

**AFFECTIVE LEARNING OUTCOMES OF SHORT-TERM STUDY
ABROAD: THE IMPACT OF ACADEMIC VS. TRIP CHARACTERISTICS**

by

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This dissertation is dedicated to my parents—Dou Zhiping and Chen Wenli.

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GLOSSARY

Affective domain of educational objectives: Bloom et al. (1956) have established a threefold division of educational objectives—cognitive, affective, and psychomotor (i.e., behavioral). The affective domain of objectives is defined as follows: “... Objectives which emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex but internally consistent qualities of character and conscience” (Krathwohl et al., 1964, p. 7).

Affective learning outcomes: The learning outcomes that fall within the affective domain of educational objectives, which focus on attitude formation (about oneself, others, and things such as school subjects, national symbols, and social standards) as well as the belief systems and values that become an integral part of any individual’s life (UNESCO, 1992).

Education abroad: Education that occurs outside the participant’s home country, including study abroad programs and other international experiences driven to a significant degree by learning goals, such as work, volunteering, non-credit internship, and directed travel (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2011).

Study abroad: A subtype of education abroad that takes place outside the participant’s home country (or the country in which they are enrolled as full-time students) and results in progress towards an academic degree at the student’s home institution. According to the standard definition accepted by international educators in the U.S., the term *study abroad* excludes the pursuit of a full academic degree at a foreign institution (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2011).

Short-term study abroad: A subtype of study abroad with a duration of eight weeks or less. Most short-term programs last from one week to eight weeks during the summer, January, or other terms (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2011). For the purpose of this study, summer programs longer than eight weeks are excluded due to their significant resemblance (in terms of duration, format, etc.) to semester-long (i.e., long-term) study abroad programs.

Academic characteristics of study abroad: The program features that reflect the formal education component of study abroad, including subject area of courses taken abroad, language of course instruction, host country language (non-English) learning, academic context of in-classroom activities, outside-of-classroom activities (e.g., internship, service learning, etc.), intentional cultural activities (e.g., cultural courses/workshops, on-site mentoring, etc.), interactions with host country/university students, faculty, staff, or professionals, and intentional reflection through writing or journaling.

Trip characteristics of study abroad: The program features that reflect the travel component of study abroad, including the geographical region of the host destination (representing the cultural distance to the U.S.), duration, type of housing, management of travel logistics, type of travel participated for leisure/tourism (e.g., package tour, independent travel, etc.), major tourism activities (e.g., sightseeing, shopping, etc.), and casual interactions with local people.

ABSTRACT

The world grows increasingly interdependent and culturally diverse. As future talents to lead and sustain the global society, college graduates need to possess not only cognitive knowledge and technical skills but also affective qualities such as positive attitudes, values, and emotional responses. These qualities, which can be acquired as affective learning outcomes through education, underpin the proper application of knowledge and skills across various situations, enabling individuals to live and work effectively in a complex environment. Realizing the importance of affective development to individual students and the society at large, higher education institutions in the U.S. have supplemented traditional in-classroom studies with experiential and transformative learning activities, which are instrumental in students' affective learning progress. Short-term study abroad represents such an institutional practice that is gaining popularity as part of undergraduate education. Against this backdrop, the educational effectiveness of short-term study abroad is of particular interest to researchers and practitioners. By identifying the gap of literature to date, the current study leverages the uniqueness of short-term study abroad as incorporating distinct components of international travel and formal education within a relatively brief time frame that mirrors a tourist experience. The study aims at providing insights into the learning that occurs when tourism activities are overlaid with formal education and promoting a deeper understanding of the travel-learning linkage.

Guided by the theoretical frameworks of experiential learning, transformative learning, and the affective taxonomy that classifies affective learning outcomes along a continuum of lower- to higher-level internalization, the empirical investigation of the study starts with a systematic synthesis of the extant literature on affective learning outcomes accrued from short-term study abroad. As a result, five salient outcome variables, ranging from lower- to higher-order in the affective taxonomy, are identified along with their respective measurement scales—*perspectives on global interdependence, intercultural attitudes, openness to diversity and challenge, environmental attitudes, and general self-efficacy*. Then, a mixed methods study, including the collection and analyses of pre-departure and post-program quantitative survey data and follow-up focus group data, is conducted to examine short-term study abroad participants' acquisition of the aforementioned learning outcomes. Specifically, the study abroad experience is deconstructed into the formal education (i.e., academic characteristics) and travel (i.e., trip

characteristics) components; the overall impact of program participation as well as the specific effects of such components and characteristics on students' affective learning are investigated. The mixed-methods results confirm that lower-order affective learning outcomes, represented by conscious awareness and willingness to respond, can be attained or strengthened relatively easily, while higher-order affective learning—such as value development and internalization—is less likely to show notable changes.

The empirical outcome of the study results in a conceptual model of affective learning in short-term study abroad. The model highlights the roles of experiential learning and language learning curricula, tourism activities that enable active engagement and authentic immersion, as well as inter- and intra-group interactions for academic and social purposes. Since the characteristics of study abroad programs reflect both formal education and travel components within a short span, they require students' proactive adaptation to a dynamic environment and minimize their reliance on the autopilot mode, thus are more likely to lead to transformative learning benefits such as enhanced affective qualities. The findings of the study enrich the extant literature on learning theories by articulating the connections among experiential learning, transformative learning, and learning in the affective domain. The empirical evidence illustrates that experiential and transformative learning approaches can lead to affective learning outcomes. The findings also advance the study abroad literature by establishing the two-component program structure of formal education and travel. Such a structure enables a holistic understanding of the study abroad experience and helps reveal the underlying mechanism of how learning effects are gained through program participation. It promotes the understanding of the conceptual linkage between study abroad and tourism in general. Especially, the findings resonate with the sociological discussions of study abroad participants as non-institutionalized tourists, who show a higher-level desire for authenticity and social contact during travel and may achieve personal transformation from the tourism experience. The conceptual model developed in the study further advocates for the investigation of study abroad as a viable venue for analyzing the educational benefits of travel.

The findings of this study also present institutional implications for higher education practitioners. The study recommends a balanced structural design of short-term study abroad programs that incorporates impactful academic and trip characteristics. Program organizers should attach a greater weight to creating learning opportunities that can hardly be found in the

home campus environment or obtained through mass tourism experiences. When advising prospective participants on choosing their study abroad program, academic advisors may categorize the programs in the orientation of either focusing on formal education or international travel and recommend one according to students' reported priorities and personal goals. In evaluating study abroad programs, educational leaders should specify lower-order affective learning outcomes as immediate impacts and determine participants' measurable gains, while assessing higher-order affective outcomes as long-term impacts through longitudinal appraisal of educational effectiveness. Overall, higher education policymakers should commit more institutional input to developing such highly impactful and transformative experiences that integrate travel and formal education.

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

The linked concepts of globalization and internationalization are among the most discussed and researched aspects of higher education (HE) in the last two decades (Tight, 2021). Globalization describes the increasing interdependence of the world where international trends and developments significantly affect those of the national and the local (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Teichler, 2004). To prepare for taking their places in today's global economy and society, college students need to obtain not only advanced knowledge and technical skills but also “a certain mental flexibility, self-motivation, and psychological mobility” (Aktas et al., 2017; Friedman, 2005, p. 276; Tight, 2021). In the United States, HE institutions respond to this demand by undertaking internationalization—“integrating international and multicultural perspectives and experiences into the learning, discovery and engagement mission” (Kight, 1994, as cited in National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, 2004, p. 2). Among such practices, the promotion of student mobility—incorporating both the inward flow of international students to study at U.S. campuses and the outward flow of domestic students to participate in education abroad experiences—represents the major internationalization effort undertaken by HE institutions (Helms et al., 2017). Against this backdrop, the current study focuses on a specific mode of student mobility—short-term study abroad programs.

Study abroad is hardly a new phenomenon in the United States. Since the 1980s, it has become an increasingly popular option for students to add an international element to their education (Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016). The impact of study abroad has been extensively investigated during the past few decades, as shown in a bibliography compiled by the Forum on Education Abroad (2017a). Previous research presents various aspects of the positive influence of study abroad on participating students, including intellectual growth and cognitive learning (e.g., Houser et al., 2011), personal development, career decision-making, and generic skills (e.g., Kronholz & Osborn, 2016; Laubscher, 1994), as well as intercultural competence and global citizenship (e.g., Elola & Oskoz, 2008; Tarrant et al., 2015). According to Bloom et al. (1956)'s *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, the aforementioned educational benefits can be placed into three major domains—cognitive, behavioral, and affective learning outcomes. Although study abroad potentially affects all three domains, researchers have suggested that the

major advantages of activities in such non-formal or mixed educational settings (e.g., study abroad, independent travel) lie in the affective domain (Eshach, 2007; Meredith et al., 1997).

