the subjective norm relating to social factors, chose to include TRA in her model of study abroad participation "because it lifts the perspective of the student decision process for study abroad from a simple focus on individual factors such as costs, fears, academic credit, or program/location choice issues to a broader approach that considers and integrates a variety of factors, such as attitudes toward participation in study abroad" (p. 28).

BaileyShea (2009) conducted her research using data from the Higher Education Research Institute's (HERI) 2002 Cooperative Institutional Research Program Freshman Survey (CIRP) and the 2006 College Senior Survey (2006). The use of these secondary data provided the researcher with multi-institutional data, a host of variables, and a large sample for advanced statistical methods, however, it overrepresented students who

attended private institutions by 72%, and limited the influence of certain parts of the framework due to restrictions within the data.

Research on U.S. Undergraduate Intent and Participation in Study Abroad

Although national data on study abroad and anecdotal evidence from professionals in the field have noted disparities in participation in study abroad among certain demographic groups for decades (e.g., CIEE, 1988), prior to 2000, only two studies explored factors that influence participation in study abroad (Cloughly, 1991; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993). From 2000 until present day, more research has explored factors that influence study abroad participation and decision making as it relates to participation in study abroad. Overwhelmingly, the extant research consists of doctoral dissertations. The majority of the earliest research is atheortical or exploratory—often based on anecdotal observations from those in the field (Chieffo, 2000; Cloughly, 1991; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Lozano, 2008; Shirley, 2006). The research has also been predominantly quantitative in nature. With research on this topic increasing, the trend of late is for researchers to use theory to propose or improve existing models about the study abroad decision making process (Booker, 2001; BaileyShea, 2009; Kasravi, 2009; Peterson, 2003) and pursuing qualitative (Amani, 2011) or mixed methods lines of inquiry (Loberg, 2012; Lucas, 2009; Miller, 2004; Kasravi, 2009).

This study uses BaileyShea's (2009) model (as described in the previous section) to explore participation and non-participation among students who have expressed intent to study abroad. Therefore a review of prior studies on study abroad participation will be organized around the following grouped categories of variables included in that model:

a) background characteristics;

b) beliefs and attitudes;

c) intention to study abroad;

d) institutional factors;

e) extracurricular involvement; and

f) academic involvement.

Background Characteristics

Background characteristics comprise the most widely encompassing category of variables in the model. This category includes not only demographic variables such as gender, race and socioeconomic status, but also more complex variables such as social capital, cultural capital (see Bourdieu, 1973; 1986; Coleman 1988), and human capital (see Coleman, 1988). Background characteristics, as a category, takes into account that students do not enter college as blank slates. Rather, they come to college with characteristics, ideas and beliefs that have been influenced by their family, friends and prior educational experiences. The variables explored in prior research and included in this study are discussed below.

Gender

For decades, study abroad participation among male students has remained constant at only 35% (Cloughly, 1991; IIE, 2014a). While anecdotal literature (Dessoff, 2006; Redden, 2008) has speculated on the reasons for the gender imbalance, such as more females major in the humanities and social sciences and foreign languages, which are the most common among study abroad participation, a small number of empirical studies have examined participation of male students in study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009;

Lucas, 2009; Shirley, 2006; Salisbury, et. al., 2010; Yankey, 2014). Shirley's (2006) cross-sectional study surveyed 179 male and female students from 14 universities about their study abroad experience after they returned. The survey focused on their motivations for and perceived obstacles to participation in study abroad. Of the factors analyzed, the study found only three significant reasons for differential study abroad participation among males and females. First, parents and other relatives were a greater positive influence for females than males. Second, female students cited the interference with an internship or job and cost as the biggest obstacles to study abroad. For male students, the fear that studying abroad would delay graduation prevented them from participating.

Two studies analyzed multi-institutional data from a secondary survey (BaileyShea, 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010). BaileyShea (2009) used national CIRP data to carry out statistical analysis on multiple models of study abroad participation, including a gender model. For male students, she found that the five strongest predictors of study abroad participation were majoring in the arts & humanities, enrollment in a private school, participation in student government, undergraduate GPA, and the distance a student's home was from their college. Salisbury, et al., (2010), analyzed a sample of incoming first year students through the Wabash National Study of Liberal Arts Education survey, and found that intent to study abroad among women was influenced most by authority figures and courses that focused on diversity and difference (e.g., race, class, gender, religion), whereas intent to study abroad for men was affected most by emerging personal values, integrated learning experiences, and peer influences.

Lucas's (2009) use of mixed methods inquiry permitted a rich analysis. His study found that male students were motivated to study abroad for fun, cultural learning, resume building, and major and career benefits. Lucas posited that the findings suggest that adherence to traditional notions of masculinity play a role in male students' decision making processes regarding study abroad. The idea that a male should further his career and achieve success was expressed by the majority of male students in Lucas's study.

Building on the Lucas (2009) and Salisbury, et. al (2010) findings, recent qualitative research on the gender gap in study abroad participation has focused on male college students' perceptions of study abroad programs (Thirolf, 2014), and the experiences of men who study abroad as related to their gender identity (Yankey, 2014). These qualitative studies found entrenched gender beliefs, such as men needing to be the "bread-winner" (Thirolf, 2014) and men expressing competitiveness through sports, academics and careers to define their success (Yankey, 2014).

The different approaches to studying the differential participation of males in study abroad has identified a variety of variables, including interaction with peers, faculty, major, and extracurricular involvement that need to be studied further. In addition, the research reveals areas that could be explored. For example, professionals in the field of study abroad are disproportionately women. One need only peruse a college or university's website to see that women comprise most of the study abroad advising staff. This should not be surprising, since it is the case that those who have studied abroad are often the most enthusiastic about it and pursue careers in the field. Therefore, it would be sensible to explore if male and female respond to the study abroad offices and study

abroad providers predominately staffed by women in similar ways, or if the gender of the staff impacts participation decisions.

Race

Within the literature on factors influencing the decision to study abroad or intent to participate in study abroad, a few empirical studies have specifically explored race (BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2001; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Kasravi, 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2011) because non-White students study abroad at a much lower rate than their White counterparts (IIE, 2011).

Hembroff & Rusz (1993) were the first to explore factors influencing study abroad participation among minority students. They examined factors associated with minority student participation through analysis of self-administered surveys of over 1,100 undergraduates at Michigan State University (Hembroff & Rusz, 1993). They found that for both minority and White students, those who had been abroad previously for any number of reasons tended to have a greater interest in international relations, greater understating of the potential impact of global events on the US economy and more positive attitudes toward the study of foreign languages.

Another study, conducted by Kasravi (2009), used a combination of survey data, focus groups, and individual interviews involving University of California San Diego students to explore why students accepted to a study abroad program had decided to apply. The author's choice to research only those students accepted to study abroad programs imposed a bias on the study (i.e., why did the *good* students apply?). Nevertheless, the study found that a variety of personal, social and institutional factors contributed toward students' attitudes toward study abroad and ultimately influencing

their decision. Of the three sets of factors examined, personal factors (e.g., wanting to learn about another culture or become more independent) were the most influential. Kasravi (2009) found cost was a prohibitive factor for both minority and White students, a finding similar to that of Salisbury, Paulsen and Pascarella (2011) and Hembroff and Rusz (1993). Kasravi also found the influence of others on students' decisions to study abroad was a significant factor. This finding is consistent with similar findings from Peterson (2003), who found that peers, significant others and past participations were most influential, and Booker (2001), who found that faculty and advisers were the most influential. Kasravi's (2009) study examined differences among minority groups and found that Asian American students cited peers as a primary influence whereas Latinos/Hispanic American students named teachers as most influential in their decisions.

Cultural Capital and Social Capital

Increasingly, educational research has studied the influence of cultural capital and social capital on topics such as access to and success in higher education (e.g. Cabrera and La Nasa, 2001; Horvat, 2001; McDonough, 1997), retention (e.g., Tierney, 1999) and college choice (Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak & Terenzini, 2004; Perna, 2000). Cultural capital refers to non-financial social assets that promote social mobility beyond economic means (e.g., education, intellectual ability, dress) (Bourdieu, 1986). Social capital refers to the collective value of social networks (e.g., who people know) and the inclinations that arise from these networks to do things for each other (Bourdieu, 1986). Study abroad is an educational opportunity with differential participation by certain populations (IIE, 2008), so equity and access are of particular concern in the field. One study focused specifically on cultural capital variables related to participation in study abroad (Miller,

2004) and a few studies compared the study abroad choice process to college choice models that rely heavily on concepts of social and cultural capital (Amani, 2011; Kasravi, 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Salisbury, et al., 2011).

The details and intricacies of Bourdieu's complex concept of cultural capital (see Swartz, 1998) are beyond the scope of this review, but the main idea of Bourdieu's concept of cultural capital is relational and exists with other forms of capital including economic, symbolic and social capital. Together, these constitute advantage and disadvantage in society (Bourdieu, 1984). It relates to study abroad participation because the various forms of capital, whether economic or social could directly impact students' participation in study abroad. However, it should be noted that some have criticized educational researchers for reducing Bourdieu's ideas to individual concepts (e.g., Horvat, 2001) and cited problems associated with measuring different forms of capital with quantitative methods (e.g., Melguizo, 2011, Smart, 2005).

> All too often his (Bourdieu's) theory is used to justify the inclusion of customary components of socioeconomic status in studies (e.g., family income, parental educational levels, etc.). Surely, Bourdieu's theory is more intellectually rich in terms of the depth of meaning of economic, cultural, and symbolic capital, the interrelationships among these components of his theory, and their individual and collective influences on students' social mobility and learning. (Smart, 2005, p. 265).

With this point in mind, the current study does not explicitly explore the concepts such as cultural capital and social capital as described by Bourdieu. Rather, a number of background characteristic variables analyzed through quantitative data and supported by

qualitative data, can help explain how expectations, obligations, and social networks that exist within a student's family and university impact students' decisions to study abroad.

Socio-economic Status/Financial Concerns

Given the global economic recession of 2008 that devastated the U.S. economy for years and the fact that college tuition tends to increase about 8% per year, thereby doubling the cost of college every nine years (Kantrowitz, 2011), it should be expected that students' concern about the costs of study abroad as a barrier to participation has received the most attention from governments and institutions wishing to expand study abroad. Government scholarship programs, such as the Gilman awards, and many scholarships awarded locally by institutions, can fill in some of this support gap to provide funding to be used toward study abroad for high-need students.

The majority of prior research on study abroad participation has explored the relationship of cost or concern about finances and study abroad and most have found cost is a significant deterrent to not only study abroad participation (Booker, 2001; Chieffo, 2000; Cloughly, 1991; Cole, 1991; Desoff, 2006; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Kasravi, 2009; Miller, 2004; Peterson, 2003; Shirley, 2006) but also even the *intent* to study abroad (Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Salisbury, et al., 2011; Stroud, 2010). One study, however, did not find socioeconomic status, or SES (usually measured by determining education, income, occupation, or a composite of these dimensions) significant in any of the five models analyzed (BaileyShea, 2009). BaileyShea (2009) hypothesized that students' distance from home, which was significant across models, served as a proxy for SES as well as aspects of cultural and social capital. The methodological choice to have distance from home serve as a proxy for SES, cultural and

social capital is questionable due to the complexity of these concepts. Such a decision illustrates the constraints and limitations associated with using existing data collected from national surveys. It is also likely that because BaileyShea's data over-represented students at private college and universities, the results were skewed. Only 16% of U.S. students attend private colleges and universities (NCES, 2014) and private colleges usually have more selective admissions criteria and greater institutional resources than public institutions.

Prior Travel

Students' prior travel experiences, particularly those outside of the U.S., could be useful in predicting participation in study abroad activities. A few studies have found that students with prior international experience are more likely to study abroad than students without prior international experience (Booker, 2001; Cloughly, 1991; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Miller, 2004). Conversely, Goldstien and Kim (2006) did not find students' previous international travel experience a significant factor to their participation in study abroad programs. Prior travel taps into aspects of and income, SES, and social and cultural capital, in that travel either alone or with their families may be considered experiences through which the aspiring new middle class may acquire social and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1984). Prior travel is a form of cultural capital. Therefore, it is a variable worth examining further.

Interest in Foreign Languages

Foreign language learning and proficiency is perhaps one of the most logical expected and demonstrated outcomes (Carlson, et al., 1990; Freed, 1995; Milleret, 1990) of participation in study abroad for students studying in non-Anglophone countries.

Therefore, one would expect that an interest in learning foreign languages would be a significant factor in students' decisions to consider or participate in study abroad. The extant literature indicates that students who study abroad express more interest in learning foreign languages (Andriano, 2010; Goldstein & Kim, 2006), though Booker (2001) did not find perceived possibility of gaining foreign language proficiency as a significant factor to students' decisions to participate. Studies investigating intent to participate in study abroad have included students' majors and have not found that students who major in the arts and humanities (which include foreign languages) are more likely than non-arts and humanities majors to participate in study abroad (Salisbury, et al., 2009; Stroud, 2010). Other studies have found that a dislike of or anxiety about foreign languages is a factor that inhibits students from considering study abroad (Cloughly, 1991; Hembroff & Rusz).

Influence/Support of Family and Peers

Previous studies on factors influencing study abroad intent and participation have found that parents and peers have influenced students' decisions to participate in study abroad (Booker, 2001; Chieffo, 2000; King & Young, 1994; Loberg, 2012; Lozano, 2008; Peterson, 2003; Shirley, 2006). The studies reveal the following: students who are encouraged by their family and friends are more likely to participate in study abroad (Booker, 2001); exposure to study abroad programs either personally or by immediate family members positively influences students' decisions to study abroad (Miller, 2004); and the decision to participate in study abroad is greatly affected by parents (Chieffo, 2000, Shirley, 2006).

A few studies have employed socio-cultural theory to inform their research (BaileyShea, 2009; Kasravi, 2009; Miller, 2004; Salisbury, et. al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Salisbury, et al., 2011). Miller (2004), who researched undergraduate participation in not only study abroad programs, but also experiential education programs (e.g., internships and research), was the first to explore students' decisions about participation in study abroad through Bourdieu's (1986) concept of cultural capital. Miller (2004) administered a survey about interest and participation in internship, study abroad and undergraduate research to a random sample of junior and senior students from three University of California campuses. For additional qualitative information, she also interviewed fourteen student volunteers who had completed the survey. Her findings suggest that exposure to study abroad programs either personally or through immediate family members did factor into students' decisions to study abroad (Miller, 2004).

Most recently, Salisbury and colleagues from the University of Iowa conducted a series of studies on student intent to participate in study abroad (Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Salisbury et al., 2011). Both these studies and a dissertation on minority participation in study abroad (Kasravi, 2009) conceptualized the study abroad choice process as similar to the college choice process and drew on social capital theory. Salisbury and colleagues used Perna's integrated model of college choice (2006) and found that financial, human, social and cultural capital gained before college all influence students' predisposition to study abroad. Kasravi applied both the college choice process for Asian American students developed by Teranishi, Ceja, Antonio, Allen and McDonough (2004) and Perna's (2006) econometric model to explore the process of deciding to attend college for African American, Latino/Hispanic American and

Caucasian students. Kasravi (2009) found that the most important social influences affecting a student's decision to study abroad were peers, significant others and participants they knew who studied abroad.

Although the study abroad decision-making model proposed by BaileyShea (2009) is not based on college choice models as the aforementioned studies are, she does compare her findings to findings in college choice literature. Citing McDonough (1997), she notes that her findings substantiate the claims of researchers on college choice that students face unequal choices when they begin college with different family and institutional resources that shape their educational opportunities.

Beliefs & Attitudes

Research has also explored students' positive and negative beliefs and attitudes about study abroad as influencing or inhibiting their participation in study abroad. The inclusion of beliefs and attitudes is at least in part due to the fact that attitude is an important determinant of behavior in Fishbein and Ajzen's (1975) theory of reasoned action, which has been incorporated into several theory-based studies (Amani, 2011; BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2011; Kasravi, 2009; Peterson, 2003; Phillips, 2014). Amani's (2011) doctoral dissertation explored the study abroad decision process and participation at community colleges. The qualitative study of personal interviews with 24 students and 6 study abroad coordinators from three community colleges in Maryland found that students viewed study abroad as an opportunity of a lifetime, and a way to strengthen their transfer applications.

Among the most important information students need in deciding to study abroad are the benefits and rewards (Peterson, 2003, Lozano, 2008). Lucas (2008) found that

male students perceived study abroad as fun and a way to incorporate cultural learning into their education. A few studies found that students viewed study abroad as resume or career building (Booker, 2001; Lucas, 2008; Yankey, 2014). However, Goldstein and Kim (2006) found that an expectation about how study abroad would be viewed by future employers was a not significant variable.

Beliefs and attitudes about study abroad have also been found to inhibit study abroad participation. For example, Hembroff and Rusz (1993) found that minority students expressed a fear to travel to unknown areas and a fear of discrimination. Likewise, Booker (2001) found students who did not participate in study abroad expressed a fear of being lonely, alienated or unsafe. Others have found that some students fear participation in study abroad would delay graduation (Booker, 2001; Kasravi, 2009, Shirley, 2006).

Intention to Study Abroad

Because, according to the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), the best predictor of behavior is intention, studies have considered intent to study abroad as a factor in participation (Booker, 2001; BaileyShea, 2009; Luo & Jamieson-Drake; 2014; Peterson, 2003; Phillips, 2014). Recently, studies have explored factors that influence student intent to study abroad (Rust, Dhanatya, Furuto & Kheiltash, 2007; Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Salisbury, et al., 2011; Stroud, 2010). The research has largely utilized existing secondary data from large, multi-institutional surveys that include a question about a student's perceived likelihood of participating in study abroad. Use of secondary data sources in this way is a start, but it clearly limits the depth and type of analysis possible.

Rust, Dhanatya, Furuto and Kheiltash (2007) applied student involvement theory to their analysis of 2003 CIRP freshman survey data to investigate whether freshmen who intend to study abroad had a history of active involvement in areas related to academic, social, political, diversity, work and community. Of the six scales they created, all but the work scale had high predictive values. The generalizability of this study is limited, however, because the data analyzed were based on high-school senior year involvement, which could be very different from a students' actual participation in college.

Stroud (2009) and Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2014) also utilized CIRP freshman survey data. Using CIRP data from a large, public northeastern university, Stroud (2009) found that being female, attending school more than 100 miles from home, and expressing interest in improving one's understanding of other cultures and countries positively influence students' intent to study abroad. Planning to pursue a master's degree or higher, living with family while attending school, and majoring in engineering and professional areas such as architecture and medicine inhibited student's intent to study abroad. Luo and Drake (2014) used data from three entering cohorts at a medium-sized, private, highly selective research university. Their findings were similar to Stroud's, except that they found that aspiring to earn an advanced degree also positively influenced study abroad intent.