Affective learning outcomes generally concern “the attitudinal/emotional development of students” (Ellis & Fouts, 1996, p. 9). To ensure that today’s college graduates survive and thrive in the globally interdependent and culturally diverse society, HE institutions are seeking to facilitate essential affective learning progress—represented by the formation of appropriate attitudes and values—on top of teaching content knowledge and practical skills (Birbeck & Andre, 2009; Immetman & Schneider, 1998). Such attitudes/values as intercultural sensitivity and consciousness of societal responsibilities can act as an important underpinning, which enables individuals to properly apply cognitive knowledge and practical skills across a range of situations and perform effectively in the increasingly complex environment (Boud & Falchikov, 2006; Shephard, 2008).

Notwithstanding the importance of affective learning outcomes to college students and the society at large, there has been a dearth of research investigating the impact of HE-based activities on their acquisition (Shephard, 2008). Meanwhile, beyond the context of HE, affective learning has been demonstrated in travel and tourism activities. For example, a frequently cited category of benefits accrued from travel is personal development. Defined as the “unfolding, growth, evolution, expansion and maturation of the individual self” (Kauffmann, 1992, p. 124), personal development is distinguished from cognitive development or the mere acquisition of knowledge and skills. It focuses on the positive changes and adaptations in a person and long-enduring personal qualities acquired through learning (Huang & Chen, 2018).

The tourism literature has recorded various dimensions of the impact of travel on personal development, such as enhancing confidence and self-efficacy, facilitating open-mindedness and tolerance of uncertainty and ambiguity, changing perceptions and attitudes, and even shifting worldviews, occupational interests, and life-context meanings (Bos et al., 2015; Francis & Yasué, 2019; Gmelch, 1997; Hassell et al., 2015; Huang & Chen, 2018). Especially for young people who are in the stage of intense exploration of personal values, beliefs, and goals, travel presents a viable means to promote affective learning by exposing them constantly to new information and unfamiliar or challenging situations (Babin & Kim, 2001; Bos et al., 2015; Gmelch, 1997; Stone & Petrick, 2013). International travel, in particular, is considered the

most impactful, as it is assumed that experiencing another culture is inherently rewarding and potentially transformative (Fordham, 2006).

Despite the notion that travel can be a catalyst for positive changes in tourists' outlooks, the learning effect of travel remains an under-researched area within the field of social science (Brown, 2009; Falk et al., 2012). One of the few venues in which scholars have been comprehensively investigating the travel-learning linkage is study abroad (Falk et al., 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Nonetheless, the extant study abroad literature only offers a starting point for understanding the educational gains related to travel (Falk et al., 2012). Study abroad represents a cluster of components—especially as a combination of formal education and travel experiences or tourist activities. However, most researchers attribute the occurred benefits to the entirety of study abroad instead of taking efforts to segregate the experience to determine how learning is affected by its various components. Thus, it is still unclear where in study abroad the learning benefits mainly come from (Stone & Petrick, 2013).

Moreover, outcome assessment research on study abroad has largely focused on language acquisition and programs with longer duration (Mody et al., 2017). Evaluation research of short-term programs—ranging from one week to eight weeks—is limited and has been producing mixed results (Anderson et al., 2016; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004). Thus, short-term study abroad is sometimes perceived as a glorified vacation with insufficient learning benefits (Behnke et al., 2014; Nguyen, 2017). Meanwhile, researchers have pointed out an emerging trend towards the appearance and acceptance of more short-term, culture-based programs that are merging the niches of education abroad and independent travel to a substantial degree (Mody et al., 2017; Roberson Jr., 2018). Therefore, it is beneficial to investigate study abroad as a combination of formal education and travel rather than treating it as “educational travel” per se or isolating it from travel experiences pursued for more mainstream motivations (Roberson Jr., 2018). Such research can promote our understanding of the learning that occurs when tourism activities are overlaid with formal education and broaden our view on the travel-learning linkage.

In the meantime, the effectiveness of HE institutions' internationalization efforts warrants further investigation. According to the most recent *Open Doors Report*, in the academic year of 2018/2019, 347,099 U.S. students participated in for-credit study abroad programs, among which 88% were undergraduates (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2020a), and about 62% were in short-term programs (IIE, 2020b). Although the number has been growing steadily over

the years, study abroad participants overall represent only about 1.8 percent of all students enrolled at HE institutions in the U.S. during the same term (National Association of Foreign Student Advisers [NAFSA], 2020a). Assessment results that corroborate the effectiveness of study abroad, especially of short-term programs, may improve the current situation of marginal participation nationwide, in which a majority of students miss the opportunity to engage in transformative global and cultural learning (Behnke et al., 2014). Furthermore, since it is mostly students and their families who support such internationalization practices through tuition and fees, more empirical evidence of the meaningful benefits of study abroad will respond to the request for HE institutions to be responsible for the resources they utilize (Mody et al., 2017; Schlarb, 2019).

Taken together, the current study aims to 1) investigate whether and how short-term study abroad programs impact on affective learning outcomes for the participating undergraduate students, and 2) develop a conceptual model outlining how the formal education (i.e., academic characteristics) and travel (i.e., trip characteristics) components of short-term study abroad can facilitate participants' affective learning. The proposed model is expected to assist HE institutions and study abroad practitioners in allocating resources more efficiently in program development and optimizing student learning in the affective domain.

Specifically, the research objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To identify the major affective learning outcomes of short-term study abroad through a systematic synthesis of the relevant literature and classify such outcomes based on the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives—the Affective Domain* (Krathwohl et al., 1964);
2. To determine if there is a significant difference between the pre-departure affective learning baseline scores and the post-program affective learning outcome scores of undergraduate students participating in short-term study abroad programs;
3. To examine the impacts of a series of academic characteristics of short-term study abroad programs on participants' affective learning outcome scores;
4. To examine the impacts of a series of trip characteristics of short-term study abroad programs on participants' affective learning outcome scores.

By achieving these research objectives, the current study contributes to the literature and practices related to study abroad and learning through travel in the following ways. First,

although learning outcomes in the affective domain have been identified as essential elements of a holistic or integrated education (UNESCO Asia and Pacific Regional Bureau for Education, 2002), few studies in the field of HE have explicitly assessed affective learning outcomes or investigated what learning activities contribute to the attainment of such outcomes (Shephard, 2008). The study abroad literature has been addressing learning outcomes that fall in the affective domain (e.g., intercultural sensitivity, open-mindedness); however, a deeper look into the literature reveals a tangled picture of learning outcomes and an evident incongruity between reported outcomes and utilized assessment tools. Such unclarity and incongruence can diminish the overall credibility of study abroad outcome assessment research. The current study is among the first attempts to clarify what affective learning outcomes accrue from short-term study abroad participation and how they are impacted by different study abroad components and specific program characteristics.

Second, this study enriches the extant research on the travel-learning linkage by deconstructing the short-term study abroad experience and examining the respective impact of academic characteristics and trip characteristics on participating students' affective learning outcomes. Third, the results of this study provide implications for pertinent university administrators, faculty and staff members, and study abroad practitioners at large in terms of program design and implementation, student advising, learning outcome assessment, as well as institutional policymaking. In turn, the current research helps encourage participation in study abroad to realize the ultimate goals of advancing HE internationalization and facilitating global citizenship and lifelong learning in college students.

CHAPTER 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The concepts of learning, travel, and study abroad are intertwined against the backdrop of internationalization as an emerging vital mission of universities in the rapidly globalizing environment (Scott, 2006). This chapter presents a review of studies pertaining to the three concepts, summarizing important findings in the previous literature and identifying research gaps. The first section describes the theoretical frameworks on which this study is based—experiential learning, transformative learning, and learning in the affective domain. The second section provides a review of studies on the benefits of tourism for individual tourists, particularly in terms of learning-related benefits. The third section is an overview of the current literature on study abroad, with an emphasis on the characteristics of study abroad programs and learning outcomes derived by participating students. The last section of this chapter presents a systematic synthesis of the extant studies regarding affective learning outcomes accrued from short-term study abroad programs. Based on the results of the synthesis and the aforementioned theoretical foundations and literature review, a conceptual framework illustrating the impacts of short-term study abroad on the salient affective learning outcomes is proposed, which will be empirically tested in this study.