Institutional Factors

Institutional factors—the on-campus environment, inside or outside the classroom—have been considered in research on student persistence (Titus, 2004; Oseguera & Rhee, 2009) and educational outcomes (Pike, Kuh, & Gonyea, 2003). These variables have also been explored in relation to student participation in study abroad with

dissimilar results. Faculty support, specifically faculty encouraging their students to study abroad, was identified to be a significant factor in a students' decision to participate in study abroad (Booker, 2001; Loberg, 2012; Peterson, 2003). However, Chieffo (2000) found faculty to only be minimally influential, and Andriano (2010), in a study of first-generation students, found no relationship between faculty support or perceived institutional support and study abroad participation. BaileyShea (2009) also found perceived faculty support as non-significant in her male and minority student models, although perplexingly, faculty support was significant in the negative direction in the full, male, and White models. That is, the greater the perceived faculty support, the less likely students were to study abroad. BaileyShea's (2009) results could stem from a measurement problem associated with the use of secondary data that may not been an accurate proxy for faculty support; these inconsistent findings warrant further exploration.

Corroborating national data that private institutions send higher proportations of their students to study abroad than do publics (IIE, 2010), a number of studies have found that institutional type impacts student participation in study abroad. Students at private colleges and universities are more likely to intend to and actually participate in study abroad than students at public institutions (Andriano, 2010; BaileyShea, 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2009). Some studies have also considered the closely-related factor of institution graduation rate (BaileyShea, 2009; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993). Graduation rate likely reflects institutions' student selectivity (e.g., SAT scores, high school GPA, and class rank used to admit students) and the availability of institutional resources that support students (e.g. endowment, faculty/student ratio). Therefore, it is not surprising that

private colleges, which generally tend to have more selective admissions criteria and greater institutional resources (The Carnegie Foundation, 2014), have more students who express intent to and subsequently participate in study abroad than public institutions.

Kasravi (2009) also explored institutional environment and how it impacts the decision to study abroad for students of color, including such factors as types of study abroad opportunities, requirements for study abroad, advising resources and support, availability of programs to heritage seeking destinations, and recruitment and marketing strategies used for study abroad. Kasravi's conceptualization of the institutional environment is far more focused on campus study abroad offices' than on the campus at large, finding that students' decisions were influenced by effective marketing and outreach, study abroad prompted in the campus culture and the variety of study abroad program offerings. A few other studies have touched upon study abroad support services (Booker, 2001, Cloughly, 1991), but the exploration of how the study abroad advising and application process affects students' participation is one area that also may need to be explored further.

Extracurricular Involvement

Research on students' participation in extracurricular activities in relation to their decisions to participate in a study abroad program has explored a variety of extracurricular activities and yielded somewhat ambiguous findings. Miller's (2004) data suggested that being active in extracurricular activities does not discourage participation in study abroad. Similarly, Booker (2001) found that having to give up a job, sport or other activity did not impact a student's decision to study abroad. Kasravi's (2009) one-

on-one interviews revealed that students faced obstacles with work and extracurricular obligations, but were able to overcome them.

However, a couple of studies have found that extracurricular involvement negatively impacted participation in study abroad. Work negatively affected students' of color decisions regarding study abroad (Hembroff & Rusz). Females in Shirley's (2006) study believed that participation in study abroad would interfere with a job or internship.

Because of small sample sizes in the above studies, it is difficult to draw conclusions from those studies that are directly applicable to the general study abroad population. However, there are two studies that utilized CIRP data, and involved much larger samples. Rust, Dhanatya, Furuto, and Kheiltash (2007) found a correlation between involvement and likelihood of studying abroad for five of their six involvement scales, and BaileyShea (2009) found that membership in a fraternity or sorority, participation in student government and participation in leadership training were positive predictors in students' participation in study abroad. Similarly, Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2014) found the expectation to join a social fraternity or sorority positively influenced study abroad intent.

Academic Involvement

Because study abroad is an educational undertaking for which students receive credit towards the fulfillment of their degree program, variables related to students' academic involvement, including GPA, academic major, double majoring, general education requirements and educational goals are important to consider when examining students' participation or intent to study abroad. A GPA of 2.5 or higher is generally required by most home institutions, exchange partners and third party providers.

Therefore, a student's GPA directly impacts the student's eligibility for study abroad. Although a couple of studies have found that students' GPA was among the strongest predictors of study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2001), others have found GPA was not significant to students' participation in study abroad (Kasravi, 2009; Miller, 2004).

GPA was a prominent variable in a study by Hamir (2011), which compared study abroad participants', applicants', and non-participants' degree completion rates and time-to-degree for a cohort of over 7,500 first-time-in college freshman at the University of Texas at Austin. She found that study abroad participants graduated at higher rates than applicants or non-participants and that time to degree was slightly shorter for participants. Faculty-led programs and short-term programs were the most common in terms of program type and length at that institution and it is likely that study abroad participants were able to graduate more quickly than non-participants because their time abroad occurred during a summer or winter term—not during a typical semester. Perhaps the most unexpected, and intriguing, result of this research was the greater effect of study abroad participation on predicted probability of degree completion for students with lower GPAs at the conclusion of their freshmen year versus higher GPA students. Because the effect occurred independent of any interaction, Hamir suggests that study abroad participation might help increase degree completion rates for students who are likely to drop out of college.

The extant research on study abroad intent and participation has revealed several additional academic variables that inhibit students' consideration of or participation in study abroad. A double major was found to be significant in negatively impacting

students' decision to study abroad (Booker, 2001). It is suggested that the number of requirements double majors need to fulfill make it difficult for students to fit in study abroad and stay on track for graduation. Students revealed in interviews with Miller (2004) that they changed their major in order to be able to participate in study abroad.

Students' educational attainment goals have been included in some studies. For public research university students, planning to pursue a master's degree or higher negatively affected students' intent to study abroad (Stroud, 2010), though another study found contradictory results (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2014). Lozano (2008) also explored educational goals in his study of private university students, but it was not a significant factor.

A potential factor that has not been included in prior study abroad is students' participation in an honors program or college at their university. More American universities are including an honors program among their offerings requiring a certain percentage of students' coursework to be from the honors curricula and culminating with an honors thesis or honors capstone project (NCHC, 2015). This emerging institutional structure may well be an important consideration for study.

Conclusion

A growing body of research on outcomes associated with study abroad participation has revealed a number of positive outcomes including language acquisition, self-efficacy, and world-mindedness. Some of these desirable outcomes have generated the wave of interest in expanding study abroad participation by federal and state governments, non-profits and institutions of higher education. However, research on who participates in study abroad and why has not kept pace with mandates to expand

participation. The findings of the research are often contradictory. Additionally, the research has largely been either atheoretical or has employed the Theory of Reasoned Action (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975), a consumer theory, or more recently, Perna's (2000) integrated model of student choice. In 2009, BaileyShea proposed a Decision to Study Abroad Framework, which includes not only the TRA, but also Astin's (1993) I-E-O and Astin's (1984, 1999) student involvement theory. The framework is organized into six categories of factors that impact participation in study abroad. The model combines the student decision making process with students' experiences prior to college and academic, extracurricular and institutional influences while at college. The study allows for more specificity by narrowing the scope to only those students who formally expressed intent to study abroad. The study is also an opportunity to explore the theories and model included in the framework by its use of quantitative and qualitative methods. Additionally, by focusing on the University of Massachusetts Amherst, a public research institution in the Northeast, this research will provide valuable information about how the myriad of factors, including the university or institutional environment in a geographic location neglected in prior studies, influence students decisions to study abroad or not.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Introduction

This chapter describes the mixed methods approach used to respond to the research questions. First, it discusses the research questions and overall research design. Second, it details the dependent variable and independent variables included in the binary logistic regression model that explored participation or non-participation in study abroad among students who expressed intent to study abroad. It also provides information about inter-item correlations. Third, it discusses the methods used in the two focus group interview sessions aimed at exploring why students who have expressed interest in study abroad do not. It describes the methods used in the focus group interviews, including the sites, recruitment efforts, and participant characteristics. Details about the administration of the focus groups and the focus group protocol are provided, including the coding process. Results and a discussion of the findings will follow in Chapters 4 and 5.

As discussed in Chapter 2, the theoretical concepts that informed the variable selection for the regression analysis and the prompts for the focus group discussions are based on a model proposed by BaileyShea (2009) and include Astin's Input-Environment-Output model and theory of student involvement and Fishbein & Ajzen's Theory of Reasoned Action.

Design and Research Questions

The purpose of this research is to answer the research questions outlined in Chapter 1 and repeated here.

1. Among students who have expressed formal intent to study abroad, who is more likely to study abroad and who is less likely?
2. Why do students who intend to study abroad decide not to?

The research questions were answered by examining a number of factors in the model proposed by BaileyShea (2009). These factors include individual *background characteristics* (e.g., gender, race, admit status, proximity from the university to home, residency, financial need, previous travel, interest/influence/support of family and peers), *beliefs and attitudes* (e.g., perceived chance of actually studying abroad, perceived obstacles to study abroad, goals for study abroad), *institutional factors* (e.g., faculty support, perceived faculty support, awareness of study abroad opportunities), *extra-curricular involvement* (e.g., participation in extracurricular activities, membership in a social fraternity or sorority, participation in a sport), and *academic involvement* (e.g., academic major, participation in honors program, studying college-level language, GPA). This study focuses on students who have expressed formal intent to study abroad by completing a survey (called the "study abroad profile") via their study abroad accounts through the study abroad website at the University. The approach differs from those of previous studies which have either examined a sample of an entire undergraduate population (e.g., Chieffo, 2000; Lozano, 2008; Peterson, 2003; Salisbury, et. al., 2009) or who collected data from a convenience sample of students who have expressed intent to study abroad (e.g., Booker, 2001). Because the expansion of study abroad participation is a goal for the federal and many state governments and institutions of higher education, it is important to learn more about students who intend to study abroad but do not, because

it should be easiest to expand study abroad participation among this already interested population.

To answer the research questions, this study employs a mixed methods design, which allows for the collection, analysis, and integration of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study for the purpose of gaining a thorough understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2005; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2003). The justification for including both kinds of data in this study is predicated on the belief that neither quantitative nor qualitative methods alone are sufficient to capture comprehensive information about the problem. When used together, quantitative and qualitative methods complement each other and allow for a more robust analysis, taking advantage of the strengths of each (Green, Caracelli, and Graham 1989; Miles and Huberman 1994; Tashakkori and Teddlie 1998). Specifically, this study utilizes Convergent Parallel Design, which allows for the simultaneous collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data and then merges the results of each into the overall analysis (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Because convergent design involves collecting, analyzing, and integrating both quantitative and qualitative data and results, some researches may find the philosophical assumptions behind the research problematic. Quantitative purists (e.g., Maxwell & Delaney, 2004) subscribing to a positivist philosophy, believe that social science inquiry should be objective. On the other hand, qualitative purists (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1989), Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Schwandt, 2000), or constructivists, contend that context-free generalizations are impossible and not desirable. Some have posited that quantitative and qualitative research paradigms are incompatible (Howe, 1988) and that “accommodation

between paradigms is impossible" (Guba, 1990, p, 81). However, quantitative and qualitative research can be combined under pragmatic philosophy. Pragmatism, rather than focusing on methods, emphasizes the research problem and all the approaches available to understand the problem (Creswell, 2005). As such, pragmatism is the "umbrella" paradigm (Creswell, 2011) applied to this research.

Quantitative data and qualitative data were collected concurrently but separately; one did not depend on the results of the other. Second, the two data sets were analyzed separately and independently from each other using appropriate quantitative (binary logistic regression analysis) and qualitative (focus groups) techniques associated with each data type. When the initial results were completed, the separate results were compared and interpreted to identify to what extent and in what ways the two sets of results converged, diverged from each other or combined to answer the study's two main research questions.

Data Source

The data for the quantitative and qualitative portions of this study were obtained from undergraduates attending the University of Massachusetts Amherst, a public, research university in the northeastern United States. The Carnegie classification characterizes the University of Massachusetts Amherst as a public, not for profit, research university with an arts and sciences plus professions focus and high graduate coexistence. The University is highly residential and has comprehensive graduate programs. The undergraduate enrollment is characterized as "full-time four-year, more selective, higher transfer-in" which means that at least 80% of undergraduates enroll full-time; first-year students' test scores place this institution in the top fifth of baccalaureate institutions; and

at least 20% of entering undergraduates are transfer students (The Carnegie Foundation, 2014). During fall 2009 (the time most of the students included in this study entered the University), the mean SAT scores of entering first-year students were 594 for mathematics and 575 for verbal, for a combined mean SAT score of 1169. The mean high school GPA for entering first-year students in fall 2009 was 3.60. In-state students comprised 80.8% of all undergraduate students enrolled at this institution. The annual tuition and mandatory fees totaled $11,018 (excluding fees for housing and meals) for in-state students and $23,229 for out-of-state students. The average need-based financial aid packages were $10,924 for in-state students and $8,331 of out-of-state students (Office of Institutional Research, n.d.).

In the fall of 2010, there were a total of 2,871 students in Commonwealth Honors College, the University's honors program (CHC, 2015), comprising 15% of the total undergraduate population. Like many other large universities that now host an honors college, Commonwealth Honors College offers students a curriculum that constitutes at least 20% of a student's degree program, and an honors thesis or honors capstone project (NCHC, 2015).

The Education Abroad Office at the University of Massachusetts Amherst currently sends approximately 1,200 abroad annually on credit bearing study abroad programs, which accounts for 5.8% of the total undergraduate population (Office of Institutional Research, n.d.). Eighteen of the 1194 students who studied abroad in the 2013/2014 academic year participated in two programs and 1 student participated in 3 programs bringing the total unique program participation by student to 1213. The vast majority (68.3%) studied abroad in Europe. This percentage is notably higher than the

national average of 53.3% (IIE, 2014a). Spain was the most popular destination, followed by the U.K., Italy, Australia and Ireland. Eight of the top 15 destinations, including Australia, Japan, South Africa, China and Brazil, were outside of Europe, however, they only accounted for 26% of the total participants in the top 15 countries.

Until the 2013/2014 academic year, students with majors in the social sciences accounted for the majority of students studying abroad at the university; however, business/management majors edged out participation by social science majors 25.8% v. 24.1%. STEM majors represented only 12.3% of study abroad participants. University students choose long-term study abroad programs (semester, academic year and calendar year) over short-term programs with considerably greater frequency, with students participating in long-term programs accounting for nearly 65% of the total enrollment, exceeding the national average of 38.2%. (IIE, 2014a). Aligning with national data, women at the University constitute a majority (65.2%) of participants (despite the fact that men comprise 52% of the student population). With 75% of study abroad students identifying as White, the University mirrors national study abroad participation. Fifteen percent of University students who studied abroad did not disclose their race and only 11% identified as Hispanic/Latino, Black or African American, Asian/Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Island or American Indian or Alaska native. See table 3.1 for university characteristics.

The Education Abroad Office offers a variety of program options including exchanges (reciprocal movement of students between the university and institutions abroad), provider programs (institutions or organizations that offer study abroad program services to students from a variety of institutions), and faculty- led programs (designed

and directed by a faculty member from the university who accompanies students abroad). A slight majority (51.3%) opts for exchange or faculty-led programs over provider programs, which is one quarter less than national statistics. Participation totaled 332 students for the 16 short-term faculty-led programs led in 2012/2013.

The University had 96 students apply for the federal government's Gilman scholarships with 27 awards. It should also be noted that after the data collection and analysis for this study occurred, the international office participated in the ACE Internationalization Lab. The two year process concludes in spring 2015. Furthermore, in spring 2014, the university committed itself to the Generation Study Abroad Initiative, pledging to double the number of students who study abroad by the end of the decade.

At the University of Massachusetts Amherst, students are able to use many types of aid to study abroad, including grants, loans and scholarships. If students want to participate in a program that will cost more than their expenses at the university, they can apply for scholarships offered by the study abroad program, the study abroad office, their college/school or outside scholarships. They can also take out additional loans.

The Education Abroad Office is part of a larger International Programs Office which serves both international students and scholars (e.g., students from abroad) and domestic students (e.g., students going abroad). The director of the Education Abroad Office supervises 5 full-time study abroad advisors, 1 advisor for faculty-led study abroad programs, a risk-management coordinator, and 3 part-time graduate student advisors. The director also supervises the coordinator of the study abroad advising center, which is staffed by 8-10 returned study abroad students who provide basic advising to

students before they meet with a professional advisor. The returned study abroad students also do outreach in residence halls and classrooms on campus.

To track study abroad interest and applications, the University of Massachusetts Amherst Education Abroad Office utilizes a study abroad management software package --TerraDotta--which integrates the office's website with the campus login and student information systems. Interested students use the study abroad website to find general information and search through hundreds of University-approved study abroad programs by selecting any combination of criteria such as location, language of instruction, or field of study. Students considering studying abroad create an account using the secure login system and before they may schedule an advising appointment with one of the study abroad staff or select a program, they are prompted (via information in their study abroad accounts and by peer advisors, who are returned study abroad students working in the study abroad office's advising center) to complete a brief study abroad survey called the "Study Abroad Profile." The integrated data from the University's information systems and the study abroad survey provide the data for this qualitative portion of this study (see appendix A for the Study Abroad Profile survey). Focus groups were comprised of students who had completed their study abroad profile during the 2009/2010 academic year, but who had not yet studied abroad through a formal university program and were within one month of graduation.

Binary Logistic Regression Analysis

Data obtained from the study abroad accounts created by students at the University of Massachusetts Amherst has been used for both the dependent and independent variables included in the quantitative portion of this research.

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable for this study is the dichotomous representation of whether or not students who had expressed formal intent to study abroad through the completion of the "Study Abroad Profile" in their on-line study abroad account during the 2009/2010 academic year, actually participated in study abroad before graduating from the University of Massachusetts Amherst. There were 2,728 students who created accounts during the 2009-2010 academic year, and approximately three-quarters completed the Study Abroad Profile (see Tables 3.2 and 3.3) and therefore were eligible for inclusion in the study. It should also be noted that 201 students included in the original sample of 2,728 were slated to graduate in May 2013--just two months after the data collection finished and initial analysis took place. It is assumed that most, if not all, of these students graduated in May 2013 because students who would have wished to extend their graduation date would have to have done so by the time the data collection and analysis occurred. This left 1,969 students in the study sample.

The choice to use students' completed Study Abroad Profile as the criterion of students' formal intent to study abroad in this study is justified for several reasons. First, and most importantly, students who completed the profile (n=1,969) followed the prescribed University steps to prepare for study abroad. These students presumably were serious enough about studying abroad to take the university's required actions to do so. A second reason is that the data necessary to conduct this study were available only for student who completed the Study Abroad Profile. Although database demographics, such as race, gender and major, are available from the university's student information system for students who created study abroad accounts but failed to complete a Study Abroad

Profile, critical data required for this study, such as participation in extracurricular activities or perceived obstacles to study abroad, would have likewise been missing.

Independent Variables

The logistic regression equation includes a number of explanatory variables rooted in the literature on study abroad intent and participation. Table 3.4 describes each of the independent variables included in the model. The independent or predictor variables were chosen based on theoretical concepts in BaileyShea's (2009) decision to study abroad framework as well as findings in previous research. The independent variables are comprised of data points taken from students' completed Study Abroad Profiles (e.g., financial need, prior travel abroad, interest in study abroad, chance studying abroad, college level foreign language, number of activities, varsity sport, Greek life, obstacle to study abroad) and data in the students' study abroad accounts (e.g., gender, race, admit type, proximity of university home, resident status, major, cumulative GPA, honors college membership). The information obtained from the Study Abroad Profile is static and reflects the students' situation at the time of completion of the survey (i.e., the time that the students expressed formal intent to study abroad). The institutional data is updated automatically with the University's student information systems on a daily basis and was captured for this study in March 2013. The next section describes each of the independent variables, grouped by category.

Background Characteristics

The first and largest set of variables includes demographic characteristics that have been utilized in prior research on study abroad participation (gender, race, proximity of university to home, and financial need) and variables that have not yet been included

in prior research (admitted to university as freshman/transfer, residency status (i.e., in-state, out-of-state, prior travel outside the U.S., the source of student interest in study abroad, having had friends or relatives live abroad).

Gender

Data for the gender variable was extracted from the university information system as either male or female (reference category).

Race

Although the University of Massachusetts Amherst collects race information for American Indian/Alaska, Native, Asian, Black/African American, Hawaiian/Pacific Islander, Hispanic/Latino, White, and more recently Two or More Races, student race was collapsed into three categories for the purpose of this study: White (reference category), Non-White and Did Not Report. The data influenced this decision (e.g., too few cases in any individual racial or non-White ethnic category—see Table 3.2). It is important to note that future research should aim to disaggregate the Non-White category, if the number of cases should allow, because important differences might exist among racial/ethnic groups.

Admit Type

The admit type variable, taken from the university student information system, indicates whether a student was admitted to the university as a freshman (reference category) or a transfer student.

Residency

Residency information obtained through the University information system reflects whether the student is considered by the University to be an in-state student or out-of-state student.

Proximity of University to Home

Proximity of university to home is the students' self-reported distance of the university from their permanent home—coded either over 100 miles or 100 miles or less (reference category).

Financial Need

Student financial information, though available in the University's student information system, is not available as a direct feed into the study abroad office's TerraDotta software. Therefore, in this study, it is necessary to rely on the students' self-reported data bout the types of financial aid they receive. Students who are categorized as having low-need indicated not receiving any financial aid (reference category). Students categorized as having need, indicated that they received financial aid but not a Federal Pell Grant. Students categorized as High-Need reported having received a Pell Grant. For this study, the high need category includes only students who reported receiving a Federal Pell Grant because the Pell is a need-based grant for low-income undergraduates awarded based on students' Free Application for Federal Student Aid (FAFSA). The Pell Grant is also the chief eligibility requirement for students to apply for the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs' Benjamin A. Gilman International Scholarship, which provides undergraduate students of limited financial means scholarships for study abroad.

Prior Travel Abroad

Prior travel abroad is a dichotomous representation of whether students self-reported having traveled outside of their home country three or more times. Students who indicated that they had never before traveled abroad or had traveled abroad only one or two times were grouped together as the reference category. Response categories for prior travel abroad in the Study Abroad Profile were more specific (e.g., never, 1-2 times, 3-4 times, 5 or more), however, when examining inter-item correlations, some of the prior travel abroad independent variables were highly inter-correlated and the decision was made to collapse and recode from four to two variables, thereby increasing the cell counts to facilitate interpretation of results.

Interest in Study Abroad

Interest in study abroad is a categorical variable indicating the self-reported source of students' interest in studying abroad. Students were asked to choose the most important reason from a list of reasons provided to them. Students who indicated that friends were the reason for their interest in study abroad were the reference category. The other categories included in the model are family, faculty and outreach. The outreach category was created using responses from a number of low-response categories including, announcements in class, study abroad information sessions, study abroad website, campus tour, learning commons, New Students Program, admissions open house, and academic department open house. Outreach, as a category, represents efforts taken by the study abroad office, academic departments or other university departments to promote study abroad opportunities to students.

Friends or Relatives Ever Abroad

The friends or relatives ever abroad variable indicates whether a student reported having friends or relatives ever live or study abroad. Students who indicated that they did have friends or relatives who are or have ever lived or studied abroad were the reference category.

Academic Involvement

The next set of variables consists of variables related to students' academics including major, GPA and membership in the honors college. These variables are institutional data available via a feed to the study abroad office website. This set also includes whether or not a student has studied a college-level foreign language, which is self-reported. Membership in the Honors College or program is an academic variable that has not been explored in other research to date.

Major

Academic major categories were based on those used by the Institute of International Education in their annual Open Doors report: Social Science, Agriculture, Business/Management, Education, Engineering, Fine or Applied Arts, Foreign Languages, Health Professions, Humanities, Math/Computer Science, Physical/Life Sciences, and Other Fields/Undeclared. Since, 1985, *Open Doors*, supported by a grant from the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs at the U.S. Department of State, has been a resource for information about U.S. students studying abroad for academic credit. In instances where students had more than one major, only the primary major was categorized. Since social science majors made up the largest percentage of study abroad participants both at the university and nation-wide, this group was selected as the

reference group. After discovering a very high estimated standard error for the coefficient associated with Education major, I determined that the category had zero cell count (Menard, 2010). That is, all the Education majors included in this study studied abroad. Menard (2010) suggests "recoding the categorical independent variable in a meaningful way (either by collapsing categories or by eliminating the program category) to eliminate the problem of zero cell count" (p. 130). The Education major category was therefore collapsed into the Other Fields/Undeclared category.

Honors College

The honors college variable indicates whether or not a student is a member of Commonwealth Honors College, the University's honors college. Non-members were selected as the reference group.

College-level Foreign Language

This variable indicates whether or not (reference category) a student self-reported having studied a foreign language at the college-level.

Cumulative Grade Point Average (GPA)

Cumulative GPA variable is a measure of students' academic performance. Grade point averages were obtained from the university student information system via a feed. The cumulative GPAs were on a standard scale of 0.0 to 4.0, as listed in University information system.

Extracurricular Involvement

This set of variables consists of measures of students' involvement in extracurricular activities. Participation in sororities and fraternities and the number of

student activities have been utilized in prior research; participation in a varsity sport has not. All of the data for these variables were sourced from the Study Abroad Profile.

Number of Student Activities

This variable indicates self-reported participation in three or more student organizations and club and recreational sports, excluding social sororities/fraternities and varsity sports (as those were separate variables). Students who participated in two or fewer activities were the reference category.

Varsity Sport

Varsity sport is a self-reported indicator of varsity sport participation (non-participation is the reference category).

Greek Life

Data for this variable came from the Study Abroad Profile. Students self-reported belonging to a social sorority or fraternity or not (reference category).

Beliefs and Attitudes

This group of variables includes students' self-reported chance of study abroad at the time of completion of the Study Abroad Profile and their perceived biggest obstacle.

Chance of Studying Abroad

Students who responded that there was a very good chance that they would study abroad were the reference category for this variable. The variables included in the model are some chance and little chance. The survey question included an additional response category of "no chance;" however, no students selected that response.

Obstacle

This dummy coded variable is the self-reported biggest obstacle for a student to study abroad. The response "None - I do not see any obstacles to studying abroad" was selected as the reference group and omitted category. Other responses students could select from included, money, family, friends, boyfriend/girlfriend, not being able to graduate on time, extracurricular activities/sports, job, and other—all were included as binary variables in the model.

Missing Data

There were no missing data for either the dependent variable or any of the independent variables because a student's intent to study abroad was defined by the completion of the Study Abroad Profile, and students were required to complete all of the survey questions.

Data Analysis

Due to the dichotomous nature of the dependent variable (participation or non-participation in study abroad among students who expressed formal intent to study abroad) and the categorical or continuous natures of the independent variables (Pampel, 2000), binary logistic regression was used for statistical analysis of these data. Binary logistic regression tests the ability of a group of variables to predict membership in a group. Unlike discriminate analysis and multiple regression, logistic regression does not require the independent variables to be normally distributed or linearly related (Mertler & Vannatta, 2013).

With multivariable methods of analysis, including binary logistic regression, it is important to consider the ratio of the number of cases per predictor variable analyzed. If

too few cases are available relative to the number of independent variables included in the model, the parameter estimates may be biased and the usual tests of significance may not be valid (Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000, Mertler & Vannatta, 2013). It is generally recommended that a minimum of ten cases per independent variable are needed in the equation to avoid problems of over-estimated and under-estimated variances (Agresti, 2007; Hosmer & Lemeshow, 2000). With 38 predictors and 1,969 cases, the ratio of cases per independent variable well exceeds the recommendation.

Because this research utilizes observations obtained from a population rather than from a sample, the use of significance tests requires explanation. As described above, the units of observation for this study are university students who created study abroad accounts and completed the Study Abroad Profile between January 2009 and May 23, 2010. One could claim that significance tests are not relevant to this study because the observations represent actual census parameters rather than sample statistics (Cowger, 1984; Hagood & Prince, 1952; Freedman, Pisani & Purves, 1998). Put another way, because data have been gathered for the entire universe of students at the university who formally expressed interest in study abroad through the creation of an on-line study abroad account and completion of the Study Abroad Profile, rather than a sample of them, there is no sampling error. Therefore, "significance tests are not only inappropriate when applied to a total population but are unnecessary since the probable relation of a sample and a population is defined as unity when they are the same" (Cowger, 1984, p. 366).

Despite the apparent unsuitability of significance tests to situations where observations have been acquired for a population, social scientists routinely report

significance tests when analyzing such observations. Researchers have advocated for the use of statistical significance tests with total populations based on two arguments. First, given the ever-evolving nature of populations, any population is just a sample of that population at any given point in time (Rubin, 1985). Second, the observations can be conceptualized as a random sample from a "hypothetical universe of possibilities – the universe of all the possible finite universes that could have been produced at the instant of observation under the conditions obtaining" (Hagood and Price, 1952, p. 287; see also Blalock (1972), and Rubin (1985)). Given the above, the population of university students who created a study abroad account and completed the Study Abroad Profile during the specified timeline can be considered to be a sample. Thus, this study makes use of statistical significance testing.

Inter-item Correlations

When conducting logistic regression analysis, it is important to check for inter-item correlations or collinearity because strong correlations among the independent variables inflate the standard errors and make unreliable estimates of regression coefficients. The magnitude of the inter-item correlations was checked in two ways. First, using IBM SPSS (version 22) for Windows, bivariate correlations were run for all independent variables (see Table 3.5 for inter-item correlation matrix). Statistically significant correlations coefficients ranged from .04 to .420. Correlations of .10 represent small effect and correlations of .30 are considered to be moderate effect size (Newton and Rudestam, 1999). Six variables were in the .20 range, one was in the .30 range and one was in the .40 range. The remainder of the correlations were .10 or under, indicating that most correlations were small. Not being able to graduate on time was negatively

correlated with money as an obstacle to study abroad (r=-.373). It was not unexpected that the variables "financial need" and "high financial need" appear to be moderately correlated (r=-.420). However, it is important to differentiate between receiving some financial aid, which could be almost entirely private loans, to high financial need, for those students receiving the Federal Pell Grant, in the context of the interest and access issues that underlie this research.

Because there were a few variables that might be moderately correlated and one that appeared to be highly correlated, the next step was to conduct a multiple linear regression analysis as a diagnostic for multicollinearity. Tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values were analyzed (see Table 3.6). Tolerance is an indicator of how much the variability of the specified independent variable is not explained by the other independent variables in the model. The VIF is the inverse of the tolerance value. The VIF has a lower bound of 1, but no upper bound (Mertler & Vannatta, 2013). Statisticians disagree on how high the VIF has to be to constitute a problem; however, conservative statisticians suggest a VIF of 2.5 or higher may be a concern (O'Brien, 2007). The highest VIF observed was 1.8, which suggests that multicollinearity is not likely to be negatively impacting the logistic regression analysis.

Focus Groups Methods

The focus group portion of this study was designed to focus on the following research question: "Why do students who have expressed a formal intent to study abroad decide not to?"

Focus Group Site

Two focus groups were conducted to learn why students who expressed a formal intent to study abroad ultimately did not participate. The two focus groups were conducted at the same large, public, research institution in the Northeast where the quantitative study was conducted. Both focus groups were comprised of students who had completed their study abroad profile during the 2009/2010 academic year, but who had not yet studied abroad through a formal University program and were within one month of graduation.

Focus Group Recruitment

Focus group participants were recruited by sending personalized e-mails to all 265 students who had completed their study abroad profile during the 2009/2010 academic year and were graduating in May 2012 (see Appendix B). To incentivize recruitment, pizza and soda were provided during the focus groups, and each participant was given twenty dollars. Because this research is useful to Education Abroad Office at the University of Massachusetts Amherst, the office funded the pizza, soda and monetary incentives.

The focus group invitation requested that students respond with an e-mail to express their interest in participating and to learn more about the research, including the location of the focus groups. Excluding the location of the focus group from the e-mail invitations was employed as a strategy to manage recruitment, by ensuring that students who had not responded would not be able to show up with no warning. In the invitation, students were asked to indicate which focus group date they could attend and to confirm that they had not studied abroad while a student at the University. Thirty-four students

inquired about participating but one was excluded from participating because he had, in fact, studied abroad on a faculty-led program that had not utilized the study abroad office's TerraDotta database at the time (the student's data was subsequently removed from the data used for the quantitative portion of this study). Only a few dozen students were not included in the study because they participated in faculty-led programs that had not yet adopted the TerraDotta database. In addition, five students e-mailed about their interest in participating but could not attend at either of the scheduled focus-group times. Seven students who responded to the initial recruitment e-mail did not respond to the follow-up e-mail. Just prior to the second focus group, two students who had confirmed their attendance e-mailed and cancelled. Three other students who had confirmed participation, failed to show up to the second focus group. Because the second focus group was held on a Friday evening near the end of the academic year, and the weather was warm and sunny, it is possible that there were simply too many distractions for some students to follow through with the focus group.

By way of focus group management, the researcher decided not to include two female students who had expressed an interest in participating in the second focus group because only one male participated in the first focus group. There was interest in recruiting more male participants to achieve a sample that included both males and females, because of the trends in study abroad participation cited earlier. A follow-up invitation was e-mail just the 65 remaining men who had not already responded with lack of availability or who had participated in the first focus group. Six men were confirmed participants for the second focus group. However, three of the five students who failed to show up to the second focus group were men.

Focus Group Participant Information

The first focus group was comprised of ten students and the second focus group was comprised of five students. Table 3.7 details demographic information about focus group participants which was obtained through their Study Abroad Profiles and Table 3.8 lists participants' majors. More women participated than men, but the second focus group achieved a better gender balance than the first. The first focus group consisted of one man and nine women, whereas the second focus group consisted of three men and two women. The focus groups were comprised of students with a variety of majors. Fourteen out of fifteen focus group students identified as White, with one participant identifying as "Asian, Asian American or Pacific Islander."

Focus Groups: Administration and Protocol

The author of this study facilitated both of the focus groups, welcoming students as they arrived, and asking them to read and sign a statement of informed consent (see Appendix C). Once the statements of informed consent were completed, the students were offered pizza and soda. After providing an introduction to the focus group, participants were asked to introduce themselves to the group with their names, majors and home towns. The semi-structure focus group protocol (see Appendix D) covered students' reasons for wanting to study abroad, their experience exploring study abroad options, and reasons for ultimately not studying abroad. The focus group questions are informed by the study abroad research literature (BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2001; Salisbury, et. al., 2009; Salisbury, et. al., 2011) and the Decision to Study Abroad Framework (Bailey Shea, 2009). The first focus group of ten students ran about seventy-

five minutes in length. The second focus group ran only forty minutes. With only five participants, they completed the protocol more quickly than first group.

Coding and Trustworthiness

Both focus groups were digitally recorded. Immediately following each focus group, the audio file was uploaded to a secure server. Using Express Scribe software, the focus groups were manually transcribed by the researcher. Upon completion of transcription, each transcript was reviewed to correct errors. Analysis was then carried out using a constant comparative approach (Creswell, 2005; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). This task was approached first with an open coding strategy, examining the raw data and breaking down the text into smaller sections which were given a code. By re-reading the text numerous times, codes were refined and sometimes recategorized. Next, axial coding was done, in which categories identified in open coding were compared with one another looking for relationships that cut across all data (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Finally, selective coding was applied, which is "the process of selecting the core category, systematically relating it to other categories, validating those relationships and filling in categories that need further refinement and development" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 116). The data was searched for specific examples for each of these categories. Contradictory data were dealt with by either reassessing categories or exploring possible alternative explanations within other concepts or categories.

In order to increase the trustworthiness of focus group data as recommended by qualitative research methodologists (Creswell, 1998; Stauss & Corbin, 1990), several techniques were employed. First, an audit trail was created, keeping careful documentation of all components of the study, including the transcripts, coding schemes

and drafts of interpretation. Second, while conducting each focus group, member checks were used to confirm that the researcher's understanding of participants' statements were actually construed as they were intended. Third, data triangulation was employed. The findings from the focus group portion are part of a fuller study which includes the quantitative study on factors that influence actual participation in study abroad among students who have expressed formal intent to study abroad (an approach advanced by Creswell & Miller, 2000). Peer review was also utilized by having a graduate student colleague at the study abroad office experienced in qualitative research methods interpret the focus group transcripts. This approach provided an independent analysis of themes and categories for comparison to those identified by the primary researcher.

Researcher Self Disclosure

The analysis and interpretation of data involves a researcher whose views, assumptions and beliefs will have important effects on the findings (Creswell, 2005; Creswell & Miller, 2000). The primary researcher in this study is White, female, participated in study abroad and currently works as a study abroad advisor at the University of Massachusetts Amherst, where this study was conducted; these identities may have influenced the collection and interpretation of these focus group data. Although the researcher disclosed her professional identity to the focus group participants, it is possible that some aspects of her identity inhibited some students from divulging some of their feelings and attitudes about their experiences with the study abroad office.