2.1 Theoretical Frameworks—A Review of Relevant Learning Theories

With nearly one and a half centuries' understanding and theory-building, the concept of learning is acknowledged as a complicated matter consisting of an extensive and complex set of processes (Illeris, 2018). Although mostly associated with formal education systems (e.g., schools and in-classroom activities), in recent years, learning has become more evident as an everyday and lifelong process, which can be informal, continuous, and incidental (Merriam, 2018; Mitchell, 1998). Especially, adult and lifelong learning has received unprecedented attention from both scholars and practitioners as they gain more insights in the fields such as workforce development, social development, and management training (Sammur, 2014). In the context of learning through travel and study abroad for young adults, three theoretical approaches within the great variety of learning theories and constructions available today—experiential learning, transformative learning, and learning in the affective domain—provide the

foundation that guides the understanding of the viable connections between travel and learning (Pitman et al., 2010; Stone & Petrick, 2013). As Jarvis (1992) summarizes, learning is “of the essence of everyday living and of conscious experience; it is the process of transforming that experience into knowledge, skills, attitudes, values, and beliefs” (p. 11).

2.1.1 Experiential Learning Theory

Integrating the works of foundational experiential learning scholars, Kolb develops a dynamic and holistic model of learning from experience, which is especially applicable in explaining adult development (Kolb et al., 2001; Kolb & Kolb, 2009). Experiential learning combines experience, perception, cognition, and behavior to construct knowledge and create learning (Kolb, 1984). The experiential learning model presents an idealized cycle with four stages—concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation—to illustrate the process (Figure 1). In this recursive cycle, immediate concrete experience forms the basis for observation and reflection, which are absorbed and integrated into an idea or theory; new implications for action are then deduced from the abstract concepts and serve as guides to create new experiences (Kolb & Lewis, 1986). Experiential learning requires the involvement of the whole person—thinking, feeling, perceiving, and behaving; it calls for the recognition and active use of all the relevant life experiences, so that the meaning derived from learning can be more effectively integrated into the learner’s value systems (Kolb & Kolb, 2009). Continued reflection is a key element of experiential learning (Mouton, 2002). By reflecting upon earlier experiences and on the meaning of abstract concepts in view of the experiences, learners find examples and applications that can help them better understand the concepts and achieve the learning outcomes (Andresen et al., 2000; Kolb & Lewis, 1986).

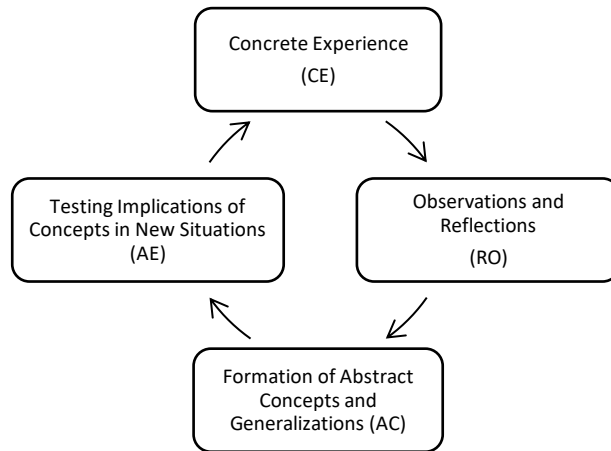


Figure 1. The experiential learning model (Kolb, 1984).

The current research on experiential learning reflects a highly interdisciplinary landscape, attending to issues of learning in various fields, such as education (K-12, HE, adult education), management and training, computer science, and psychology (Kolb et al., 2001). A series of methods and techniques have been identified in facilitating experiential learning, including computer simulations, behavioral simulations, role plays, case studies, games, clinical experience, service learning, and outdoor leadership (Kolb & Lewis, 1986; Montrose, 2002). Specific methods vary in practice as are applicable in a particular situation. For example, in vocational and professional education, frequently adopted methods include internships, on-the-job training, excursions, workshops, practicums, action research, and subtler techniques such as active learning embedded in lectures, video-based activities, problem-based learning, group work, and writing of reflective journals and self-directed projects (Andresen et al., 2000). Educational travel is considered a moderate-to-strong form of experiential learning, which excels at allowing for immediate concrete experience and providing opportunities to test the implications of concepts in new situations (Kolb & Lewis, 1986). In general, the essence of experiential learning is to learn through firsthand experiences and full-bodied realities to prompt observation, evoke reflection, and spur action (Kolb & Lewis, 1986).

Benefits of the utilization of experiential learning methods/techniques have been documented in previous research. In general, experiential learning methods present opportunities that are often lacking in the classroom environments for interpreting conceptual information in the complex and interconnected world, complement the traditional models of education to support the individualized knowledge-building in unique and creative ways, and enable students

to develop a strong ownership of their learning as they participate in the co-creation of learning experiences and determine their own objectives (Bower, 2014; McLaughlin & Johnson, 2006; Montrose, 2002). Especially for adult learners who demand learning with relevance to the realities they face and seek opportunities to test knowledge and ideas against their own accumulated experience, experiential learning techniques bring elements of realism and excitement and motivate the learners to get fully involved to acquire, use, and evaluate information (Kolb & Lewis, 1986).

In recent years, experiential learning is increasingly understood as a future-oriented framework that can address global educational issues such as intercultural competence, sustainable development, and culture/heritage preservation (Andresen et al., 2000; Gross & Rutland, 2017). Archangeli (1999) documents a study abroad program where a group of language-learning American students took classes in Austria and engaged in experiential learning in the form of out-of-class, in-depth contact with local people. The students were asked to interview two native speakers and perform a presentation right after the interviews and a self-evaluation at the end of the program. The results indicate that the students demonstrated improved language and communication skills as well as increased self-confidence and willingness to use the target language (Archangeli, 1999). Similarly, McLaughlin and Johnson (2006) look into the field-based learning as an experiential learning model in the area of environmental science and conservation biology education. The findings reveal that the international field trip provided an opportunity for the students to see the world “unbuffered” and contextualize their obtained biological knowledge with firsthand experiences, therefore achieving a deeper understanding of the biological concepts as well as the urgency and severity of the real-world environmental risks and problems (McLaughlin & Johnson, 2006).

Challenges of applying experiential learning techniques have also been noted in previous research. Specifically, Andresen et al. (2000) point out the “uncertainty, unpredictability, and indeterminacy inherent in learning through experience” (p. 232). As experiential learning enables the students’ own negotiated curriculum and distinct learning outcomes among a cohort of learners, it is difficult to ensure that experiential learning connects coherently with the established disciplines or fields of study (Andresen et al., 2000). The traditional education environment may also hinder the application of experiential learning. Potential obstacles include fixed class schedules and limited class time, inflexible classroom seating, insufficient funding to

develop techniques and support simulation activities, and the conventional teacher-student role expectations which promote the one-way feeding of information rather than interactive dialogues and reflections among learners based on their personal experiences (Kolb & Lewis, 1986). Montrose (2002) further articulates the challenge of requesting HE institutions to shift from the comfort of a traditional syllabus established by instructors to student-driven learning objectives and experiences outside the classroom. On the other hand, when out-of-classroom activities are facilitated, there are potential ethical concerns and legal responsibilities associated with these learning experiences that are likely to be uncomfortable, distressing, and even risky (Andresen et al., 2000). To develop a set of widely accepted codes of ethics and standards of practice for experiential learning activities remains a key challenge for effectively applying such learning methods (Andresen et al., 2000).

2.1.2 Transformative Learning Theory

The transformative learning theory is an education framework that is distinctive yet complementary to Kolb's experiential learning model (Morgan, 2010). Defined as "the process of effecting change in a frame of reference" (Mezirow, 1997, p. 5), transformative learning has been demonstrated effective in capturing the meaning-making of adult learners (Mezirow, 1997; Taylor, 2007). Frames of reference refer to the structures of assumptions through which we comprehend our experiences. There are two dimensions of the structures—habits of mind, which are broader and more durable ways of thinking/feeling/acting, and points of view, which are more specific and subject to continuing change (Mezirow, 1997).

A 10-phase process describes how people go through a shift of frames of reference to move toward ones that are more inclusive, discerning, self-reflective, and integrative of experience (Mezirow, 1997). The ten phases include: 1) experience a disorienting dilemma—something that does not fit one's preconceptions; 2) undergo self-examination; 3) conduct a critical assessment of personal role assumptions; 4) share and discuss one's discontent with others who have similar experiences; 5) explore options for new roles, relationships, and ways of acting; 6) plan a course of action; 7) acquire knowledge and skills for plan implementation; 8) try out new roles and assess feedback; 9) build competence and self-confidence in new roles; and 10) reintegrate into one's life with the new perspectives (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Taylor, 1994). Individuals do not need to experience these phases sequentially or in their entirety; however,

they are more likely to experience transformative learning when more phases are engaged in (Stone & Duffy, 2015). In general, transformative learning occurs when a person encounters a disorienting dilemma, and chooses (or is encouraged) to “critically examine their habitual expectations, revise them, and act on the revised point of view” (Cranton, 2016, p.19) instead of rejecting the unexpected altogether.