Students may have avoided sharing negative feelings or experiences, thinking that it the researcher might react poorly to such information about her office. It is also important to note that on student in the first focus group and two students in the second

group had had individual advising appointments with this researcher about studying abroad in the year or two prior. All three students disclosed to the other participants at some point during the focus groups that they had had this encounter for study abroad advising. It is not known if the other participants were influenced by this knowledge.

Second, this researcher has no prior focus group facilitation experience. Although reference materials on conducting focus groups were consulted (for example, Morgan, 1997) and researchers who regularly facilitate focus groups were sought out for advice, some lack of expertise may have limited possible participant engagement. For example, with the larger focus group, it may be that students could have been prompted to chime in when they agreed or disagreed with what other students said. Instead, during the beginning of the first focus group, the participants respectfully allowed each student to have their turn in order. However, it is important to note that at the time the focus groups were conducted, this researcher did have seven years of experience talking with students about study abroad and was therefore well positioned to ask appropriate follow-up questions.

Third, the analysis of these data is undoubtedly influenced by this researcher's experience working in the field of education abroad and prior research on factors influencing study abroad participation among college students. The decision was made to approach this study with pre-existing ideas and theories about student participation in study abroad, which could be considered both a limitation and strength of the study. Although steps were taken to allow focus group data to refute as well as confirm the ideas hypothesized about prior data collection, there is no way to eliminate fully the biases and

presumptions brought to the study, other than acknowledgement of their existence and reflection on possible impact on the findings and the study conclusions.

Conclusion

The focus group participants were good informants on some of the reasons why students who expressed interest in study abroad do not. The students' focus group interviews provide nuanced insight and deeper understanding regarding students' reasons for not participating in a study abroad program than would be available through quantitative analysis alone.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Logistic Regression Results

The following sections detail the results of the quantitative research, including the classification table, the model's predictors of participation in study abroad in the logistic regression model, and the predictors in the model that affect the odds that students would participate in study abroad.

Classification of Cases

Table 4.1 provides the classification of cases for the logistic regression model. The null model shows the accuracy of predicting that students who have expressed intent to study abroad will or will not study abroad--without including any independent variables. When the independent variables were included, the model correctly classified 72.3% of students who studied abroad, improving the percent correctly classified by 5.4%.

Logistic Regression Statistics

The logged odds (B) and the exponentiated logged odds (Exp(B)) of the logistic regression model are reported in table 4.2. See Appendix E for a complete table of the logged odds, exponentiated odds, standard error, Wald statistic and significance level for the variables in the model.

There are many different ways to calculate measures of predictive power, for logistic regression and there is no consensus on which method is best (Alison, 2014). Researchers commonly report the Cox and Snell pseudo-R square and the Nagelkerke Pseudo-R square as model-fit statistics, so those are included here. These statistics vary

between zero and one, with zero meaning no predictive power whatsoever and one meaning a perfect prediction. So, the higher these statistics are, the better, but there is rarely a fixed cut-off that distinguishes an acceptable model from one that is not acceptable (Pampel, 2000). Logistic regression does not have an equivalent to the R-squared that is found in OLS regression; the Cox and Snell and the Nagelkerke are two examples of pseudo-R-square statistics.

Another measure of model fit is the Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness-of-fit statistic, which measures the correspondence between the actual and predicted values of the dependent variable (Pampel, 2000). A good model fit is indicated by a nonsignificant chi-square value. For this model, the Hosmer and Lemshow Test at .782 is not statistically significant, indicating predicted group memberships correspond closely to the actual group memberships, indicating good model fit. The model is statistically significant from the null, or constant only model x2 (38)=307.253, p<.0001.

Odds Ratios

The odds ratio is calculated by using the regression coefficient of the predictor as the exponent (Mertler & Vannatta, 2013). It is perhaps the most helpful way of interpreting the results of the logistic regression model. The odds ratio represents the odds that an outcome will occur given a certain condition, compared to the odds of the outcome occurring in the absence of that condition. When a logistic regression is calculated, the exponentiated logged odds (Exp(B)) is the estimated increase or decrease in the odds of the outcome per unit increase in the value of the predictor variable.

For example, the odds ratio was .694 for transfer students. This means that he odds of a transfer student studying abroad are .69 lower than for students who entered the

university as freshman. Though interpretation of the exponentiated logged odds is not difficult, it is not very meaningful (Pampel, 2000). By converting the Exp(B) from log to decimal units (by subtracting 1) the coefficient reveals that the odds of studying abroad per one unit change in the independent variable. So, the odds of transfer students studying abroad were 31% less than for students who entered the university as freshman. For each of the ten statistically significant independent variables in the model (as presented in table 3.12), the Exp(B) can be interpreted as an odds ratio. Other statistically significant variables that decreased the odds of students studying abroad were: specifying an interest in study abroad as outreach (Exp(B) = .697) at 30% decreased odds; indicating in the Study Abroad Profiles that there was only "some" chance they would study abroad (Exp(B) = .246) at 75% decreased odds; indicating money as an obstacle (Exp(B) = .0672) at 33% decreased odds; indicating not being able to graduate on time as an obstacle (Exp(B) = .391) at 61% decreased odds; and indicating "other" as an obstacle to study abroad (Exp(B) = .526) at 47% decreased odds.

Odds were 49% higher for students who had traveled abroad three or more times than for students who had travelled abroad two or fewer times (Exp(B) = 1.486). Other predictors that increased odds were: being a member of the honors college (Exp(B) = 1.931) at 93% increased odds; and studying a foreign language at the college level (Exp(B) = 1.403) at 43% increased odds.

Cumulative GPA was another statistically significant variable; however, it is a continuous variable and not a dummy or binary variable. Subtracting 1 from the Exp(B) coefficient represents the percent change in odds of studying abroad for a one standard

deviation increase in the cumulative GPA. So, a one standard deviation increase in the cumulative GPA is associated with a 94% increase in the odds of studying abroad.

To summarize, the positive influential predictors in this model are GPA, honors college membership, prior travel abroad 3 or more times and having studied a foreign language at the college level. Negative predictors are expressing interest in study abroad from University outreach, being a transfer student at the University, citing money as the biggest obstacle to study abroad, citing "other" as the biggest obstacle to study abroad, citing not being able to graduate on times as the biggest obstacle to study abroad and indicating at the time of completion of the study abroad profile that there is only some chance that they will study abroad.

Focus Groups

The two focus groups provide a wealth of data into the factors that led to students' decisions not to study abroad, their reasons for wanting to study abroad, and their interactions with various entities on campus regarding study abroad. The following sections provide an overview of the main themes identified through students' discussions. Included throughout the analysis are numerous quotations to illustrate both major themes as well as nuances of the findings. The quotations are not always verbatim; Language was cleaned up where it was deemed necessary, omitting words such as "um," and "like" as well as false starts and redundancies unless it was felt that they added information to the transcript that would have been missing otherwise. In order preserve the confidentiality, pseudonyms were used when attributing quotations to individual participants. The decision was also made not to redact academic departments that students discussed in relation to study abroad because the students' experiences with and

perceptions of the academic departments are important to the findings of this study. Not redacting the names of academic departments does not jeopardize confidentiality for a few reasons. First, there were 265 eligible focus group participants out of 1,222 students who intended to study abroad but did not end up doing so. Second, the focus group student participants graduated soon after the interviews. Third, the focus groups were conducted well over two years ago.

The results are organized into five sections that align with categories identified in BaileyShea's (2009) Decision to Study Abroad Framework, the conceptual framework used for this research (background characteristics, personal beliefs and attitudes, institutional factors, academic involvement, and extracurricular involvement). A sixth category included in her model, *intent to study abroad*, has been omitted because this study only examines only students who have expressed intent to study abroad. It is worth reiterating that the focus groups were conducted independently of the quantitative research, and only with students expressed intent to study abroad, but did not end up doing so. Although some themes in the focus group may match variables included in the logistic regression model, the focus groups allowed for the exploration of other concepts relevant to students' participation in study abroad—concepts that are difficult to capture quantitatively. It should be noted that the results did not always fit clearly into one particular category. The students often talked about several ideas at once related to their interest in study abroad, what hindered them from being able to participate in a study abroad program and their experience regarding study abroad promotion and support across the campus.

This discussion about why students decided not to study abroad begins with reflection on the various ways in which students became interested in study abroad and their financial situations. Second, the review of focus group results moves to personal beliefs and attitudes including student's perceptions about study abroad and the perceived benefits of study abroad. In the third section, academic obstacles are discussed, such as major requirements and plans to attend graduate school, followed by institutional obstacles identified by students, that is, students' experiences with the study abroad office and other departments and offices on campus, and finally, extracurricular obstacles. Brief analyses of the findings in each of the five sections are included here, and then the chapter concludes with a discussion of the overall results.

Background Characteristics

Influence of Friends/Peers

Many participants attributed their initial interest in studying abroad to peers, acquaintances or alumni who had already studied abroad. Sadie explained, "I heard from a bunch of alumni that I was friends with that studying abroad was one of the best experiences that you can do."

For many students, learning about study abroad from friends occurred well before they ever set foot on the university campus: "I heard from a lot of people when I was still in high school. Just like older siblings, babysitters that they went and studied abroad so that I kind of always wanted to go.' Similarly, Willow noted:

> People that are older than me that had been to college had always said, "Make sure you go abroad during one of your years. Like, it was the best decision of my

> life. I'm so glad I went. Definitely go." So that sort of prompted me to ask about it obviously when I got to college.

The influence of peers was echoed by students participating in both focus groups. In response to the question about what prompted them to consider study abroad, John recalled:

> I had talked to someone who went to BC [Boston College] and he actually just finished his study abroad in Italy I think. I was a sophomore in high school and he was a junior then in college and he was like, 'Best time in my life. Backpacked across Europe.' He said it was a good time. He did all this cool stuff. So then in my head I thought if I don't do it I'll be missing out. I'd be a loser. [Laughter] Peer pressure, you know.

The idea of peer pressure, or feeling that one would miss out on a quintessential college experience was something that John brought up again later when asked what he would tell incoming students about study abroad. "Because I think even more than ever, kids really want to go and study abroad. It's becoming pretty much like a cultural thing now. It kind of sucks when you can't do it."

Financial Obstacles

When asked how the students came to the decision not to study abroad, it was not unexpected that financial reasons were among the first cited in each focus group. Brandi, had applied and been accepted to her program, but when it came time to put a deposit down, she explained "my family just didn't have it. It was way too expensive and even if I could have gotten scholarships or loans, there was still a large chunk of money that we

just couldn't cover. And I just didn't want to put that financial burden on my family." Sandy, a financially independent student, observed:

> I support myself so I have to have a steady income. My biggest concern was going over there and not having a steady income and having some sort of financial crisis while I was overseas. It would have not been easy to deal with. But I think that was my biggest concern. That was the reason I didn't go.

Some students, who cited lack of funds as a reason for not studying abroad, expressed that study abroad was not worth the expense. Annie said, "I decided it wasn't worth the money for what I'd get out of it and I kind of decided that I'd rather just travel on my own instead of having it be such an extended period of time." It is difficult to say whether Annie, who had to have thought there was some value in study abroad in order to pursue it in the first place, truly felt that it was not worth the expense or whether that was a rationalization after it did not work out.

Michaela had applied for scholarships, but did not receive any, and said, "I would have had to take out more loans. I already have loans out just for school and so, I don't know, I was like, I really don't want to be more in debt." Similarly, Sadie remarked, "I guess it just ended up being not enough. Because I would be taking on the extra personally and it just didn't end up adding up to be enough that I could handle money-wise."

Three students, when talking about how they could not afford to study abroad, expressed how their parents were not supportive of them studying abroad.
Stacy recalled,

> My dad said, 'I don't think its worth for you to spend that extra money to go when you've already been to Italy and other countries.' So for me, it was like, I had already gotten cultural experience by traveling. It's not that I hadn't traveled. I just wanted to live there to really absorb the language. And he said that if I stayed at school, he would send me to Italy whenever I wanted."

Another student, Brody said, "…my parents were like, 'If you want to go abroad, this is on you. It's going to be put on your shoulders to pay for it.' But while I'm here [at the university], they're paying for most of it." He added, "They probably thought I'd go abroad and just screw around too much, I guess. I guess they didn't trust me enough to go over there." These students conveyed having a parent or parents not being willing to support their children financially when it came to study abroad.

Brad expressed his frustration that his father did not value study abroad enough to help fund his semester overseas:

> My dad was like, 'You're going to waste a lot of money over there.' Waste. Whatever. 'So if I think about it, I don't think it's a good idea. You really should focus on doing it after college. Like if you graduate in four years, you'll have a better opportunity to go abroad then.' I don't know if that's true. I think it is probably one of the best opportunities to go abroad is while in school.

Interestingly, two of the three students who expressed unsupportive parents were male. In his research on male participation in study abroad, Lucas (2009) found that men felt obligated to their family relative to time and financial resources, which negatively affected their decision to study abroad. Men in his study who did not study abroad stated

that just the thought of asking their parents about study abroad stopped them from pursuing the option (Lucas, 2009).

Personal Beliefs & Attitudes

Promoting Personal Growth

Students beliefs about the outcomes of study abroad are important to their motivations for wanting to study abroad. In both focus groups, students described the various ways they expected that study abroad would promote personal growth. Some spoke about it in general terms as "a life-changing experience," whereas others mentioned specific potential outcomes. Lisa said, "You get to learn more about yourself, I think." John followed that sentiment up with, "I think the independent factor, too, is a huge deal. Like, I have a problem tying my shoes still, so [laughter] I think doing that in a foreign country could be a really great thing."

Some students were more explicit about the idea of independence as it relates to interacting with other cultures. Brad said:

> I wanted to study abroad for the cultural experience. I grew up in this state and went to school in this state. I haven't spent a significant amount of time anywhere other than here. Study abroad would be something that would be completely different for me that I regret not being able to do. You can view it as a life adventure that makes you kind of grow up in a way.

A couple of students felt that breaking away from the familiar and exploring the world was important. Brody mused:

> We used to call it [our town] "The Bubble" because everyone talks the same, everyone looks the same, everyone ends up going to the same college, so it would

> have been nice to see how different their culture is and to see how their lives are completely different from ours.

Similarly, Sandy perceived that study abroad "puts you outside of your comfort zone." She followed up on the idea:

> A lot of students here, it's easy to get into that comfort zone at school. You just know everyone. You know the regular system and whatnot, but I think it's a good parallel to once you graduate. It's a little different, but it puts you outside your comfort zone where you're going to be when you graduate. You have to find your own way.

Study abroad as a catalyst for increased self-confidence and ability has been identified in prior research on the outcomes of study abroad (Bates, 1997; Farris, 2012; Lathrop, 1999; Ryan & Twibell, 2000). Based on the students' comments, they viewed study abroad as an opportunity for personal growth.

Career Benefits

Focus group participants expressed the belief that study abroad participants were more sought-after when seeking a job or helping obtain certain career goals. Business students were the most vocal about this. Sandy, a Hospitality and Tourism major, stated, "I think that it's a great opportunity especially in the Hospitality industry. I study tourism and travelling is key to tourism. If you don't know what area you're selling for destinations and whatnot then you're not going to sell very well." Business students also related what they learned in the classroom to international opportunities. Sadie, a Finance major, talked about how, in her courses, she

> learned about global opportunities and global companies. I guess to go abroad you gain a core advantage and you learn different languages and that can promote yourself in getting a job and you can learn different experiences in the way that business works over there so it's a big thing to have that.

Experiential study abroad programs were also mentioned. A Marketing major noted that "the School of Management promoted the London Internship Program, which is what I was looking into at first. I know that would have definitely have benefitted my future because I had only had one internship before."

Non-business majors did not talk much about study abroad being beneficial to their job prospects. Although, a Political Science major noted,

> I think that's a really good skill in terms of work especially when you're applying for a job telling them you had been in a foreign situation maybe not even being familiar with the language and actually succeeding through said situation, it says a lot about your character. I think it is a big character builder, which is definitely a good plus.

Travel

Study abroad obviously involves travel (e.g., to and from the study abroad destination). However, it was astonishing how openly students talked about travel as the primary motivation for study abroad. When students were asked directly about their reasons for wanting to study abroad, Michaela said, "Mine had nothing to do with educational benefits, I just wanted to have so much fun." The other focus group yielded an equally blunt response:

> I honestly didn't care about the classes I was going to take there. I really just hadn't travelled a lot myself and I thought Europe especially, you know, if you're there for the whole semester, you could have the chance to see a ton of different countries and cultures and history. That's something I've never really had the chance to do.

Europe is top destination for study abroad both at the university and nationally (IES, 2014a), not only for heritage reasons, but also for the sheer number of countries in close proximity to each other. Stacy said,

> I think considering Europe I sort of was excited about the idea that you could see so many different cultures in one small little space. Just being able to see different… or hearing different languages or seeing different history effects on the culture or the different architecture just walking from city to city or flying a short distance. That was the most exciting factor for me."

The idea that study abroad during college was the best or only chance to be able to travel extensively was brought up by a few students. Holly said, "I think it's the only time in your life where you can go abroad for so long and travel so much without having major responsibilities" Similarly, Lisa noted:

> You're never going to have the experience of being able to travel all the time and not actually have to work or anything. Like you have school, but it's not like… mostly probably you're going to be taking gen-eds or something like that so the travel opportunities and just meeting new people and stuff like that.

While meeting new people was mentioned, other students talked about being about to travel with friends from the university. One participant said,

> Some of the schools that I looked into had, like, month-long spring breaks that you could do a lot of traveling and it's really cool because usually when you're there a lot of people go around the same time so you can meet up with your friends there in all places which is, like, you know, awesome. Probably one of the only times that that amount of people are going to be over there at the same time.

The enthusiasm with which students discussed the travel opportunities study abroad presents were unmatched by any of the other topics discussed in either focus group. This would suggest that for many of these students, the potential academic or other benefits of study abroad are not even on their radar. If study abroad is viewed as an "academic vacation" by students, it is no wonder that parents do not think it is worth helping to fund it.

Not Wanting to Miss Out on Time at the University

When how they arrived at their decisions not to study abroad, the focus group participants cited financial and academic reasons as the most common reasons, but a number of students mentioned not wanting to miss out on the remaining time they had at the University. Willow noted,

> I just started loving being here probably my sophomore year and didn't want to give up one of my four semesters that were left to go be somewhere else. So instead of kind of ruling out studying abroad in another country, it was kind of not wanting to miss a semester here.

Lana agreed with Willow, "about not wanting to miss out on what's going on here." One skeptical student responded to these comments with, "I would say that there are more reasons to make myself feel better after I realized I wasn't going, but they weren't part of

my decision not to go." Whether feeling that missing out on a semester at the university was really a deterrent to study abroad, or, as the student suggested, was merely something students said to soften the blow of a different obstacle to study abroad, it is interesting that the reason that some students want to study abroad (to experience a different culture and get out of one's comfort zone) is the reason why others decide not to study abroad. As highlighted in the previous section on travel, many students identified study abroad as the only time to be able to travel extensively. But one focus group participant expressed a different point of view, declaring: "You only have 8 semesters in college, but you can travel to other countries the rest of your life. I just didn't want to give up time here when there's so much other time to travel."

Almost all the students who expressed not wanting to miss out on University life and activities did not explicitly state what they would miss at the university. Rather, it was more the general realization that "the University isn't going to stop while you're not here." One student, Sadie, noted that she did not want to forfeit the opportunity to live in off-campus housing with friends.

> One of the big factors, too, was after your sophomore year, the typical thing--at least with my group of friends--was to get a house off-campus. So if you spend a semester abroad, it would be hard to jump back into a house. They don't have a spare room just waiting for you that magically hasn't been paying rent. It was almost impossible. So you sacrifice wanting to get a house with friends off-campus or wanting to go abroad and meet new people. I would rather stay here and have a good experience with my friends off-campus than to go make new ones.

Academic Involvement

Despite the fact that some of the focus group participants view study abroad as vacation from school, it is an academic endeavor for which students receive credit and grades to progress toward their degrees. Focus group participants expressed that specific academic requirements were a hindrance to being able to study abroad, but for different reasons. One student who changed his major during his sophomore year, said, “I may have had to take an extra semester or I would have had to overload. It would have been tough to graduate on time or in four years so that played a big factor.” Jessica, who was undeclared until the end of her sophomore year, echoed those sentiments, “I was kind of packing in a lot of my major classes, so when I did bring it (study abroad) up to my advisor once, he was kind of like, ‘That’s not going to work for you now.’ As evident in these examples, waiting until relatively late in one’s college career to settle on a major sometimes does not leave students with enough flexibility for courses to be able to study abroad.

Traditionally, students study abroad sometime during their junior year, but students in certain majors reported that the curriculum becomes too strict by the third and fourth years. Sandy, a Finance major, said, “By junior year, I was dealing with the roadblock of class schedules.” Most math and science majors in the focus groups discussed the challenges of finding required courses for their majors abroad. Jessica, a Math major lamented, “Math classes weren’t easy to find, especially because I needed higher level classes and a lot of them in the other countries were taught in that language, which obviously I can’t take a math class in German.” Another student stated, “I wish I had looked into it earlier and I probably could have made it work.”

Students in one of the focus groups observed that some majors were less compatible with study abroad. Brad said, “I think that some majors definitely had a better opportunity. Like my Engineering friends could never, and some of my Kinesiology friends probably couldn’t either.”

Not all science majors experienced difficulties fitting study abroad into their academic requirements. William, said, “I was actually surprised at how supportive the Biochem department was being of me going, though. They were going to let me substitute one of my upper-level Biochem requirements here with one over there. I think two classes that I was going to take here they let me substitute over there.”

John, a Political Science major following the pre-dental curriculum (pre-med and pre-dental are not majors at the university where the study took place) was deterred not by his major, but by his plans to attend dentistry school after completion of his undergraduate degree.

> You can’t leave. They have pretty strict rules about that, it seems and so it kind of became difficult for me to actually fit it in. And then there’s also the pressure from internships and other stuff like that. Since they’re trying to make that more of a curriculum kind of thing here, it seems kind of weird in a way but that’s why I freaked out.

Institutional Factors

Academic Advisors & Professors

Some focus group participants talked about how their University academic advisors encouraged them to study abroad. Holly, an English major, shared, “My advisor told me my freshman year that I have to go. His daughter went.” Sandy, a Hospitality and

Tourism Management major, also noted how a professor in her department encouraged her to study abroad:

> I worked closely with a professor in the department and was a TA for her for almost two years. She is in love with Denmark. She worked in Copenhagen for a long time and she wanted me to go there. She was ready to write me letters of recommendation to go study over there.

Brandi, a Japanese major, said, "I think that it is a lot more prevalent in the language departments, which naturally push people to study abroad. Language advisors will constantly dog you [laughter] and tell you, 'You need to study abroad. Go abroad! Go abroad!"

Other students reported departments not recommending study abroad with great enthusiasm and that students themselves have to take the responsibility to figure out how to make it work. Michaela, an Engineering major, shared that meeting with her academic advisor regarding study abroad classes that would fulfill requirements abroad was "the annoying and challenging part." She added,

> I haven't noticed any positive or negative feeling towards it (study abroad) at all. I think if you want to go and you work hard trying to figure out classes and working with your advisor and you pick a school in a location that has a similar engineering curriculum to the United States, which is really only England and Australia, then you can do it. Or you can do all gen-eds. I have one friend who did that. I think, I mean, you really have to want to do it and go talk to them about it but I think they're definitely willing to help you if you really want to go.

Lisa noted that "in the Nutrition Department, they don't really push it or anything. I mean, I brought it up, but not many Nutrition majors study abroad." She added, "But I think they might be trying to incorporate it more. That's what my advisor said. But she said if you want to study abroad, she suggests you figure it out freshman year so you can plan accordingly the course load and stuff. Other than that they don't really talk about it."

What advisors say or do not say about study abroad appears to impact whether students study abroad. One student expressed,

> So many people say, 'Oh my advisor said I can't go abroad. Too bad for that.' I feel like the academic departments whenever the students go talk to them, they burst your bubble and they're like, 'You can't go. Sorry.' And then so many students just give up on it because of that.

John specifically mentioned his frustration with the advising students receive when they first arrive at the university. "I think the school really shoots you in the foot when you come in and you're undeclared and they say, 'Do your gen-eds.'" This comment was met with a concurring, "Yeah!" from the other students participating in that focus group. John continued;

> And then you're in your junior year and they're like, 'Oh, you did your gen-eds, you can't go abroad!' [Laughter and expressions of agreement]. And it's like, 'Thank you very much!' I think that happens a lot. I know, for me, I did my gen-eds and then I'm like 'Oh. OK. I have to do some science stuff and some poli sci stuff.' And they [the advisors] said, 'Great! You're probably going to do it here [the University of Massachusetts Amherst].' And I did. I think the university kind

of has a problem where they say open yourself up. They take a really holistic approach early on and then it does not work out for some students.

Students are reporting being encouraged to take as many general education classes as possible early on in their academic careers in line with the liberal arts curriculum, which encourages exploration. However, this advice appears to impede some students' ability to participate in study abroad. If they cannot find suitable equivalents abroad to fulfill requirements for their major, and they have already fulfilled general education classes, that leaves nothing for them to do academically while they are abroad.

Study Abroad in the Curriculum

Two students stated that they were introduced to study abroad in a freshman seminar for business students. Brad recalled, "I got introduced to it in a business 'transitions' class. It was just a one credit seminar and they spent a whole class talking about going abroad the opportunities there."

Another business student noticed the presence of study abroad posters in her classrooms. She added, "I meet a lot of international students in my classes from Australia and Scotland. So I'd say it has a big impact on what I see around here."

Study Abroad Office

The students were asked how they felt about their interactions with the study abroad office on campus. Again, because they knew that the focus group facilitator worked for the study abroad office, their responses may have been more positive they might have been had someone from outside the office facilitated the focus group.

Some students had positive feedback regarding the advisors in the study abroad office. "They were great… and they had a lot of different suggestions and different things

to look into." Another student, Stacy, referred to positive interactions with the peer advisors and with communication from the study abroad office:, "I got set up with a student who was like in similar interest and major as me and constantly got e-mails reminding me about info session or deadlines." However, another student who described the advising process as "great," mentioned feeling that there was still a lot of work students have to do themselves to make study abroad a reality:

> There is so much (information) on the website, it is just a matter of doing your own research and really discovering where you want to go and what the program's like. It is time-consuming, but if it's something you want to do, it's very easy to get through it. It is more of an interest factor.

Certainly, one could expect that the amount of work required to make study abroad happen is not something all students are willing or able to do.

Most students expressed positive interactions with the study abroad office; however, one student felt lost in his interactions with office:

> I do feel like I bounced around a little. I never found one person that I could seem to meet with consistently. I feel like I met with everyone in the entire department at one point. Because I jumped around [with locations/programs] I eventually did meet with someone more consistently, but I think finding the person I was supposed to meet with the entire time was a bit of a challenge at first.

More broadly, some students felt that the university could do more to encourage study abroad participation. Sandy said,

> I think that as a whole, the University could do a little better promoting or maybe breaking things down for students. It's a public school, but there are a lot of

> students here who can afford to go (abroad) and who can't afford to go. If there was maybe more information on different tiers of studying abroad, or maybe even a winter program or offering more winter programs, or maybe offering scholarships and financial aid and stuff like that. I think it's one of those things that you really have to dig deep to find out how to finance stuff like this.

Another student, Jessica, noted,

> I haven't in the Math department noticed or been pushed to go abroad at all. I haven't even really seen things up over there, which stinks, because I feel like if I did… like if the university did branch out in all the departments more, then I think more people would want to go abroad. Because I think if you don't make yourself go to the study abroad office you're never going to go through the process and see how easy it can be to do it.

Extracurricular Involvement

Involvement in extracurricular activities was mentioned by a few focus group participants as a factor that deterred them from studying abroad. Sports, clubs and activities were not at all discussed; however, internships and research were. Brad, a Marketing major, expressed not wanting to miss out on campus life and not wanting to leave an internship: "I felt like maybe I'd be missing stuff here. I love being on campus. I had an internship on campus already at that point so I really didn't want to lose that." Another student felt that being involved in research on campus was more relevant to his long-term goals than studying abroad, saying, "I had applied for a fellowship working in a research lab here in the Microbiology Department and I got into that and I just decided that it made more sense for my career than studying abroad really did." The pre-dental

student indicated that the pressure of having a relevant an internship held him back from participating in study abroad.

Conclusion

The logistic regression results and focus group interviews reveal many factors that influence participation in study abroad among students who have expressed intent. These include positive academic predictors such as GPA, honors college membership, prior travel abroad 3 or more times, and having studied a foreign language at the college level. Negative predictors are comprised of background characteristics including expressing interest in study abroad from University outreach and being a transfer student, as well as personal beliefs and attitudes including citing money, "other" and not being able to graduate on time as the biggest obstacle to study abroad. Focus group participants discussed academic hindrances to study abroad (e.g., not being able to find specific course equivalents abroad, not being able to graduate on time, unsupportive academic departments and poor academic advising) as well as concerns about the cost of study abroad and missing out on time at the University. The next chapter will provide a discussion of these results and implications for institutions of higher education and future research on the topic.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore the factors that influence student participation in study abroad among students who expressed intent to study abroad and to discover why some students who have expressed intent to study abroad do not. In Chapter 1, it was stated that in order to expand study abroad participation to the levels that are proposed through national international education organizations and by many college and university administrators, it would be wise to increase the yield of participants in study abroad among the students who have already expressed intent. Students who have expressed interest in study abroad could be considered "low-hanging fruit." If universities can reduce impediments to study abroad for students already interested in study abroad, colleges and universities can concentrate on underrepresented populations who are often the students who do not even consider these opportunities.

In an effort to further our understanding of study abroad participation among students who have expressed intent to study abroad, the following research questions guided the present study: 1) Among students who have expressed intent to study abroad, who is more likely to study abroad and who is less likely?; and 2) Among students who have expressed intent to study abroad, why do some students choose not to? In Chapter 2, relevant extant literature on study abroad intent and participation was reviewed, including the significance of previously studied independent variables as well as theories used to understand the study abroad decision making process. In Chapters 3 and 4, the methods and results from the two empirical portions of this study were presented. This closing

chapter provides a discussion of both the quantitative and qualitative results, then summarizes the results as they relate to the questions posed in the study. Finally, it discusses implications for institutions of higher education and for future research on this topic, and limitations of this study.

Discussion of Logistic Regression Results

The purpose of the quantitative portion of this study was to explore variables that predicted whether or not students who expressed formal intent to study abroad actually studied abroad before graduation. Using the Decision to Study Abroad Framework (Bailey Shea, 2009) as a conceptual guide, variables were selected and categorized into background characteristics, academic involvement, extracurricular involvement, institutional factors, and personal beliefs and attitudes.

Among the statistically significant background characteristics with large effect sizes, logistic regression results showed that students who had traveled abroad three or more times had a higher odds of participating in study abroad than their counterparts who had not traveled abroad or only had traveled abroad one or two times. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Booker, 2001; Hembroff & Rusz, 1993; Miller, 2004, Stroud, 2010). It is not surprising that students who have the socioeconomic status or means and experience to travel abroad would be more likely to pursue study abroad opportunities. It is surprising that gender, race and financial need were not statistically significant as prior research has found gender (BaileyShea, 2009; Luo & Drake, 2014; Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010 Salisbury, et al., 2011; Stroud, 2010), race (BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2001; Kasravi, 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2011) and financial

need (Booker, 2001; Chieffo, 2000; Miller, 2004; Salisbury, et al., 2010, Stroud, 2010) to impact student participation in study abroad.

Students who transferred into the university had lower odds of participating in study abroad. Typically transferring to the University at the start of their junior year, transfer students often lack the academic flexibility and the time to plan study abroad. It could also be the case that transfer students are non-traditional students who may have families and other obligations that prevent them from being able to study abroad. This finding is particularly important, because this variable has not been explored in other studies.

Another background characteristic that was statistically significant was whether or not students named University-based outreach efforts when asked in the Study Abroad Profile how they became interested. As defined earlier for the purpose of this study, outreach included announcements in class, study abroad information session, posters, study abroad office website, campus tour, among others. That outreach would decrease the odds of studying abroad is unexpected. These results suggest that students whose interest in studying abroad is prompted by marketing or other information are less likely to study abroad than students whose interest in study abroad stems from other sources, such as family, friends or academic advisors. It could be that interest in study abroad generated through marketing or outreach efforts is not as authentic as interest generated by family, friends or other sources. More research is needed to understand this perplexing result.

Academic involvement is a strong predictor of participation in study abroad. Consistent with prior research, the odds of students' participation in study abroad

increases as GPA rises (BaileyShea, 2009; Booker, 2001). Additionally, students who are taking or who have taken a college-level foreign language are more likely to study abroad, which is in line with prior research (Salisbury, et al., 2009; Stroud, 2010). Another academic involvement variable that positively predicts study abroad participation is membership in the honors college. Although students need to achieve a 3.4 GPA to qualify for the honors college, only some students who qualify decide to join the honors college. A positive correlation between honors college membership and GPA was found in this study, although correlation was weak.

Remarkably, none of the major categories nor any of the extracurricular involvement variables (e.g., involvement in three or more student activities, participation in a varsity sport and participation in a social sorority or fraternity) were statistically significant in this model. Prior research, however, found that major (Stroud, 2010) and involvement in extracurricular activities were positive predictors in students' intent or participation in study abroad (Rust, et al, 2007; BaileyShea, 2009).

For personal beliefs and attitudes, students' belief at the time of completion of the Study Abroad Profile that there was only some chance that they would study abroad decreased their odds of actually studying abroad. This could suggest that although they expressed some interest in study abroad, they anticipated that the obstacles or reasons for not studying abroad could not be overcome.

Although financial need was not a predictor of study abroad participation in this model, the obstacle of money was. The difference between these two variables is important. In this study, financial need represented students' self-reported financial aid, whereas the obstacle of money signified students who reported that money was their

biggest obstacle to study abroad. This outcome is consistent with other research that has found cost is a deterrent to study abroad participation (e.g., Booker, 2001; Chieffo, 2000; Miller, 2004; Salisbury, et al., 2010, Stroud, 2010). Students who felt that their biggest obstacle to studying abroad was not being able to graduate on time also had decreased odds of studying abroad. The reasons for students to perceive not being able to graduate on time as an obstacle to study abroad are hypothesized as academic, financial (e.g., not being able to afford another semester or year of college), or social (e.g., not wanting to miss out on graduating with their friends), and future research could delve into this further.

Another obstacle that was found to impact negatively a student's odds in participating in study abroad was "other." This is difficult to interpret because other could be so many things. Given the structure of this study, money, family, friends, boyfriend or girlfriend, not being able to graduate on time, extracurricular activities or job should not be the basis for selection of that option, because those *were* options for students to select. It is hypothesized that "Other" could be anything from not wanting to give up on-campus housing to not wanting to miss out on a big event on campus. The focus group data sheds some light on this particular variable.

This study provides further evidence of the relationship between a variety of background, academic and beliefs and attitudes and study abroad participation for students who have expressed intent to study abroad at the University of Massachusetts Amherst. Specifically, positive influential predictors are GPA, honors college membership, prior travel abroad 3 or more times and having studied a foreign language at the college level. Negative influential predictors are expressing interest in study abroad

from University outreach, being a transfer student at the University, citing money as the biggest obstacle to study abroad, citing "other" as the biggest obstacle to study abroad, citing not being able to graduate on times as the biggest obstacle to study abroad and indicating at the time of completion of the study abroad profile that there is only some chance that they will study abroad. Additionally, the research explored and found two significant independent variables (honors college membership and transfer student status) not previously studied, that provide new information about why some students are more likely to study abroad than other students.

Discussion of Focus Group Results

The focus groups yielded some important information regarding the reasons students become interested in study abroad as well as the factors that influence the decision not to study abroad. First, returning study abroad students play a significant role in informing other students about study abroad. It is not surprising that students turn to their friends for advice about what they should be doing to get the most out of college. Trusted and credible sources for information about study abroad can be powerful messengers for all students (Bruce, 2012). The trust and credibility of students who have similar interests or share other commonalities is very strong. If a friend discusses study abroad as a worthwhile activity, a student is more likely to consider it seriously.

Second, many students cited finances as a barrier to study abroad participation, which corresponds to the study's quantitative findings. Several participants identified an unwillingness to take out more loans in order to be able to finance a study abroad experience. Students, weighed down with student loan debt already, said they could not justify borrowing additional money in order to study abroad. They came to the conclusion

that study abroad was “not worth it.” Some participants, who were receiving financial support from their parents for college, shared that their parents did not consider study abroad to be a worthwhile activity and refused to provide financial support.

Third, students talked about the perceived benefits of studying abroad, including personal growth and an edge on the job market. Many students cited independence and expanding one’s view of the world as probable outcomes for study abroad. In particular, the business majors were able to link what they had learned in the classroom to study abroad. Only one non-business major discussed the potential advantages of study abroad for job prospects indicating that being able to demonstrate the ability to navigate a different culture and potentially a different language would be skills employers would look upon favorably.