The adoption of transformative learning theory is particularly appropriate in an intercultural context, where the learners are constantly confronted with disorienting dilemmas caused by encounters with unfamiliar people and circumstances (Morgan, 2010). Identifying the link between perspective transformation and intercultural competence, Taylor (1994) constructs a learning model of intercultural competence based on Mezirow’s theory. In the model, a disorienting dilemma (e.g., culture shock) is the precondition to change, the phases of transformation (e.g., critical reflection, exploration of options for new roles) parallel the process of developing intercultural competence, and the outcomes reflect a revision of meaning structures and a transformed, “new” person with more inclusive, ethnorelative worldviews (Taylor, 1994).

Transformative learning is also applied to explaining the learning occurred in the unconventional, field-based educational contexts. For example, D’Amato and Krasny (2011) explore the instrumental learning and personal growth in outdoor adventure education. Their findings indicate that, by living in the pristine nature, undergoing physical and psychological challenges and the consequent self-reflection, and actively interacting with the course community, the participants experienced the phases of transformative learning and achieved environmental sensitivity, empowerment, and ownership for nature, which are likely to result in environmentally-responsible behaviors (D’Amato & Krasny, 2011). Coghlan and Gooch (2011) investigate the learning of volunteer tourists and find that, volunteer tourism provides an opportunity for the tourists to discover a sense of place and a context outside of everyday situations through high-level engagement with the natural and/or the sociocultural host environments, which is conducive for critical reflection and fosters transformative learning (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011).

Similar to experiential learning, transformative learning presents authentic and collaborative learning experiences and encourages the active participation of the learners. In addition, the two frameworks both emphasize the key role of critical reflection. In transformative

learning, critical reflection is a process of becoming critically aware of the pre-established patterns of expectations and assumptions and then questioning and reassessing the validity of the long-standing and taken-for-granted values and beliefs—either of others’ or of one’s own (Mezirow, 1990; Taylor, 1994). What differentiates the two frameworks is the emphasis of transformative learning on the notion of change, especially in terms of shifts in perceptions (Doering, 2006; Intolubbe-Chmil et al., 2012). Through the experience of a disorienting dilemma, intense collaboration and interaction, and reflective engagement in a learning environment, the learners get to understand why they see the world as they do and how their prior knowledge is affecting the newly constructed knowledge, and further reform their previously held frames of reference and even undertake behavioral changes (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Doering, 2006; Intolubbe-Chmil et al., 2012). Therefore, while experiential learning can provide guidance on designing educational programs that are experientially structured, transformative learning theory contributes not only to program design, but also to assessing the potential outcomes of these learning experiences (Strange & Gibson, 2017).

Although most outcome assessment research in transformative learning are conducted with qualitative methods (e.g., content analysis of learners’ journal reflections), a few researchers have pursued the development and validation of quantitative measurements of transformative learning (Brock, 2010; Walters et al., 2017). One assessment tool is the Learning Activities Survey (LAS; King, 1998). The four-part instrument measures the extent to which individuals experience perspective transformation and the types of activities that influence transformative learning (King, 2009). In accordance with the theory’s definition and stages, the survey contains a checklist of items related to Mezirow’s 10 phases to determine which and how many phases have been experienced by the learner (King, 2004; Stone et al., 2017). In recent years, the LAS has been adopted by a number of researchers for assessment of undergraduate business students (Brock, 2010), professional educators (King, 2002; King, 2004), and study abroad students (Dorsett et al., 2019; Liodaki & Karalis, 2013; Stone et al., 2017). While most items of the LAS generate quantitative data, some items require free responses, thus permitting the more robust mixed-methods analysis—in some cases combined with other qualitative data sources (e.g., King, 2002; King, 2004; Liodaki & Karalis, 2013). Another assessment tool of transformative learning focuses on the aspect of reflective thinking or reflection, presenting a four-scale instrument measuring four constructs—habitual action, understanding, reflection, and critical

reflection (Kember et al., 2000). The Reflection Questionnaire is simple and specific in operationalization and has been applied to various fields and educational settings, including study abroad programs (Walters et al., 2017).

2.1.3 Affective Domain of Learning Outcomes

As early as in 1956, a group of researchers, led by the educational psychologist Benjamin Bloom, intended to develop a common framework to specify educational objectives so that it would be easier for educators to plan learning experiences and prepare evaluation devices accordingly (Andrich, 2002; Hoque, 2016). As articulated in their seminal work *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*, what and how we learn are divided into three basic domains—the cognitive, the affective, and the psychomotor (Bloom et al., 1956). Learning within each domain is classified into multiple levels that progress from more basic, surface-level objectives to more complex ones (Hoque, 2016). The Taxonomy, along with the first-published and most-cited cognitive domain of learning outcomes, became a landmark in the field of education (Andrich, 2002).

Learning has often been considered as an intellectual or cognitive function (Hoque, 2016). However, in recent years, the affective domain of learning is gaining increasing attention, as educators realize that students are less likely to be able to use their cognitive knowledge and skills across a range of environments unless they attain certain affective capabilities (Boud & Falchikov, 2006). This section thus focuses on the second publication of the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives—The Affective Domain* (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Overall, the affective domain appraises the types of human reactions or responses to the content, subject matter, problems, or areas of human experiences (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Affective educational objectives emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection, which are commonly expressed as interests, motivations, attitudes, values, beliefs, and emotional sets or biases (Boyd et al., 2006; Krathwohl et al., 1964). In the context of HE, the attainment of such learning outcomes is also described as character building or developing personal qualities and dispositions, inter- and intra-personal intelligence (i.e., emotional intelligence or EQ), generic attributes, or soft skills (Beard et al., 2007; Birbeck & Andre, 2009; Buissink-Smith et al., 2011; Mitrovic et al., 2016; Shephard, 2008). As Krathwohl et al. (1964) indicate, the affective domain

“contains the forces that determine the nature of an individual’s life and ultimately the life of an entire people” (p. 91).

However, for a long time, educators have avoided openly discussing or assessing the affective learning outcomes due to concerns about charges of indoctrination or brainwashing, as one’s beliefs, attitudes, and values are considered as private matters (*vs.* cognitive outcomes as public matters) (Krathwohl et al., 1964; Shephard, 2008). In addition, affective outcomes are admittedly more difficult to measure—especially in the school grading system, and are sometimes far too long-term to be assessed within the timescale of any particular learning program (Krathwohl et al., 1964; Shephard, 2008). Therefore, the affective domain has not received much attention as its cognitive (*i.e.*, knowledge) and psychomotor (*i.e.*, behavioral skills) counterparts until relatively recently (Beard et al., 2007; Birbeck & Andre, 2009; Hansen, 2009; Pierre & Oughton, 2007).

Krathwohl et al. (1964)’s affective taxonomy presents a classification scheme of affective learning outcomes made up of five hierarchically arranged categories. The ordering basis for this hierarchy is the concept of “internalization,” which allows the educational objectives to be systematically organized along a continuum according to the degree that the attitudes, values, or affective responses have become a part of the individual (Krathwohl et al., 1964; Morshead, 1965). The five overarching categories of affective objectives include: *receiving*, *responding*, *valuing*, *organization*, and *characterization* (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Table 1 illustrates the detailed content of the categories and subcategories in the classification scheme. Note that even though the affective domain deals with individuals’ internal states, it is through their behaviors that the attainment of the affective outcomes is demonstrated (Cahoy & Schroeder, 2012).

Similar to the cognitive objectives, some outcomes in the affective domain can be quickly learned or developed, whereas others may be achieved only over a long period of time and with far more efforts devoted by the learner and the teacher (Bloom et al., 1956; Buissink-Smith et al., 2011; Krathwohl et al., 1964). For example, the attainment of the lowest level of affective outcomes—the receiving of and attending to new material—requires little more than the effective presentation of the material through various learning experiences, where the student can become aware of and willing to receive the material or at least give it attention (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Meanwhile, for objectives beyond merely receiving or responding to stimuli and cues—

such as to modify existing attitudes and values, more complex sets of learning arrangements than are usually provided in classroom lessons are required (Krathwohl et al., 1964).

Table 1. The classification scheme of learning outcomes in the affective domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964).

	1.0 Receiving (Attending)	2.0 Responding	3.0 Valuing	4.0 Organization	5.0 Characterization (by a value or value complex)
	<i>Low</i> ----- Internalization ----- <i>High</i>				
<i>Low</i> ----- Internalization ----- <i>High</i>	1.1 Awareness	2.1 Acquiescence in responding	3.1 Acceptance of a value	4.1 Conceptualization of a value	5.1 Generalized set
	Merely conscious of something; a very low level of reception	Compliance; passive reaction to a given stimulus	Hold a belief or attitude with low-level certainty; seek or want an object because it is considered to be important in its own right	Abstraction and generalization of a value; initiation of the comparative evaluation of values	A response to highly generalized phenomena, which is the result or the culmination of long practice with affective behavior
	1.2 Willingness to receive	2.2 Willingness to respond	3.2 Preference for a value	4.2 Organization of a value system	5.2 Characterization
	Be willing to tolerate or pay attention to a given stimulus instead of seeking to avoid it	Voluntary activity by initiating action; consent or proceeding from one's own choice	Sufficiently committed to the value to pursue it, seek it out, or want it; specialized interests or particular values within a given area	Bring together a complex of values into an ordered relationship (ideally, a harmonious and internally consistent one)	The peak of the internalization process; responses concerning one's view of the universe or philosophy of life, which tend to characterize the individual almost completely
	1.3 Controlled or selected attention	2.3 Satisfaction in response	3.3 Commitment (conviction)		
	Differentiation of a given stimulus at a conscious or semiconscious level; greater amount of attention or increased specificity of the object of attention	The voluntary response is accompanied by a feeling of satisfaction, an emotional response, generally of pleasure, zest, or enjoyment	Hold a belief or attitude with a high degree of certainty		

Learning experiences which are highly organized, interrelated, and in many ways separate the individuals from their previous or familiar environment may produce significant changes in behaviors related to higher-order objectives in the affective domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964). In this regard, experiential and transformative learning methods are invaluable in facilitating affective learning outcomes. Both types of learning experiences allow the learners to engage in real-life, complicated situations, require the involvement of the whole person including the intellect as well as a variety of other senses and feelings, and promote social interactions and critical reflections (Andresen et al., 2000; Mitrovic et al., 2016). The activities of self-reflection and peer-sharing facilitated by experiential/transformative learning are especially important in the achievement of affective objectives. As Krathwohl et al. (1964) put, “for any major reorganization of actual practices and responses to take place, the individual must be able to examine his own feelings and attitudes on the subject, bring them out into the open, see how they compare with the feelings and views of others, and move from an intellectual awareness of a particular behavior or practice to an actual commitment to the new practice” (p. 81).

In recent years, the affective taxonomy has been applied to research in various educational settings, such as science education (Lazarowitz et al., 1994; Meredith et al., 1997), agricultural education (Boyd et al., 2006), library instruction (Cahoy & Schroeder, 2012), and education for sustainable development (Buissink-Smith et al., 2011; Evans et al., 2013; Shephard, 2008). Interestingly, in the outcome assessment research of study abroad—a field where affective outcomes abound, few studies explicitly employ Krathwohl et al. (1964)’s framework to evaluate or interpret the participating students’ learning outcomes. Furthermore, the study abroad literature presents an evident incongruity, where cognitive or psychomotor learning outcomes are reported, while the utilized assessment tools actually measure affective learning more than that in the other two domains. For example, in a study examining the impact of educators’ experience abroad on their global competency, the researchers claim to have evaluated the acquisition of cultural knowledge and communication skills using self-reported assessment scales (i.e., “substantive knowledge,” “perceptual understanding,” and “intercultural communication;” lee Olson & Kroeger, 2001); while, in fact, such scales correlate more strongly with affective learning outcomes such as reactions, motivations, and self-efficacy (Sitzmann et al., 2010).

Self-assessment scale is a widely adopted and easily facilitated method of measurement in study abroad research. However, when researchers use them imprudently and measure constructs that such scales are not able to measure, the overall credibility of study abroad outcome evaluation is questioned. To improve this situation, more research efforts should be devoted to appraising affective learning outcomes. Study abroad programs provide an ideal platform for gaining affective outcomes through experiential and transformative learning experiences, and these outcomes can be evaluated with self-assessment methods relatively more effectively (Sitzmann et al., 2010). Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s affective taxonomy presents a forward-looking framework within which the affective learning outcomes derived from study abroad can be explored (Buissink-Smith et al., 2011).

2.2 Personal Benefits Accrued from Travel

Travel or tourism participation is acknowledged as a beneficial activity to the individual tourist. The personal benefits of travel range from improving physical health to facilitating lifelong learning. The notion that “travel broadens the mind” and the Chinese proverb “read ten thousand books and travel ten thousand miles” further indicate the connections between travel and experiential and transformative learning (Morgan, 2010). The current section provides a review of the tourism literature to identify categories of personal benefits accrued from travel, with an emphasis on the travel-learning linkage discussed in the previous studies.

2.2.1 Health and Wellbeing Benefits of Travel

The positive impacts of travel on tourists' physical and psychological or mental health and the overall sense of wellbeing have been documented as the most direct benefits of travel. Although these benefits are more evident in the niche experiences such as spa tourism, wellness tourism, and medical tourism, the mainstream forms and travel in general are also deemed beneficial (Hunter-Jones, 2003). As travel generally incorporates a break from routine and an escape from mundane environments and responsibilities of daily life and work, it provides the individual tourists an opportunity for relaxation, restoration and recovery, and rejuvenation that all lead to better health and improved wellbeing (Bos et al., 2015; Chen & Petrick, 2013; Hassell et al., 2015; McIntosh & Siggs, 2005; Mody et al., 2016).

Participating in travel and tourism activities has a role to play in improving physical health. For example, Hunter-Jones (2003) examines the holiday-taking behavior of patients with serious illness in the post-diagnosis/treatment stage and the impact of travel on their personal health. The study reveals that travel offers a range of therapeutic opportunities to improve the patients' mobility, increase their energy levels, and enable them to be more relaxed and capable of coping with varied life situations and symptoms of ill-health (Hunter-Jones, 2003). A group of researchers investigate the impacts of national park visitation and identify the potential of travel in alleviating various health issues and contributing to a vast array of physiological benefits, including reduced risk of heart attack, lowered cholesterol, increased cardiovascular fitness, and maintenance of healthy muscles and bones (Moyle et al., 2014; Moyle & Weiler, 2017). Especially, tourism involving the natural wilderness, green spaces, and activities such as hiking and camping can improve one's physical health and stimulate the reengagement with physical exercises, which particularly benefits children and the elderly (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2014; Hassell et al., 2015; Sedgley et al., 2018; Wolf et al., 2015).

The tourism literature also reveals positive influence of travel on individuals' psychological and mental health. Researchers have noted a series of pertinent benefits attributed to travel, including improved moods, enhanced concentration, attention, and memory, encouraged optimism, decreased anxiety, stress, and depression, relieved mental health disorders such as insomnia and alcohol/drug dependencies, as well as increased sense of wellbeing and perceived quality of life (Bricker et al., 2016; Hassell et al., 2015; Hunter-Jones, 2003; Moyle et al., 2014; Moyle & Weiler, 2017; Sedgley et al., 2018). Because of the detachment from routine life and work enabled by travel, certain groups of people particularly benefit from tourism activities. For example, employees utilize travel as an effective approach for work-life balance and to avoid excessive job stress and burnout (Chen & Petrick, 2013; Mody et al., 2016); women participating in an organized all-female travel enjoy a more relaxed and congenial atmosphere, a heightened sense of freedom, and sufficient time for self-indulgence (Junek et al., 2006); senior citizens who take holidays and travel more frequently exhibit better self-perceived health and more autonomy and happiness, leading to reduced help-seeking from the social and healthcare systems (Sedgley et al., 2018; Wolf et al., 2015).

Previous research suggests that the aforementioned effects on physical and psychological health are reported to only last for about two to three weeks (Chen & Petrick, 2013). In the

longer term, travel—especially to natural and cultural destinations—promotes opportunities for enriched spirituality, to find inner peace, and to rediscover a purpose in life (Hunter-Jones, 2003; Moyle & Weiler, 2017; Wolf et al., 2015). Nawijn et al. (2017) find that visiting the Sachsenhausen Memorial and Museum (a former concentration camp) as a form of dark tourism contributes to a long-lasting psychological benefit. Their study indicates that, despite a short-term, negative emotional response while visiting the museum, tourists discover positive implications from their visit in terms of an inclination to be future-oriented and try to attach positive meanings to negative events. The discovery of positive meanings potentially strengthens the individuals' resilience and facilitates the adjustment process in dealing with negative experiences, which can in turn lead to increased wellbeing over time (Nawijn et al., 2017).