Fourth, many participants shared a perception that study abroad is an opportunity for extensive travel and fun. The travel element of study abroad was discussed with great enthusiasm. A few participants were quite frank in stating that their sole motivation for wanting to study abroad was for travel and not at all for academics.

In addition to financial obstacles, students indicated that missing out on either academics or their university campus experience were important factors in their decisions not to study abroad.

Finally, a considerable amount of focus group dialogue centered on the role of academic advisors and departments in promoting and enabling study abroad. Many students indicated that when they first entered the university, advisors told them to take general education requirements as soon as possible, and that this ruined their ability to study abroad. Students reported that they could not find or get approval for upper-level

course equivalents abroad and with no general education requirements remaining to fulfil, they could not make progress toward their degrees if they studied abroad. Students in this situation reported that study abroad would have delayed their graduation. Participants thought planning for study abroad early on in their college careers would have helped. These comments suggest a tension within the university, of advocating for a liberal arts experience through the exploration of diverse disciplines versus the expectation of 18 year-olds to have their majors selected and courses planned out in their first semester.

Generally, participants reported positive experiences with the university study abroad office. However, this finding should be considered with some caution because focus group participants knew that the study was led by an office member and consequently focus group participants may not have been as candid about negative experiences as they could have been with someone not affiliated with the study abroad office. The main criticism that students did provide about the study abroad office was that students reported having to put some effort into researching study abroad options. They also suggested that the office could do better outreach with the academic departments. Although a few students reported study abroad opportunities being promoted by their academic departments, other participants cited a absence about study abroad in their major. Based on the focus group discussions, in addition to peers, advisors and professors in departments are viewed trusted and credible sources of information about study abroad. If students are receiving from their academic departments either negative messages about study abroad or no message at all, it can negatively impact students decisions about study abroad participation.

Overall, the focus group findings indicate that the Decision to Study Abroad Framework (BaileyShea, 2009) can be helpful when for considering how students make the decision to participate or not participate in a study abroad program. In particular, academic involvement and students' personal beliefs and attitudes about study abroad are important to student decisions to participate in an abroad program or not. However, the findings also suggest that some categories in the framework are less important (e.g., extracurricular involvement) than others (e.g., background characteristics, personal beliefs and attitudes institutional factors and academic involvement) to students who express an intent to study abroad but decide not participate. The next section explores these ideas in greater detail by connecting the focus group findings with results from the binary logistic regression results to provide a broader synthesis of these results to advance understanding about the factors that influence study abroad participation.

Who is More Likely to Study Abroad and Who is Less Likely?

One key element of this study was concerned with the development of a greater understanding about who studies abroad and who does not among students who have expressed intent to study abroad. As discussed in Chapter 2, there have been a number of studies on factors that influence participation in study abroad (BaileyShea, 2009), or factors that influence intent to study abroad (Salisbury, et, al.2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Stroud, 2010) in the general student population, but there has only been one prior study (Booker, 2001) that has investigated students who have taken action to express an intent to study abroad rather than the general student population. Booker (2001) examined study abroad applicants and non-applicants (not necessarily study abroad participants) among students who have expressed intent. The researcher chose to examine participation versus

non-participation in study abroad among students at the University of Massachusetts Amherst, a public, research university in the Northeast who expressed intent to study abroad. Prior research has focused on many geographic areas in the U.S., but none have been based on data in the Northeast. Both prior research on participation and intent to study abroad were used, as well as the Decision to Study Abroad Framework proposed by BaileyShea (2009) to select the independent variables to include in the binary logistic regression model and to inform the questions included in the focus group study.

The quantitative analysis, which was conducted with data obtained through a survey (Study Abroad Profile) embedded in student accounts on the University study abroad website, found that among students who have expressed intent to study abroad, those admitted as transfer students had a lower odds of participating in a study abroad program than students who entered the university as freshman. Decreased odds of study abroad were also found for other background characteristics, such as students who indicated that their interest in study abroad stemmed from outreach.

Factors that fall under student beliefs and attitudes were found to decrease odds that they would study abroad. These included students who expressed that there was some chance (as opposed to little or very good chance) that they would actually study abroad and students who identified money, not being able to graduate on time, and "other" as their biggest obstacle to study abroad. Students who had traveled abroad three or more times had greater odds of studying abroad than students who had traveled two or fewer times abroad. Students who had taken a college-level foreign language had greater odds of studying abroad over students who had not studied a foreign language at the college-level. Members of the honors college were found to have greater odds of studying

abroad than non-honors college members. GPA was also found as a positive predictor of study abroad participation.

Among the most surprising findings was that gender was not a predictor of study abroad participation among students who have expressed intent to study abroad. Research on study abroad participation among the general student population has found that gender is a significant predictor in study abroad participation (BaileyShea, 2009) and intent to study abroad (Salisbury, et al., 2009; Salisbury, et al., 2010; Stroud, 2010). Although gender can be a significant predictor among students in the general student population, the analyses presented here suggest that it may not function that way for the population of students who have expressed intent to study abroad. The findings of this research that GPA and prior abroad travel are associated with greater odds of studying abroad among students who have expressed intent to study abroad indicate that these predictors are not just limited to the general student population but influence participation in study abroad among all types of students. This research also affirms prior research into perceived obstacles to study abroad including financial reasons and not being able to graduate on time. This study examined factors not included in prior research, including transfer student status and interest in study abroad derived from university outreach/marketing, both of which decrease a student's odds of actually studying abroad after taking the effort to look into it.

Why Do Students Decide Not To Study Abroad?

The focus group portion of this research provides different and nuanced insight into the reasons that influence the decision not to study abroad among students who have expressed. The study suggests that the influence of peers and advisors in becoming

interested in and studying abroad is extremely important in having students become interested in study abroad. As stated earlier in this chapter, trust and credibility (Bruce, 2012) of the source of information about study abroad are important to students acting on it. Focus group participants cited a number of reasons for wanting to study abroad including personal growth and career benefits, but the most discussed reason by far was the ability to extensively travel while abroad. The expense of study abroad was revealed as a common reason students did not end up studying abroad, mentioning an unwillingness to take out additional loans and an unwillingness of their parents to help fund study abroad. Although it was not explicitly stated, and the facilitator failed to probe the issue during the focus group for greater clarification, it would seem that the perception of study abroad as a non-academic time for travel and fun is not helping students make the case to parents about the importance of study abroad. Likewise, if instructors and advisors do not see study abroad courses as complementing the curriculum or make the connection to potential career benefits that can come from study abroad, they will not endorse study abroad. The focus groups also provided information about institutional factors that contributed to students' decisions not to study abroad. For example, students across disciplines talked about how their perceptions of departmental perspectives regarding study abroad impacted their decisions. Some students suggested that study abroad should be better integrated into all majors so that more students could study abroad

Together, the quantitative and qualitative portions of this study provide a wealth of information on the variety of variables that influence student participation in study abroad among students who have expressed intent to study abroad. From the regression

model, it appears that academic involvement variables (GPA, honors college membership and studying a foreign language at the college level) are important positive indicators of study abroad for students who intend to study abroad. The model also suggests that the perception of money or not being able to graduate on time as obstacles to study abroad negatively impacts study abroad participation among students who have intent to study abroad. The intangible "other" obstacle (which was a significant predictor of not participating in study abroad in the regression model) could likely be capturing students' desire "not to miss out on time at the university" as identified in the focus group study. The focus group findings suggest peers influence students' initial interest in study abroad, as do academic advisors and departments. However, the attitude expressed by advisors and academic departments can seriously impact actual participation in study abroad among students who have expressed intent. Combined, this study offers important information about how personal beliefs and attitudes, institutional factors, academic involvement, extracurricular involvement, and students' perceptions of their experiences shape choices.

Implications for Institutions of Higher Education

The findings of this dissertation have numerous implications for institutions of higher education. As discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, the many positive outcomes of study abroad have prompted institutions of higher education, relevant national and international professional organizations, and state and federal governments to advocate for the expansion of study abroad participation. However, the push for expansion has not been accompanied by adequate support or suggestions for how to accomplish such lofty goals. Additionally, research that focuses on factors that influence participation in study abroad

is largely being conducted as doctoral dissertations, which are not published and therefore not readily available for study abroad professionals tasked with increasing study opportunities for more students. Relevant professional organizations (e.g., NAFSA, IIE and The Forum) do have resources for research databases and resources, but the research that tends to be both conducted and highlighted is research on study abroad outcomes and assessment--not research on factors that predict study abroad participation that would inform strategies institutions can implement to achieve greater participation in study abroad. Another hurdle is that many study abroad professionals lack the methods training to be able to evaluate the research. The findings of the two studies that comprise this dissertation provide evidence that expanding our knowledge of the factors that lead to study abroad participation or non-participation among students who have expressed intent to study abroad is important to the mission of expanding study abroad participation. Institutions of higher education, relevant professional organizations and researchers need to develop an understanding, based on research rather than anecdotal evidence, of the many reasons that influence participation in study abroad.

Because study abroad is an academic endeavor, for which students receive academic credit to fulfill various degree requirements (major, minor, general education, etc.), efforts to increase participation in study abroad among undergraduate students cannot entirely be left to study abroad offices; academic departments have to be partners with the study abroad office in developing plans for expansion of study abroad participation. This dissertation's findings suggest that active support and participation by academic departments and advisors is critical to student participation in study abroad. Focus group participants expressed their frustration by their perceptions of poor advising

from their departments that led to their inability to study abroad. As described in Chapter 4, students also cited a complete lack of visibility of study abroad within their academic departments, which caused students to question their study abroad plans. This study suggests the importance of information and advising about study abroad being available within the academic departments, not just the study abroad office.

Even though the goals to increase study abroad in a short amount of time may seem unattainable, the dissertation findings suggest that there are actions that can be implemented to increase study abroad participation, especially among the group of students who have expressed intent to study abroad. The following recommendations are focused on creating an educational environment that enables students who are interested in study abroad actually to participate.

Establish/Strengthen Connections with Academic Departments

The task of expanding study abroad participation cannot be left entirely to study abroad offices. Because study abroad is an academic activity, it should be integrated into the institution's academic mission. Students interested in studying abroad need to be receiving the message that the college or university views study abroad not as an add-on, but as an important and integrated part of the overall academic experience. Students need to feel supported by their academic departments in their plans to study abroad. Each academic department could identify an advisor who is responsible for advising students who wish to study abroad. These advisors would work closely with the study abroad office to identify suitable programs abroad that allow students (including transfer students) to complete major requirements and graduate on time. The designated study abroad advisors based in the academic departments would be an advocate about study

abroad to not only students, but also their academic colleagues. Ideally, study abroad should permeate the entire campus and become a part of the campus culture. Cooperation and enthusiasm from academic advisors and departments to become involved in efforts to send more students abroad will likely only be effective through a top-down approach. That is, university senior leadership needs to encourage if not mandate support of study abroad as an important educational endeavor.

Communicate with and Educate Parents

Institutions should include messages about study abroad in their communications with parents. Many colleges and universities already have offices of parent relations that provide information and resources on issues. Such offices, in concert with academic departments and study abroad offices, could regularly share some examples of how study abroad has helped alumni academically, personally and career-wise. From the time students are admitted to the time they graduate, parents should receive regular communication about study abroad. Included in the communications could be facts and figures, personal stories and information that dispels myths about study abroad (e.g., it is prohibitively expensive). Without the blessing of their parents, many students who have expressed interest in study abroad will not. This appears to be especially true for students who receive financial support from their parents.

Train Returned Study Aboard Students

Colleges and universities should provide programming for returning study abroad students so that they can meaningfully process their abroad experiences and articulate relevant outcomes to prospective students and employers. Because peers appear to be one of the most influential sources about study abroad, colleges and universities would

benefit in a couple of ways by providing programming to help returned students be able to analyze, understand and communicate more effectively about study abroad. First, through workshops or courses for credit, programming aimed at helping returned students "unpack" their abroad experiences will benefit the returning students. It will provide them with the opportunity to learn about the personal/emotional aspects of returning from an abroad experience for a successful campus re-entry and how to incorporate study abroad on their resumes. Second, returned study abroad students who have been led through guided and meaningful reflection of their study abroad experiences, will be able to more effectively communicate what they have achieved through study abroad to other students on campus. Returned students will be able to relay to their friends non-superficial information about study abroad, while still talking about the travel aspect that motivates so many students. Returned students will have the vocabulary and tools to discuss other important aspects of study abroad. These trusted and credible sources to their peers are essential to expanding study abroad participation.

Students will not only be able to disseminate information about study abroad to their friends, but also in the other ways in which they interact with students. For example, most academic departments and administrative offices at colleges and universities utilize student workers or peer mentors. Returned students who hold such positions on campus are often in regular contact with students.

Create Research and Internship Opportunities Abroad

Increasingly, research and internships are becoming integral to higher education. These hands-on experiences provide students with valuable understanding of their major field as well as skill and resume building. Both employers and graduate schools value

these experiential learning opportunities. At some universities and in certain majors, participation in research or an internship is a degree requirement. Although there will always be students who opt not to study abroad because of an opportunity to participate in a domestic research position internship, advertising research and internship opportunities abroad for a wide varieties of majors would help encourage more students to study abroad. Internships and research in study abroad opportunities have expanded considerably in the last few years. Working in concert with academic departments to determine the best options for particular majors, it would not require much effort for departments to identify a number of options for their students or to establish new opportunities through existing partnerships (e.g., exchanges) abroad.

Educate Students About the Cost of Study Abroad

The cost of study abroad, or the perceived cost of study abroad, is a significant barrier to the expansion of study abroad participation of U.S. undergraduate students. This study found that students who were interested in and had even applied to study abroad programs were unwilling or unable to take out further loans to finance the experience. Students are often burdened with a lot of loans already. Between 2002 and 2012 prices for undergraduate tuition, room, and board at public institutions rose forty percent (NCES, 2013). Wages have not kept up with inflation and the cost of living so student loans have come to play an increasingly important role in financing higher education. Between 2004 and 2012, the total student debt in the United States nearly tripled from $364 billion in 2004 to $966 billion in 2012; (Brown, Haughwout, Lee, Scally & Van Der Klaauw, 2014). This translates to an average student debt increase of 14% per year. Combined with a relatively weak dollar compared to currencies in the

countries in which most students study abroad, it is understandable that students who are already taking on a lot of loan debt are reluctant to take out even more in order to finance study abroad.

Colleges and universities need to provide students information about finances and study abroad early on in their college careers. The information should be delivered through a variety of instructional delivery methods to address different learning styles. Students will need to know that the cost of study abroad depends on many factors including the type of program, the location, the length of stay, and the value of the dollar relative to the foreign currency. They should be provided with information on how to research all study abroad-related costs (including those not often factored into study abroad program fees such as airfare and meals), strategies for working within a budget, and how to find scholarships. Perhaps most importantly, students should also be provided with resources that advise them on how to talk to their parents about study abroad. If students are able to discuss the value of study abroad with a few facts and figures, it will help students convince their parents to support their plans.

Implications for Future Research

This dissertation reveals a number of areas for future research. The binary logistic regression analysis provided results similar to those found by other researchers who have examined participation and non-participation in study abroad among the general student population. However, some results, such as the lack of significance of variables such as gender, race, and major to study abroad participation among students warrant further exploration. Additional studies should be conducted with populations at other types of institutions, for example private colleges and universities, more racially diverse

institutions and institutions outside of the northeastern United States in order to determine whether or not student characteristics are related to study abroad participation in similar ways.

Using and if necessary, modifying, existing questionnaires or software to track student study abroad queries is a simple and effective way to collect information about intent to study abroad. With more and more study abroad offices utilizing software over paper, a wealth of data is more readily available to researchers wishing to explore factors that influence study abroad participation at their institutions. Such research can provide institutions with valuable data that can lead to important changes in policies and curriculum that will help expand study abroad participation. As the data collected for this study is a few years old, one possible action for the future is replication of this study with more recent data to see if institutional and curricular changes that have occurred since this study took place have impacted the variables associated with study abroad participation.

The focus group findings suggest that peers and academic advisors are important to student decisions to study abroad or not, but the findings also revealed more complex barriers to study abroad such as not wanting to miss out on life at the university. Institutions of higher education put much effort into the student experience and establish a sense of belonging in order to retain students. It could be that some of these efforts are impacting study abroad participation. Additional qualitative work could be done to help tease out the intricacies of this particular barrier to study abroad. Conducting focus groups at other campuses with different populations (e.g., a private college, a public institution in another geographic region) and with different levels of participation in study

abroad could provide deeper understanding of this phenomenon. The Decision to Study Abroad Model (BaileyShea, 2009), which was used as a framework for this study, provides a good basis for understanding student decision making around study abroad; however, there may be other theoretical models that could help explain the study abroad decision-making process.

Limitations

The quantitative portion of this study has four notable limitations. First, the data available through the Study Abroad profile and the university information system may not have provided as many variables in some categories as proposed in the Decision to Study Abroad Framework (Bailey Shea, 2009). Institutional factors and student beliefs and attitudes were two categories for which the data for the logistic regression analysis was not sufficient to explore fully these categories. Qualitative methods proved better for the exploration of these factors. Second, since the research was conducted at a large, public research university in the northeast U.S., it is important to note that the findings may not be generalizable to other institutions or public research universities outside of that region. Nevertheless, the study does provide some valuable information about study abroad participation at this university and likely others in the northeast, which have not yet been studied. Third, the regression model included a non-continuous variable (GPA), which is treated in the analysis as a continuous variable. Although incorporating non-continuous variables in regression models is a common practice within higher education research, it is considered by some statisticians to violate "the mathematical logical system" on which parametric statistics are based (Newton & Rudestam, 1999, p. 183). Finally, for practical reasons (e.g., too few cases in any individual racial or non-White

ethnic group), students of color were grouped together for data analysis. There may be important differences among racial or ethnic groups worthy of examination in future studies.

There are several limitations to the use of focus groups as qualitative research that must also be acknowledged. First, while the goal of focus groups is not generalizability, the experiences as relayed by the student participants in the two focus groups included in this study may differ from the larger population of students who expressed intent to study abroad at the university or elsewhere. Second, the study comprises fifteen participants from the university who self-selected into the study. These students may be more outgoing or less busy with academics than other students who had expressed intent to study abroad. Thus, it is possible that the focus groups fail to reveal the full range of perspectives of non-participants in study abroad. Third, because of the interactive nature inherent to focus groups, some themes or topics were discussed in one focus group but not the other. The individuals in each focus group may not have expressed their own definitive individual view and may have been influenced by other members of the focus group. With these limitations in mind, the inferences made based on the focus group data obtained should be treated as exploratory.

Conclusion

Participation in study abroad is growing steadily, but not at the rate it must to meet the ambitious goals set by the IIE Generation Study Abroad initiative or the languishing Simon Act. Colleges and universities will have to do more than maintain the status quo to meet such lofty goals. Most research into study abroad participation has focused on the general student population, or on students who expressed passive interest

in study abroad through a response to one question out of hundreds on a freshman survey. While this research approach yields some understanding of barriers to study abroad, it is unlikely that it is the most helpful tactic to achieving greater participation in study abroad in a short amount of time. By researching the often overlooked population of students who have expressed active and genuine intent to study abroad, it is possible to develop an understanding of the obstacles that prevent these enthusiastic students from realizing their goal to study abroad. Universities can then take specific actions to minimize or remove those obstacles. The results of this research reveal that students who have expressed active intent to study abroad are already aware of the many potential positive outcomes study abroad can afford, including personal growth and increased career development. As previously stated, this population of students is "low-hanging fruit." They should be among the easiest to send abroad and make gains in study abroad participation goals.

Given the increasing interconnectedness of the world today, it is certain that internationalization efforts and national initiatives that call for increasing participation in study abroad by U.S undergraduates is only going grow and become more urgent. Currently, little has been done by those calling for increased participation in study abroad to suggest how exactly to make the desired expansion happen. If study abroad is important to higher education and the future of the country, then colleges, universities and governmental organizations must engage in further research to understand the myriad of factors that lead to participation in study abroad. Some of this study's findings about students who have acted on their intent to study abroad are similar to the findings of prior research on factors that influence participation in study abroad among the general student population or students who have expressed passive intent to study abroad. However,

other findings are new. Academic, extracurricular, personal and institutional barriers, once identified, can be ameliorated to some extent; how much will depend on the willingness of the government and university leadership to prioritize study abroad participation.

TABLES

Table 3.1: University Characteristics

Undergraduate Enrollment	21,928
Race	1.9% Nonresident Aliens 4.8% Hispanic/Latino 3.5% African American/Black 67.9% White Non-Hispanic 7.4% Asian 2.1% more than two race (non Hispanic) 1.9% Unknown race
% Financial Aid	59% Grants/loans/work-study
Student to Faculty Ratio	18 to 1
% Live on Campus	61%
% Studying Abroad	5.8%

Table 3.2: Comparison of Study Abroad Profile Completers

		Studied abroad (n=1316)	Did not study abroad (n=653)
Gender			
	Female	66.8%	33.2%
	Male	32.2%	66.8%
Race			
	White	82.9%	81.2%
	Non-White	9.8%	12.4%
	Did not report	7.2%	6.4%
Entrance			
	Freshman	86.6%	79.3%
	Transfer	13.4%	20.7%
Proximity			
	99 – mi	62.3%	66.5%
	100 + mi	37.7%	33.5%
Residency			
	In-state	79.8%	80.6%
	Out-of-state	20.2%	19.4%
Financial need			
	None	41.6%	32.0%
	Need	39.9%	45.5%
	High Need	18.5%	22.3%
Travel abroad			
	0-2 times	46.7%	60.1%
	3 + times	53.3%	39.9%
Interest			
	Friends	44.2%	45.8%
	Family	22.7%	16.8%
	Faculty	20.4%	19.6%
	Outreach	12.5%	17.8%
Friends/relatives			
Abroad	No	56.9%	17.0%
	Yes	43.1%	83.0%
Major			
	Social Sciences	32.1%	35.4%
	Phys/Life Sci	8.4%	7.5%
	Business/mgmt.	22.2%	20.6%
	Engineering	2.5%	3.5%
	Arts	4.9%	4.7%
	Foreign lang	5.1%	4.4%
	Health sciences	7.5%	7.5%
	Humanities	12.3%	10.7%
	Math/Comp Sci	1.4%	2.3%
	Other	3.6%	3.4%
Honors College			
	No	77.6%	88.2%
	Yes	22.4%	11.8%

Table 3.2: Comparison of Study Abroad Profile Completers, continued

College level			
Foreign lang	No	33.8%	48.2%
GPA	Yes	66.2%	51.8%
	Mean GPA	3.36	3.20
Activities			
	0-2	85.6%	89.7%
	3 or more	14.4%	10.3%
Varsity sport			
	No	98.7%	98.4%
	Yes	1.3%	1.6%
Greek life			
	No	90.2%	90.6%
	Yes	9.8%	9.4%
Chance			
	High	92.7%	71.9%
	Some	7.1%	27.7%
	Little	0.2%	0.4%
Obstacle			
	None	27.7%	14.5%
	Money	46.6%	51.2%
	Family	3.3%	3.8%
	Friends	1.7%	1.1%
	Boy/Girlfriend	2.3%	2.4%
	Not grad time	11.0%	16.9%
	Extracurricular	1.2%	1.1%
	Job	0.8%	1.2%
	Other	5.4%	7.8%

Table 3.3: Demographic Characteristics of Study Abroad Profile Completers and Non-Completers v. Undergraduate Population

Demographic Characteristic		University Population (N=20,928)	Completed Study Abroad Profile (n=1,969)	Did not complete Study Abroad Profile (n=759)
Study Abroad				
	Studied Abroad	5.8%	62.2%	61.0%
	Didn't Study Abroad	94.2%	37.8%	39.0%
	Withdrew	-	5.5%	5.6%
Gender				
	Female	48.4%	68.7%	61.1%
	Male	51.6%	31.3%	38.9%
Race				
	White	67.9%	82.4%	75.0%
	Non-White	17.8%	10.7%	16.2%
	Did not report	1.9%	6.9%	8.8%
Entrance				
	Freshman	81.6%	84.2%	83.9%
	Transfer	18.4%	15.8%	16.1%
Residency				
	In-state	77.2%	80.1%	78.9%
	Out-of-state	22.8%	19.9%	21.1%
Honors College				
	Honor's College student	14.1%	18.9%	17.1%
	Not Honor's College student	85.9%	81.1%	82.9%
Major				
	Social Sciences	19.6%	33.3%	29.5%
	Phys/Life Sci	17.9%	8.1%	9.7%
	Business/mgmt.	15.8%	21.6%	23.1%
	Engineering	7.9%	2.8%	1.4%
	Arts	3.0%	4.8%	7.2%
	Foreign lang	1.3%	4.9%	4.5%
	Health sciences	9.1%	7.5%	5.4%
	Humanities	6.7%	11.8%	12.1%
	Math/Comp Sci	3.5%	1.7%	1.2%
	Other	15.2%	3.6%	3.2%
GPA				
	Mean GPA	-	3.31	3.24

Table 3.4 Logistic Regression Independent Variables

	Background Characteristics
Gender	A variable indicating students' gender as reported in the university database (0=female, 1=male)
Race	Two variables indicating students' race as reported in the university database (0=White, 1=Non-White) (0=White, 1=Did Not Report)
Admit as transfer	A variable indicating if a student entered the university as a freshman or transfer as reported in the university database (0=freshman, 1=transfer)
Proximity 100+mi	A variable indicating self-reported distance of university from permanent home (0=100 miles or less, 1=over 100 miles)
Resident	A variable indicating students' resident status as reported in the university database (0=in-state, 1=out of state)
Financial Need	Two variables indicating self-reported financial need (0=receive no financial aid, 1=receive aid but not Pell Grant (some need)) (0=receive no financial aid, 2=receive aid including Pell Grant (high need))
Travel abroad 3+ times	A variable indicating the self-reported number of times a student has traveled outside of their home country (0=none, one or two times, 1=three or more times)
Interest	Three variables indicating students' self-reported source of interest in study abroad (0=friends, 1= family) (0=friends, 1=faculty) (0=friends, 1=university outreach)
Family or Friends Abroad	A single dummy-coded variable indicating students self-reporting ever having a friend or family member live or study abroad (0=no, 1=yes)
	Academic Involvement
Major	Nine variables indicating students' primary major as reported in the university database (0=Social Sciences, 1=Physical and Life Sciences) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Business and Management) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Engineering) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Arts) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Foreign Language) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Health Sciences) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Humanities) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Mathematics and Computer Sciences) (0=Social Sciences, 1=Other)
GPA	A continuous variable indicating students' cumulative GPA on a standard 4 point scale as reported in the university database at the time of completion of the study abroad profile
Honors	A variable indicating students' membership in the university honors college as reported in the university database (0=no; 1=yes)

Table 3.4 Logistic Regression Independent Variables, continued

College level Foreign Language	A variable indicating students self-reporting studying or having studied a foreign language at the college-level (0=no, 1=yes)
	Extracurricular Involvement
# of Activities	A variable indicating the number of extra-curricular activities in which students self-reported participating (0=none, one or two, 1=three or more)
Varsity Sport	A variable indicating students' self-reported participation in a varsity sport (0=no, 1=yes)
Greek Life	A variable indicating students' self-reported participation in a social fraternity or sorority (0=no, 1=yes)
	Beliefs & attitudes
Chance	Two variables indicating students' self-reported chance of studying abroad (0=very likely, 1=some) (0=very likely, 2=little)
Obstacle	Eight variables indicating the biggest obstacle to students' plans to study abroad (0=none, 1=money) (0=none, 1= family) (0=none, 1 =friends) (0=none, 1=boyfriend/girlfriend) (0=none, 1=not being able to graduate on time) (0=none, 1=extracurricular sports/activities) (0=none, 1=job) (0=none, 1=other)

Table 3.5: Inter-Item Correlations

	Studied abroad	Male	Non-White	Race unknown	Proximity	Transfer student	Financial need	High financial need	Travelled abroad 3+ times	Interest from family	Interest from faculty	Interest outreach
Studied abroad	1											
Male	-.029	1										
Non-White	-.039	.021	1									
DNR race	.014	.022	-.095**	1								
101 + mi	.041	.078**	-.013	.022	1							
Admit as transfer	-.093**	.085**	-.029	.013	-.056*	1						
Financial need	-.053*	.027	.023	.027	-.007	-.015	1					
High financial need	-.046*	-.011	.082	.000	-.030	.099**	-.420**	1				
Travel abroad 3+ times	.126**	.007	-.027	.012	.074**	.004	.095**	-.064**	1			
Interest Family	.068**	.018	-.028	-.032	.021	-.058**	.009	-.107**	.076**	1		
Interest Faculty	.009	.008	.006	-.017	-.043	.066**	.005	.062**	.030	-.258**	1	
Interest Other	-.071**	-.037	-.024	.014	-.018	.018	.008	.075**	-.065**	-.209**	-.205**	1

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Studied abroad	Male	Non-White	Race unknown	Proximity	Transfer student	Financial need	High financial need	Travelled abroad 3+ times	Interest from family	Interest from faculty	Interest outreach
Friends/ Relatives Abroad	.078**	.025	-.010	.036	-.010	-.027	-.009	-.069**	.107**	.138**	-.061**	-.110**
Some Chance	-.280**	.000	.040	-.012	-.024	.038	.012	.076**	-.086**	-.098**	.013	.012
Little Chance	-.028	.002	.029	.040	-.002	.019	.020	.013	-.038	-.020	,013	-.016
Physical/ Life Sci major	.015	-.003	-.030	.014	-.030	.009	.029	-.002	.001	.022	-.014	.002
Bus/Mgmt major	.019	-.014	.009	-.047*	.006	-.018	.008	-.016	.014	-.014	.043	.018
Engineering Major	-.031	.005	.011	.014	.026	-.014	-.012	.009	-.030	.004	-.016	.037
Arts Major	.002	-.014	.006	-.006	-.008	-.020	-.018	.013	-.012	.019	-.025	.023
For. lang major	.016	.028	.012	.030	.018	.030	-.017	.029	.003	.022	.055*	-.039
Health major	.000	.023	.001	-.032	.025	-.050*	-.019	-.001	.014	-.009	.006	.016
Humanities Major	.024	.024	-.046*	.030	-.015	.022	.012	-.008	.000	-.009	-.031	-.028
Math/Comp Sci major	-.031	.003	.017	.025	.005	.007	-.010	-.007	-.028	-.010	.021	.035
Other Major	.007	.024	-.022	.023	-.054*	-.001	-.001	-.013	.004	.010	-.008	.008

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Studied abroad	Male	Non-White	Race unknown	Proximity	Transfer student	Financial need	High financial need	Travelled abroad 3+ times	Interest from family	Interest from faculty	Interest outreach
Honors College	.128**	-.055*	-.041	.016	-.001	-.067**	.004	-.044	.013	.022	-.009	-.011
Studied col level for lang	.089**	-.102**	-.025	-.010	.014	.022	-.009	.034	.089**	-.053*	.122**	.027
GPA	.167**	-.067**	-.034	-.006	-.063**	-.124**	-.057*	-.063**	.062**	-.051*	.077**	-.043
3 or more activities	.057*	.016	-.022	.001	-.006	-.064**	-.012	.009	.024	.066**	-.074**	.045*
Varsity sport	-.010	-.004	.030	-.015	.020	-.015	-.047*	.029	.016	-.017	.017	.039
Greek life	.007	-.035	-.002	-.001	.121**	-.043	-.019	-.032	.007	-.015	-.066**	-.055*
Money obstacle	-.043	-.087**	.005	.013	-.026	-.019	.126**	.225**	-.077**	-.068**	-.048*	.084**
Family obstacle	-.015	-.050*	.015	.003	.019	-.021	-.030	-.059**	.010	-.042	-.047*	-.006
Friends obstacle	.021	.030	-.042	.051*	-.019	-.040	-.006	-.006	-.006	.023	-.028	.000
Boy/ Girlfriend obstacle	.002	-.025	-.010	.024	-.005	-.049*	-.015	-.051*	.037	-.046*	-.002	-.015
Not grad on time obstacle	-.083**	.021	-.037	-.017	-.029	.014	-.007	-.056*	.058**	.032	-.067**	.001

*p < .05 **p < .01 (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Studied abroad	Male	Non-White	Race unknown	Proximity	Transfer student	Financial need	High financial need	Travelled abroad 3+ times	Interest from family	Interest from faculty	Interest outreach
Extracurricular sports obstacle	.006	.018	.039	-.011	-.023	-.008	-.025	-.042	-.002	-.121	.004	.037
Job obstacle	-.019	.068**	-.017	-.027	-.010	-.014	-.031	-.010	.028	-.012	.015	.004
Other obstacle	-.046*	.029	.026	-.013	.041	.072**	-.070**	-.033	.046*	.024	.044	-.057*

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Friends/ Relatives Abroad	Some Chance	Little Chance	Physical/ Life Sci major	Bus/Mgmt major	Engineer major	Arts major	For lang. major	Health major	Humanities major	Math/Comp Sci major	Other major
Friends/ Relatives Abroad	1											
Some Chance	-.115**	1										
Little Chance	-.023	.097*	1									
Physical/ Life Sci major	-.005	-.006	-.012	1								
Bus/Mgmt major	-.013	-.044*	-.021	-.156**	1							
Engineering major	.003	.003	-.007	-.050*	-.089**	1						
Arts major	.032	-.002	.052*	-.067**	-.118**	-.038	1					
For. lang major	-.008	.003	-.009	-.067**	-.120**	-.039	-.051*	1				
Health major	-.014	-.015	.038	-.084**	-.150**	-.048*	-.064**	-.065**	1			
Humanities Major	.013	.002	.026	-.109**	-.192**	-.062**	-.082**	-.083**	-.104**	1		
Math/Comp Sci major	-.006	.014	-.005	-.039	-.070**	-.022	-.030	-.030	-.038	-.049*	1	
Other major	.018	.033	-.007	-.057*	-.101**	-.033	-.043	-.044	-.055*	-.070**	-.025	1

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Friends/ Relatives Abroad	Some Chance	Little Chance	Physical/ Life Sci major	Bus/Mgmt major	Engineer major	Arts major	For lang. major	Health major	Humanities major	Math/Comp Sci major	Other major
Friends/ Relatives Abroad	1											
Some Chance	-.115**	1										
Little Chance	-.023	.097*	1									
Physical/ Life Sci major	-.005	-.006	-.012	1								
Bus/Mgmt major	-.013	-.044*	-.021	-.156**	1							
Engineering major	.003	.003	-.007	-.050*	-.089**	1						
Arts major	.032	-.002	.052*	-.067**	-.118**	-.038	1					
For. lang major	-.008	.003	-.009	-.067**	-.120**	-.039	-.051*	1				
Health major	-.014	-.015	.038	-.084**	-.150**	-.048*	-.064**	-.065**	1			
Humanities Major	.013	.002	.026	-.109**	-.192**	-.062**	-.082**	-.083**	-.104**	1		
Math/Comp Sci major	-.006	.014	-.005	-.039	-.070**	-.022	-.030	-.030	-.038	-.049*	1	
Other major	.018	.033	-.007	-.057*	-.101**	-.033	-.043	-.044	-.055*	-.070**	-.025	1

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Friends/ Relatives Abroad	Some Chance	Little Chance	Physical/ Life Sci Major	Bus/Mgmt major	Engineer major	Arts major	For lang. major	Health major	Humanities major	Math/Comp Sci major	Other Major
Honors College	.036	.052**	-.019	.062**	-.042	.021	.000	.016	-.024	.056*	.016	.048*
Studied col level for lang	.035	-.040	-.020	-.020	-.028	-.037	.014	-.001	-.035	.012	.042	.013
GPA	.097**	-.068**	-.037	.014	-.015	.043	-.011	.008	-.027	.011	-.014	.032
3 or more activities	.053*	-.038	-.015	.013	.006	-.011	-.017	-.011	.022	.027	.007	-.009
Varsity Sport0	-.005	-.010	-.005	-.019	.012	.007	-.006	-.007	.000	-.030	.018	.025
Greek life	.016	.002	.031	-.002	-.025	-.003	-.001	-.003	.024	-.018	.023	-.007
Money obstacle	-.059**	.073**	.015	-.002	.001	.016	.002	.021	-.001	-.016	-.003	-.009
Family obstacle	-.025	.036	-.007	-.015	.036	-.032	-.004	-.017	.009	-.009	.060**	-.021
Friends obstacle	.009	.001	-.005	.012	-.011	.032	-.027	.-.027	-.034	-.004	-.016	.093
Boy/ Girlfriend obstacle	.001	.035	-.006	.004	-.016	.035	.012	-.004	-.031	-.015	.031	.025
Not grad on time obstacle	.040	.027	.024	-.015	.064**	-.011	-.003	-.012	-.030	-.016	-.028	-.025

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Friends/ Relatives Abroad	Some Chance	Little Chance	Physical/ Life Sci Major	Bus/Mgmt major	Engineer major	Arts major	For lang. major	Health major	Humanities major	Math/Comp Sci major	Other Major
Extracur. or sports obstacle	.029	-.003	-.004	.032	-.023	.039	-.024	-.003	.023	-.011	-.014	.030
Job obstacle	-.007	.035	-.004	-.029	-.001	-.017	.002	-.022	.031	-.004	-.013	-.010
Other obstacle	-.017	.066**	-.010	.024	-.039	.007	.001	-.030	.006	.029	-.002	-.027