2.2.2 Benefits of Social/Family Development through Travel

Travel is a social activity, where interactions take place between individuals within a group and across groups (Livert, 2016; Wilson & Harris, 2006). Benefits in terms of enhanced social and family relationships have been documented in the tourism literature. Specifically, travel is conducive to developing healthy social interactions, meeting and making friends with like-minded people and people from different backgrounds, receiving companionship, care, and support from others, reconnecting with family and friends, and improving family functioning by gaining increased appreciation for family members (Bos et al., 2015; Bricker et al., 2016; Chen & Petrick, 2013; Francis & Yasué, 2019; Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2014; Hassell et al., 2015; Hermann et al., 2017; Hunter-Jones, 2003; Junek et al., 2006; McIntosh & Siggs, 2005; Mody et al., 2016; Moyle et al., 2014; Moyle & Weiler, 2017; Sedgley et al., 2018; Wolf et al., 2015).

The benefit of social/family development is also more closely associated with certain forms of tourism. For example, Bos et al. (2015) find that low-income families taking part in social tourism attain increased social interaction and strengthened family relationships. Social tourism, defined as a tourism niche which allows “the inclusion of economically weak or otherwise disadvantaged people in tourism participation through financial and other support of a social nature” (p. 860), provides an opportunity for individuals and families to take a break from their burdensome life, share experiences and discover common interests in a relaxed atmosphere, and in turn achieve family bonding (Bos et al., 2015). In a similar vein, Sedgley et al. (2018)

confirm the benefits of social tourism in providing deprived families and individuals an opportunity to engage in meaningful social interactions, increase family and social capital, and foster optimism and positive social behaviors. The authors focus on the IMSERSO program initiated by the Spanish Government as one of the world's most developed and large-scale social tourism schemes for older people. The participants were able to revitalize family relationships, meet new people, and build new friendships while being away from the home environment and detached from other obligations. These benefits then lead back to the improved physical and psychological health and increased sense of wellbeing for the tourists (Sedgley et al., 2018).

Furthermore, travel contributes to other social benefits, such as broadening tourists' social networks and enhancing their professional connections (Hermann et al., 2017; Hunter-Jones, 2003; Mody et al., 2016). Specialized tourism types such as voluntourism, social tourism, and nature-based tourism spur greater sense of civic engagement and environmental stewardship, facilitate prosocial and pro-environmental behaviors, reduce self-destructive and anti-social behaviors for certain groups such as at-risk youth, and strengthen social cohesion and bonds within communities (Bos et al., 2015; Coghlan, 2015; Francis & Yasué, 2019; Moyle et al., 2014; Moyle & Weiler, 2017; Wolf et al., 2015). As more individuals benefit from travel in these aspects, the community and the society at large may also profit from more socially responsible citizens and increased social capital.

2.2.3 Travel and Learning

Historically, travel and tourism were considered as major mechanisms for people to escape from the physical and mental exhaustion of work and enjoy leisure and relaxation; as a result, the tourism experiences were largely passive and hedonistic (Falk et al., 2012). As tourists' needs and preferences change over time, the model of tourism where only hedonistic values are present is no longer in dominance (Falk et al., 2012). Tourism and leisure settings have become an important medium through which individuals engage in deeply meaningful experiences, gain educational benefits, and even create personal transformation (Liang et al., 2015). Even when tourists do not identify education as a main purpose or motivation of their travel, learning still occurs as an incidental outcome from the constant exposure to new information and the pressing need to deal with unfamiliar and challenging situations (Babin & Kim, 2001; Bos et al., 2015; Gmelch, 1997). The educational benefits of travel can be

categorized into three domains based on Bloom et al. (1956)'s *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives*—the cognitive, psychomotor, and affective learning outcomes.

Cognitive and Psychomotor Learning Outcomes from Travel

The cognitive and psychomotor learning outcomes mainly refer to knowledge and physical skills (Hoque, 2016). Travel facilitates the acquisition of knowledge about the destination and its local culture and communities, enhances the understanding of new phenomena and socio-political issues, and helps the attainment of a range of skills such as critical thinking and problem-solving, social/interpersonal and communication skills, time and money management, as well as adaptability and flexibility (Bos et al., 2015; Francis & Yasué, 2019; Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2014; Hermann et al., 2017; Huang & Chen, 2018; McIntosh & Siggs, 2005; Wolf et al., 2015).

Building knowledge and skills through travel is especially relevant to children and young adults. Bos et al. (2015) investigate the learning of children from low-income families through participating in social tourism. The children were able to gain knowledge and skills from the outside-of-classroom, cross-cultural experiences of traveling internationally with family members and peers. Their horizon was broadened and long-term learning was facilitated, as they managed to adapt to the unfamiliar environment and learned new knowledge and transferrable skills from problem-solving situations (Bos et al., 2015). More recently, Hermann et al. (2017) study the gap year travel of high school graduates in the Netherlands and indicate that, the students became better informed about advanced education choices, gained knowledge of the world and other cultures, and developed a skill set for better career prospects through their gap year experience.

In addition to social tourism and gap year travel, some other tourism niches have also been emphasized as beneficial for learning knowledge and skills, including voluntourism (Francis & Yasué, 2019), nature-based tourism (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2014; Hassell et al., 2015; Wolf et al., 2015), and backpacking (Huang & Chen, 2018). Acquiring knowledge and skills is not only important for their own usefulness. Knowledge building is closely related to people's sense of and need for discovery; as the tourists learn new things and conquer practical challenges during travel, they experience a strong sense of achievement and feelings of mastery (Babin & Kim, 2001; Wolf et al., 2015). Indeed, these learning outcomes in

the cognitive and psychomotor domains are intertwined with the affective outcomes that constitute a great proportion of the educational benefits accrued from travel.

Affective Learning Outcomes from Travel

The direct application of Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s hierarchical categories of affective learning outcomes has not been found in the tourism literature. Instead, the affective outcomes accrued from travel are predominantly documented as personal qualities or attributes describing personal development—the “unfolding, growth, evolution, expansion and maturation of the individual self” (as cited in Gmelch, 1997, p. 485). Personal development focuses on the positive changes and adaptations in a person, often reflected as long enduring qualities acquired through learning (Huang & Chen, 2018). Travel has long been considered as an effective means to facilitate personal growth and development, especially for young people who are in the stage of intense exploration of values, beliefs, and goals (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Even when the learning experience during travel seems superficial at times, personal development can arise from the need to constantly make decisions and deal with the demands of daily life in new and unfamiliar settings (Gmelch, 1997). Therefore, a variety of domestic and international travel experiences have the potential to stimulate this type of affective leaning, though it is more evident when people travel independently rather than through a package tour (Liang et al., 2015; Stone & Petrick, 2017).

Various dimensions of personal development resulted from travel have been recorded in the tourism literature. The most frequently cited dimensions include obtaining or enhancing confidence, self-esteem, self-efficacy, independence and autonomy, and appreciation of the natural beauty and cultural diversity; becoming more mature, adaptable, open-minded towards cultural differences and different viewpoints, tolerant of uncertainty and ambiguity, and compassionate or empathetic; and gaining changed perceptions and attitudes as well as longer-term shifts in worldviews, occupational interests, and life-context meanings (Bos et al., 2015; Bricker et al., 2016; Coghlan, 2015; Flaherty et al., 2018; Francis & Yasué, 2019; Gmelch, 1997; Hassell et al., 2015; Hermann et al., 2017; Huang & Chen, 2018; Hunter-Jones, 2003; Sedgley et al., 2018; Wolf et al., 2015).

In addition, one significant dimension of personal development achieved from travel is the construction or reinforcement of self-identity. For example, Coghlan (2015) examines the

impact of voluntourism and finds that, the unique experience of volunteering as holiday-taking has a significant influence on the participants' sense of self or identity and how they view themselves in relation to others. In traveling to a new destination and providing assistance to the host community, volunteer tourists adopt a changed self-concept, de-center an excessive focus on the self, and acquire a renewed sense of belonging and attachment to the host community and fellow volunteers (Coghlan, 2015). Similarly, Francis and Yasué (2019) look into the experience of a group of young adult volunteer tourists and reveal that, voluntourism fosters cross-cultural communication and understanding, raises the participants' consciousness about issues such as racism, prejudice, poverty, and inequality, and enhances the awareness of their own privilege. The experience has led some of the participants to switch their life paths or affirm their academic or career focus to devote to poverty alleviation or international development, while some others divert from concentrating on these issues because of gained insights into the inadequacies or ethical complexities of some development projects (Francis & Yasué, 2019).