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Honors College	Studied col lev for lan	GPA	3 or more activities	Varsity sport	Greek life	Money obstacle	Family obstacle	Friends obstacle	Boy/ Girlfriend obstacle	Not Grad On time obstacle
Honors College	1										
Studied col level for lang	.014	1									
GPA	.112**	.069**	1								
3 or more activities	.010	-.029	.084**	1							
Varsity Sport	-.023	.012	-.053*	-.020	1						
Greek life	.001	-.004	-.074**	-.050*	-.039	1					
Money obstacle	-.028	.003	.006	.003	-.052*	-.011	1				
Family obstacle	-.034	-.036	.002	.018	-.022	.023	-.182**	1			
Friends obstacle	-.014	-.028	.008	.017	-.014	.077**	.116**	-.023	1		
Boy/ Girlfriend obstacle	.028	-.025	.005	-.030	-.018	.018	-.149**	-.029	-.019	1	
Not grad on time obstacle	.013	-.031	.013	.016	-.020	-.019	-.373**	-.073**	-.047*	-.060**	1

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Honors College	Studied col lev for lan	GPA	3 or more activities	Varsity sport	Greek life	Money obstacle	Family obstacle	Friends obstacle	Boy/ Girlfriend obstacle	Not Grad On time obstacle
Extracur or sports obstacle	-.016	.006	.003	.084**	.272**	.013	-.105**	-.021	-.013	-.017	.042
Job obstacle	-.008	.042	-.008	-.007	-.012	-.032	-.095**	-.019	-.012	-.015	-.038
Other obstacle	-.023	.071**	-.066**	-.025	.042	-.013	-.248**	-.049*	-.031	-.040	-.100**

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.5, Continued

	Extracur sports obstacle	Job obstacle	Other obstacle
Extracur or sports obstacle	1		
Job obstacle	-.011	1	
Other obstacle	-.028	-.025	1

*$p < .05$ **$p < .01$ (2 – tailed)

Table 3.6: Collinearity Diagnostics

Independent Variable	Tolerance	VIF
Background Characteristics		
Male	.943	1.060
Non-White	.971	1.029
Did not report race	.973	1.028
Proximity 101+ mi	.953	1.049
Out-of-state	.936	1.068
Transfer admit	.973	1.028
Financial need	.744	1.344
High financial need	.705	1.419
Travel 3+ times	.922	1.085
Interest family	.822	1.217
Interest faculty	.809	1.236
Interest outreach	.844	1.184
Friends/relatives abr	.935	1.069
Academic Involvement		
Phys/Life Sci major	.859	1.164
Bus/Mgmt major	.758	1.319
Engineering major	.933	1.072
Arts major	.907	1.103
Foreign Lang major	.903	1.107
Health Sci major	.864	1.157
Humanities major	.824	1.213
Math/Comp Sci maj	.952	1.051
Other major	.916	1.092
Honors college	.958	1.044
College lvl for. lang	.938	1.066
Cumulative GPA	.905	1.106
Extracurricular Involvement		
3 or more activities	.959	1.042
Varsity sport	.906	1.104
Greek life	.950	1.053
Beliefs and Attitudes		
Some chance	.922	1.085
Little Chance	.976	1.024
Money obstacle	.546	1.833
Family obstacle	.873	1.146
Friends obstacle	.927	1.079
Boy/girlfriend ob	.909	1.100
Not Grad on time ob	.712	1.405
Extracur obstacle	.875	1.143
Job obstacle	.952	1.050
Other Obstacle	.811	1.233

Table 3.7: Focus Group Participant Characteristics

		Group 1 (N=10)	Group 2 (N=5)
Gender			
	Male	1	3
	Female	9	2
Race			
	African/African-American or Black	0	0
	Asian, Asian American or Pacific Islander	0	0
	Latino(a), Hispanic, or Chicano(a)	0	0
	Native American, North or South American Indian, or Alaskan	0	0
	White	9	5
Entrance			
	Freshman	8	2
	Transfer	2	3
Proximity			
	Over 100 miles	2	0
	100 miles or less	8	5
Residency			
	Out-of-state	0	1
	In-state	10	4
Financial Need			
	No Need	3	0
	Need	5	3
	High Need	2	2
Prior Travel outside U.S.	0-2 times	5	1
	3 or more times	5	4
Interest in study Abroad	Family	0	1
	Faculty	10	4
	Outreach	0	0
Friends/relatives ever abroad	Yes	8	5
	No	2	0
Major			
	Social Sciences	1	1
	Physical/Life Sci.	1	1
	Bus/Mgmt.	3	3
	Engineering	1	0
	Arts	0	0

Table 3.7: Continued

	Foreign language	1	0
	Health Sciences	1	0
	Humanities	1	0
	Math/Comp Sci.	1	0
	Other	0	0
Honors College			
	Yes	1	0
	No	9	5
College level foreign language	Yes	4	4
	No	6	1
Cumulative GPA Focus Group Average		3.27	3.22
Extracurricular activities	0-2	1	4
	3 or more	9	1
Varsity sport			
	Yes	1	1
	No	9	4
Greek life			
	Yes	0	0
	No	10	5
Obstacle			
	None	1	0
	Money	7	4
	Family	0	0
	Friends	0	0
	Boy/Girlfriend	0	0
	Not grad on time	2	1
	Extracurricular	0	0
	Job	0	0
	Other	0	0

Table 3.8 Majors & Major Categories of Focus Group Participants

Focus Group 1 (N=10)	Focus Group 2 (N=5)
Biology	Biochemistry
English	Finance
Finance	Hospitality & Tourism
Hospitality & Tourism	Marketing
Japanese	Psychology
Mathematics	
Management	
Mechanical Engineering	
Nutrition	
Political Science	

Table 4.1: Logistic Regression Classification of Cases

	Null (N=1969) Predicted		Model Predicted	
	Didn't study abroad	Studied abroad	Didn't Study abroad	Studied abroad
Didn't study abroad	0	652	220	432
Studied abroad	0	1317	114	1203
% Correct	0%	100%	33.7%	91.3%
Total % Correct	66.9%		72.3%	

Table 4.2: Logistic Regression Results

	B	Exp(B)
Background Characteristics		
Male	.001	1.001
Non-White	-.140	.869
Did Not Report Race	.100	1.105
Admit as transfer	-.365	.694**
Proximity 101+ mi	.142	1.153
Residency out-of-state	.082	1.086
Financial need	-.213	.808
Financial need high	-.108	.897
Travel abroad 3+ times	.393	1.486***
Interest from family	.073	1.076
Interest from faculty	-.051	.950
Interest from outreach	-.361	.697*
Friends/Relatives abr	.057	1.058
Academic Involvement		
Phys or Life Sci maj	.128	1.136
Business or Mgmt maj	.161	1.174
Engineering major	-.362	.696
Arts major	.079	1.082
Foreign Languages maj	.176	1.193
Health Sciences maj	.039	1.040
Humanities maj	.194	1.214
Math or Comp Sci maj	-.387	.679
Other maj	.100	1.105
Honors College	.658	1.931***
College lev for lang	.339	1.403**
Cumulative GPA	.664	1.943***
Extracurricular Involvement		
3 or more activities	.269	1.309
Varsity sport	-.134	.874
Greek life	.000	1.000
Personal Beliefs & Attitudes		
Chance some	-1.403	.246***
Chance little	.665	1.944
Obstacle money	-.398	.0672**
Obstacle family	-.499	.607
Obstacle friends	.128	1.137
Obstacle boy/girlfriend	-.353	.703
Obstacle not grad time	-.938	.391***
Obstacle extracur	-.238	.788
Obstacle job	-.829	.436
Obstacle other	-.642	.526**
Constant	-1.326	.265**
N	1969	
Cox & Snell Pseudo-R Square	.144	
Nagelkerke Pseudo-R Square	.201	
-2 Log likelihood	2193.290	

APPENDIX A

STUDY ABROAD PROFILE QUESTIONS

How did you become interested in studying abroad? Please select one.

Friends
Faculty
Announcements in class
Study Abroad Information Session
Posters
Family
IPO website
Campus tour
Learning Commons
New Students Program
Admissions Open House
Academic Department Open House
Other

In what region(s) would you like to study abroad? Please select no more than two regions.

Africa
Asia
Australia/Pacific Islands
Caribbean
Central America
Europe
Middle East
North America (Canada, Mexico)
South America

What are your goals for study abroad? Please select at least 1 response, but no more than 3.

Learn About Another Culture
Improve Language Skills
Travel Abroad
Meet New People
Enhance my Education
Increase Job Opportunities
Prepare for Graduate School
Other

APPENDIX A, continued

Up until now, how many times have you travelled outside your home country? Please select one.

Never
1-2 times
3-4 times
5 or more times

Please select if any of the following have ever lived abroad.

Parent/Guardian
Sibling
Other relative
Friend
None

Have you studied a foreign language at the college level (e.g., taken classes at the University or passed out of the language requirement)? If yes, please list the language.

Yes
No

At this point, what is the chance that you will study abroad? Please select one.

Very good chance
Some chance
Very little chance
No chance

What do you see as the biggest obstacle for you to study abroad? Select only 1 response.

Money
Family
Friends
Boyfriend/Girlfriend
Not being able to graduate on time
Extracurricular activities/sports
Job
Other
None (I do not see any obstacles to studying abroad)

APPENDIX A, continued

Are you involved in any student activities? If you are involved in any Registered Student Organizations (RSOs) other student groups, student government or intramural sports, please list them here.

Yes
No

Which of the following sources do you expect to use to finance your study abroad experience? Please select all that apply.

Family resources (parents, relatives, etc.)
My own resources (savings from work)
Financial Aid (including Direct and alternative loans)
Bank/Private loans
Other

This semester, what types of financial aid have you received from the University. Select all that apply. If you are unsure, please save this questionnaire, and check. UMass Amherst students can check on SPIRE (under Finances & Financial Aid). You may return to the questionnaire at any time to complete it.

Pell Grant
Other federal or state grant(s)
Subsidized loan(s)
Unsusidized loan(s)
Scholarship(s)
Tuition Waiver(s)
Work study
I do not receive financial aid

Do you have any concern about your ability to finance study abroad? Please select one.

None. (I am confident I will have sufficient funds)
Some (but I will probably have enough funds)
Major (not sure I will have enough funds)

How many miles is the University from your permanent home? If you are unsure, you can open another browser tab and use maps.google.com or mapquest.com to check before making your selection.

5 or less
6-10
11-50
51-100
101-500
Over 500

Please indicate your citizenship status. Please select one.

U.S. citizen
Permanent Resident (green card)
Dual Citizen
Other

APPENDIX B

SAMPLE FOCUS GROUP E-MAIL

From: April Stroud
Sent: March 27, 2012 9:29 PM
To:
Subject: Students needed to participate in focus group - Receive Antonio's pizza & $20

Hi <Student>,

My name is April Stroud. I'm a doctoral student in higher education and Study Abroad Advisor at UMass Amherst. I am seeking students to participate in a discussion about your consideration of study abroad during your time as an undergraduate. I would like to hear about what/who influenced you to consider study abroad and what factor(s) led you to your decision not to.

I'll be holding two focus groups as part of my dissertation research. They will be held on Tuesday, April 3 at 5:30 pm and Friday, April 6 at 12:30 pm. I'm looking for about eight students to participate in each. The focus group will take 75 minutes -- the actual discussion will last about one hour. The focus groups will be held on the UMass campus.

Antonio's pizza and soda will be provided. As thanks for your time and participation, each focus group participant will receive $20.

If you are interested in participating in a focus group or have questions, please contact me at astroud@educ.umass.edu.

Sincerely,

April H. Stroud, M.Ed., Doctoral Candidate
International Programs Advisor
International Programs Office
University of Massachusetts Amherst
111 Thatcher Rd
467 Hills South
UMass, Amherst 01003
(413)545-4873

APPENDIX C

FOCUS GROUP INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

MIXED-METHODS INVESTIGATION OF FACTORS INFLUENCING PARTICIPATION AND NON-PARTICIPATION IN STUDY ABROAD AMONG STUDENTS WHO HAVE FORMALLY EXPRESSED INTENT

CONSENT FOR VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

I volunteer to participate in this focus group facilitated by doctoral student, April H. Stroud and understand that:

1. The area of discussion will focus on my consideration of participating in a study abroad and my reasons for choosing not to. I understand the primary purpose of this research is to develop a better understanding of factors that lead students who have expressed an interest in study abroad to either participate or not-participate. If any questions make me uncomfortable, I do not have to answer them.
2. The results of the research will be presented as a part of April's dissertation.
3. I have been told that the focus group discussion will be recorded. The recording will be used by April to remember what participants said. Only April will have access to and listen to the recording. The recording will be digitally loaded into a secure server accessible only by April. The recordings will be transcribed upon completion of the interview.
4. I understand that I give my privacy will protected and that my name will not be used in any reports that are written or published. The focus group information will be kept strictly confidential. Focus group members will be asked not to repeat anyone's comments outside of the room once the focus group has concluded.
5. I may withdraw from part or all of this study at any time.
6. I understand that the results from this research may be included in April's doctoral dissertation and may also be included in manuscripts submitted to professional journals for publication.
7. I am free to participate or not to participate without prejudice.
8. I will receive a $20 by check issued from the University within 7-10 days as a token of appreciation for participating in the focus group.
9. I have been given the opportunity to ask any questions I wish regarding this focus group. If I have any additional questions about the focus group, I may contact April H. Stroud at 413-545-4873 or by e-mail at astroud@educ.umass.edu. I may also contact April's chairperson, Dr. Elizabeth A. Williams at williams@educ.umass.edu. I have received a copy of this form.

_____

Participant's Signature Date

_____

Researcher's Signature Date

APPENDIX D

FOCUS GROUP PROTOCOL

Prospective participants will be asked to sign statements of informed consent when they arrive. Those who do so will be invited to help themselves to food and drink and to have a seat.

Distribute participant form. Explain purpose, and opt out.

Introduction

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this focus group about your consideration of studying abroad through UMass Amherst. My name is April and I'll be facilitating the focus group tonight. This focus group is being conducted as part of my dissertation research. I've been a study abroad advisor at the University of Massachusetts for almost 7 years. Tonight, I'm hoping we can have a conversation that focuses on how you learned about study abroad, your experiences exploring your options and what led you to not participate in a study abroad program. I'm going to audio record the conversation. Please listen to what each person has to say and feel free to respond if you agree or disagree with what someone else has said.

Please turn off cell phones during the discussion.

I expect the discussion will last approximately 60 minutes.

I don't anticipate that we'll be talking about anything particularly sensitive, but I want to emphasize that if anyone would like me to turn off the recording, please let me know, and I will be happy to do so. I'd like to remind everyone that your remarks tonight are confidential. I will likely quote from the focus group, but your name will not appear in the dissertation or any other publications. Does anyone have any questions?

APPENDIX D, continued

Questions.

Let's start with introductions. Please tell us your name, class year, major, and where you're from.

Questions

1. First, I'm interested in knowing how and when you learned about study abroad. I'd like to hear about what prompted you to consider study abroad. (Follow ups: Had you heard about study abroad before you became a student here? What/who most influenced you to consider study abroad?)

2. What do you see as the benefits of study abroad?

3. What do you see as negatives of study abroad?

4. Can you tell me what you thought about the study abroad advising process at UMass Amherst (probes: Did you read the website? Did you visit the Education Abroad Advising Center (advising center staffed by returned study abroad students)? Did you meet with and a study abroad advisor (member of the professional staff)? Why or why not?

5. Can you talk a little bit about how you came to decide not to study abroad? Were there reasons that prevented you from going abroad? Where there compelling reasons to stay at UMass Amherst?

6. Can you tell me about your perception of study abroad at UMass Amherst. I'd like to hear about whether you feel the university promotes study abroad. (probes: Do you feel like your major encourages study abroad? Your college? Is there anything the university could have done/provided that would have made you decide to study abroad?)

APPENDIX E

LOGISTIC REGRESSION STATISTICS

	B	S.E.	Wald	Sig.	Exp(B)
Background Characteristics					
Male	.001	.115	.000	.992	1.001
Non-White	-.140	.166	.712	.399	.869
Did Not Report Race	.100	.210	.227	.634	1.105
Admit as transfer	-.365	.1421	6.689	.010	.694
Proximity 101+ mi	.142	.112	1.619	.203	1.153
Residency out-of-state	.082	.132	.388	.533	1.086
Financial need	-.213	.124	2.961	.085	.808
Financial need high	-.108	.154	.493	.483	.897
Travel abroad 3+ times	.393	.108	13.160	< .001	1.486
Interest from family	.073	.145	.256	.613	1.076
Interest from faculty	-.051	.144	.127	.722	.950
Interest from outreach	-.361	.156	5.357	.021	.697
Friends/Relatives abr	.057	.154	.136	.712	1.058
Academic Involvement					
Phys or Life Sci maj	.128	.211	.368	.544	1.136
Business or Mgmt maj	.161	.144	1.240	.266	1.174
Engineering major	-.362	.313	1.336	.248	.696
Arts major	.079	.251	.099	.753	1.082
Foreign Languages maj	.176	.257	.469	.493	1.193
Health Sciences maj	.039	.210	.034	.853	1.040
Humanities maj	.194	.182	1.139	.286	1.214
Math or Comp Sci maj	-.387	.387	1.000	.317	.679
Other maj	.100	.308	.105	.746	1.105
Honors college	.658	.151	19.013	< .001	1.931
College lev for lang	.339	.108	9.778	.002	1.403
Cumulative GPA	.664	.124	28.529	< .001	1.943
Extracurricular Involvement					
3 or more activities	.269	.164	2.680	.102	1.309
Varsity sport	-.134	.461	.085	.771	.874
Greek life	.000	.182	.000	.979	1.000
Beliefs & Attitudes					
Chance some	-1.403	.149	89.99	< .001	.246
Chance little	.665	1.279	.70	.603	1.944
Obstacle money	-.398	.149	7.169	.007	.0672
Obstacle family	-.499	.303	2.717	.099	.607
Obstacle friends	.128	.503	.065	.799	1.137
Obstacle boy/girlfriend	-.353	.371	.904	.342	.703
Obstacle not grad time	-.938	.185	25.840	< .001	.391
Obstacle extracur	-.238	.522	.208	.648	.788
Obstacle job	-.829	.527	2.478	.115	.436
Obstacle other	-.642	.239	7.225	.007	.526
Constant	-1.326	.469	8.009	.005	.265

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