Gap year travel, including but not limited to voluntourism, is also found to be conducive for young people to design their own identity, facilitate their understanding and initiation of altruistic acts, and develop intercultural competence and global citizenship (Hermann et al., 2017). Nature-based tourism such as visiting national parks may help construct self-identity as well. Ganglmair-Wooliscroft and Wooliscroft (2014) find that places and destinations like national parks provide values and meanings that help define visitors' identity. The places can be integrated into visitors' extended self, which describes the special possessions that people use to define themselves, including destinations and experiences (Ganglmair-Wooliscroft & Wooliscroft, 2014). Moreover, Hassell et al. (2015) note that for many park visitors, camping in national parks represents a part of their current identity or ideal identity, and going camping affirms or reaffirms their knowledge of self or desired self-image. Being physically immersed in and reconnecting with nature allow the tourists who are alienated by modernity in daily life to rediscover a sense of self, reconstruct their own authentic identities, and feel their place in the world again (Hassell et al., 2015).

Summary

Despite the acknowledgement that learning extends well beyond formal education and can take place in less structured contexts such as travel and tourism, there is limited academic

research examining travel through the lens of learning and education (Falk et al., 2012). Meanwhile, tourism researchers have noted a series of educational benefits gained by the tourists, including fact-based knowledge, practical skills, and affective learning outcomes represented by personal development attributes. According to the current review, these benefits largely come from specialized tourism types such as voluntourism, social tourism, and nature-based tourism. However, it is not to say that mainstream tourism experiences or serendipitous travel do not lead to learning, only that it is difficult to clarify the linkage from the current body of literature (Falk et al., 2012; Stone & Petrick, 2013). In addition, general tourists seldom reflect on learning from travel experiences, and the lack of intentional reflection may hinder the revelation of learning outcomes (Stone & Petrick, 2017). Thus, most research examining travel and learning has been concentrating on the experiences of “educational travel,” such as study abroad programs, where reflection on learning is usually an embedded element (Stone & Petrick, 2013).

In recent years, researchers have pointed out an emerging trend that study abroad—especially short-term, culture-based programs—are merging with independent travel to a substantial degree (Mody et al., 2017; Roberson Jr., 2018). It is further suggested that future researchers investigate study abroad as a combination of formal educational experiences and tourism activities rather than treating it as educational travel per se (Roberson Jr., 2018). With this mindset, research on study abroad is more likely to help advance the understanding of the connections between travel and learning.

2.3 Study Abroad by U.S. College Students

Study abroad, generally considered a subtype of education abroad, is an umbrella term that encompasses all the programs taking place outside the participant’s home country or the country in which they are enrolled as full-time students and resulting in progress towards an academic degree at the home institution (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2011). According to the common understanding among international educators in the U.S., study abroad does not include the pursuit of a full academic degree at a foreign institution. As the world today becomes ever more interconnected and interdependent, young generations are required to be well-rounded and open-minded global citizens. Study abroad provides just the opportunity for college students to start the journey of lifelong learning about the world and themselves. This section focuses on

the study abroad literature regarding its history in the U.S., characteristics of programs, and participating students' motivations, experiences, and learning outcomes.

2.3.1 A Historical View of Study Abroad

Study abroad can be traced back to the Grand Tour of the 17th to 19th centuries, where privileged European young men were sent abroad for the accumulation of social skills and enriching experiences (Brodsky-Porges, 1981). Following the trend of the Grand Tour, young upper class North Americans began tours to Europe since the 18th century, often engaged in studies of art and experience of the masterpieces of classical antiquity (Prown, 1997; Terzuolo, 2016). It was not until the 1920s did study abroad in the U.S. start to emerge in the form that resembles the current one—the junior year abroad programs were developed, and they represented the incorporation of an international experience into the U.S. undergraduate education (Kim, 2017; Nam, 2011). However, those programs were still only available for a limited number of students from affluent households, and since most programs were operated by women's colleges, their educational subjects were also limited, including foreign language learning, cultural enrichment, and preparation for social activities (Dessoff, 2006). Between the years of 1923 and 1939, only an estimated total of fewer than 2,000 students participated in the nine study abroad programs then available (Hoffa, 2007; as cited in Terzuolo, 2016).

As the World War II began, the progress of study abroad in U.S. colleges had to discontinue for travel safety concerns (Wilson, 2014). Meanwhile, the war propelled the U.S. government to realize that study abroad students could play a key role in enhancing diplomatic efforts and helping the U.S. with nation-building in Europe (Themudo et al., 2007; Wilson, 2014). Therefore, the qualities of students who should study abroad were particularly discussed at that time. The key dimensions of desired student qualities included the possession of high democratic ideals, a broad liberal education, and the ability to adapt to poorer living conditions (von Kohr Sauer, 1949; Themudo et al., 2007). Following the World War II, a significant increase in the mobility of students and scholars across cultural boundaries was observed, partly reflecting the strategic importance of international knowledge and language expertise to the United States in the Cold War (Terzuolo, 2016). In this era, a series of initiatives regarding international education were created by the U.S. government, including the Fulbright-Hays Program that began in 1946, the Peace Corps movement in the 1960s, and the International

Education Act of 1966 (Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Nam, 2011; Wilson, 2014). Colleges and universities throughout the U.S. developed study abroad programs and established or reinforced relationships with HE institutions overseas. The number of both study abroad programs and study abroad students grew radically, leading to the phenomenon described as the “post-Second World War boom in student exchanges” (Furnham & Bochner, 1982, p.162; Wilson, 2014).

During the mid-1950s, study abroad became “an accepted instrument for the general education of many” in the U.S. (Abrams, 1968, p. 24; as cited in Nam, 2011). Initially, the main purpose of encouraging study abroad during the Cold War era was to promote peace through relationship building and knowledge exchange between people and communities in the U.S. and around the world (Kim, 2017). Later on, as the post-war reconstruction began and multinational trade increased, both the government and HE institutions redirected the aims of international education to prepare young people for the competition of national priorities in the global economy (Kim, 2017; Nam, 2011). It was also during this time that various independent, third party organizations providing study abroad programs for U.S. college students were established, which presented more choices for study abroad students, and largely fostered the rapid growth of the field of international education (Hoffa, 2000; Wilson, 2014). Meanwhile, shorter-term options were introduced as alternatives to the standard junior year abroad programs, as the luxury of a full-year program was increasingly questioned (Themudo et al., 2007).

After the tragedy of 9/11 terrorist attacks, the awareness of the provincialism of America, the lack of intercultural competence among Americans, as well as the desire to strengthen U.S. national security and foreign policy were raised to a higher level (Yang, 2012). Study abroad is considered one of the major means of nurturing graduates who are “proficient in foreign languages, aware of different peoples and cultures, and literate in issues of common global concern” (Engberg & Green, 2002; as cited in Terzuolo, 2016, p. 1). As the *Commission on the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Fellowship Program* (2005) states, “What nations don’t know can hurt them. The stakes involved in study abroad are that simple, that straightforward, and that important. For their own future and that of the nation, college graduates today must be internationally competent” (p. ii). Federal support for more investment and participation in study abroad has in turn noticeably increased (Nam, 2011).

Further acknowledging the importance of study abroad, the U.S. Congress declared the year of 2006 as the Year of Study Abroad (Cho et al., 2008). In 2007, the *Senator Paul Simon*

Study Abroad Foundation Act (the *Act*) was introduced as a legislative move to establish study abroad as the norm for American undergraduates and address the pressing need for more quality and feasible study abroad programs (Cho et al., 2008; Nam, 2011). In early 2019, the *Act* was reintroduced with the aim to increase study abroad opportunities for U.S. undergraduates and enable more graduating students to develop the critical knowledge and skills needed to thrive in today's globalized world (NAFSA, 2019). Specifically, the legislation specifies four national goals: to raise study abroad participation to at least one million U.S. college students annually; to expand the diversity of participants to more closely reflect the demographics of undergraduate population in the U.S.; to increase the diversity of study abroad destinations, especially by promoting programs in nontraditional destinations outside Western Europe; and to encourage colleges and universities nationwide to include study abroad as an integral part of a quality HE (NAFSA, 2019). As such, various stakeholders—the government, the private sector, and educational institutions—are collaborating to advance study abroad participation and improve its effectiveness as a valuable addition to the undergraduate education.

2.3.2 Research on Study Abroad

As participation in study abroad grows, the relevant research has also increased dramatically since the 1990s and has expanded greatly over the past few decades (Stone & Petrick, 2013; Duerden et al., 2018). The extant literature on study abroad covers a wide array of topics, including antecedents to and motivations of study abroad participation, experiences during study abroad, as well as learning outcomes derived from study abroad. Since a large body of study abroad literature concerns the impact on student learning outcomes, it will be reviewed separately in the next section. The current section focuses on the first two aspects of study abroad research.

With the recognition that certain groups in U.S. HE tend to be underrepresented in study abroad programs, researchers have been looking for the factors influencing students' decisions to participate in such programs (Dessoiff, 2006). For instance, Carlson et al. (1991) investigate the reasons why some students chose to study abroad and others chose to remain on campus. The study indicates that the most important reasons behind the students' decisions to study abroad were a desire for cross-cultural experiences, to improve foreign language ability, and a belief that study abroad could improve their career prospects (Carlson et al., 1991). Indeed, the link

between participation in international study and academic/career goals has been widely cited to explain the consistent underrepresentation of male students and students in certain disciplines (e.g., engineering, math, and science) in study abroad programs (Dessoiff, 2006). However, Goldstein and Kim (2006) argue that the assumptions these explanations were based on are no longer valid because of the changes in female students' career orientation and the increasing emphasis on global interdependence across the curriculum; thus, factors beyond academic and career concerns need to be explored. As a result, their longitudinal study following 179 U.S. college students from their freshman to senior year reveals that, expectations and intercultural variables played a vital role in determining the participation in study abroad. Specifically, students with favorable expectations of study abroad, higher levels of foreign language interest and competence, and lower levels of ethnocentrism, intercultural communication apprehension, prejudice, and ambiguity intolerance were more likely to study abroad (Goldstein & Kim, 2006).

Researchers have also proposed other possible antecedents to study abroad participation. For example, Stroud (2010) finds that, attending college more than 100 miles from home and having a desire to improve one's understanding of other cultures and countries are among the factors that positively affect U.S. students' participation in study abroad. Meanwhile, planning to pursue a higher degree, living with family while attending school, and majoring in engineering and professional areas (e.g., architecture, medicine) are among the negative factors (Stroud, 2010). Presley et al. (2010) adopt the Theory of Planned Behavior to examine the motivations of U.S. business students to study abroad, and identify three factors impacting on their intentions—attitudes towards study abroad, subjective norms (i.e., perceived expectations of others' and motivation to comply with these expectations), and perceived behavioral control (i.e., perceived availability of skills/resources and their importance to achieving the outcome of study abroad). Moreover, Chirkov et al. (2007) investigate the role of self-determined motivation and content of goals in influencing students' decision to study abroad and their cultural adaptation outcomes. The results show that when students were self-determined in their decision to study abroad, they were more likely to succeed in adapting to the new cultural environment; whereas a preservation factor in their goals—a goal of going abroad to avoid unfavorable conditions in the home environment—is negatively related to the success of cultural adaptation (Chirkov et al., 2007). Overall, as Dessoiff (2006) indicates, various financial, cultural, and institutional obstacles can discourage underrepresented students from even considering the option of study abroad. The

growing availability of funding opportunities and short-term programs alleviates some concerns for potential participants, but there is still much to learn about why students intend or don't intend to study abroad (Dessoff, 2006; Stroud, 2010).

As to the experience during study abroad, McLeod and Wainwright (2009) conduct two focus groups to learn about students' possible expectations and experiences of their programs. Both negatively and positively judged experiences have been identified—stressful situations severely contravened their expectations, while successful experiences led to increased self-confidence and changes in self-perception as well as their perceptions of the world (McLeod & Wainwright, 2009). More specific experiences are often discussed along with features of the study abroad programs. For instance, Engle and Engle (2003) present a level-based, hierarchical classification of study abroad programs, including five types of experiences—study tour, short-term study, cross-cultural contact program, cross-cultural encounter program, and cross-cultural immersion program. Evidently, these program types are ordered by the degree to which the program design facilitates cultural interaction. Specifically, the authors have used comparable objective criteria to sort out study abroad experiences, including program duration, type of accommodation, context of academic work (e.g., courses taught by home institution faculty *vs.* courses taken with local students taught by host institution faculty), language used in course work, required linguistic competence for admission, provision of structured cultural interaction and experiential learning activities, as well as guided reflection on cultural experience (Engle & Engle, 2003). These program features or classification criteria have later been widely adopted by study abroad researchers to examine the participants' experiences and/or learning outcomes. Additional program features have been added to the list, such as the involvement in special practices (e.g., internships and service learning) and cultural distance of the host country from the U.S. (Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016).

More recently, Streitwieser and Light (2018) note that research examining students' deeper conceptions and understandings of their international experience during study abroad is scarce. Using the Variation Theory of Learning as a framework, the researchers construct a typology of student conceptions of international experience, consisting of four distinct categories—observing, interacting, participating, and embracing. Each category is further described by three common features—being in the other culture, relating to the other culture, and learning/changing in the other culture (Streitwieser & Light, 2018). This typology reveals the

complexity and the “changeable messiness of student learning in terms of more profound meanings and not simply neat sets of skills and attributes” (Streitwieser & Light, 2018, p. 485). Similar to Engle and Engle (2003)’s work, these models of classification can help prospective students choose programs that match their goals and preparation or qualification, and potentially maximize the educational benefits accrued from study abroad (Engle & Engle, 2003; McLeod & Wainwright, 2009).

Overall, the variety of study abroad programs is expanding, providing more options for prospective students. Meanwhile, study abroad researchers and practitioners have realized that not all programs are equally rewarding. Except for participants’ individual characteristics, factors within the control of program designers—such as program features and the chosen host destination’s culture attributes—are all moderating the impact of study abroad on students’ learning outcomes (Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016). Particularly, previous research has been debating on the moderating effect of the most obvious and significant program feature—the program duration (Duerden et al., 2018; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Some researchers believe that the longer the program is, the more or better learning outcomes the participants can acquire. This view has been supported by a number of studies comparing the learning outcomes of students in long-term programs (i.e., full-year, semester-long) with those in short-term ones (i.e., summer term or less than eight weeks) (e.g., Coker et al., 2018; Dwyer, 2004; Ingraham & Peterson, 2004). However, this does not mean that short-term programs are proved fruitless. Previous research has indicated that a notable percentage of the short-term participants have obtained similar levels of learning outcomes as those in long-term programs (Dwyer, 2004). Even programs as short as one to five weeks are demonstrated beneficial in developing students’ intercultural learning, personal growth, and language skills (Anderson et al., 2016; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Cubillos et al., 2008; Ritz, 2011; Rowan-Kenyon & Niehaus, 2011). Being more affordable in terms of both time and monetary cost, short-term study abroad programs are becoming the fastest-growing area of international education, which warrants more investigation in their viability of producing significant learning outcomes (Nguyen, 2017; Sutton et al., 2007; Tarrant & Lyons, 2012).

2.3.3 Evaluation of Study Abroad and its Learning Outcomes

There is a growing call for more accountability in the U.S. HE, leading to more critical scrutiny of learning activities and the central role of student learning outcome assessment (Kim, 2017). As study abroad is integrated into the U.S. undergraduate education, it becomes increasingly vital that the learning outcomes derived from study abroad are thoroughly understood and rigorously assessed (Bolen, 2007). As a result, the field of study abroad and international education is examined both on its own terms and as part of the entire educational experience (Kim, 2017; Steinberg, 2007; Sutton et al., 2007).

In general, study abroad has been considered as an important vehicle for producing learning outcomes such as language proficiency, personal development, and global awareness and intercultural competence (Carlson et al., 1991; Kim, 2017). However, despite the consensus regarding the importance of study abroad, researchers and educators have started to question whether study abroad experiences are truly generating the claimed learning outcomes for participating students; and if so, under what conditions will students learn the most, and what types of programs or experiences are the most effective (Terzuolo, 2016; Vande Berg, 2007). Therefore, conducting assessment is essential for demonstrating what the students have gained and whether the institutional learning goals have been met. On one hand, it is necessary to show proof to various stakeholders, including parents and funding organizations, that their investments have yielded tangible and valuable educational outcomes. On the other hand, effective student learning is the ultimate purpose of HE—therefore, of international education and study abroad as well; thus, assessing learning outcomes of study abroad is critical for elevating the standards of the field as a whole (Steinberg, 2007; Sutton et al., 2007).

The evaluation of study abroad programs have traditionally relied on institutional indicators of effectiveness, such as the number of participating students, the number of credit hours granted, and the records of student health and safety (Gillespie et al., 1999). In addition, institutions have been using end-of-program or exit surveys to collect students' opinions about their experiences, which assess student satisfaction and behavioral intentions (e.g., "I will study abroad again," "I will recommend study abroad to a friend") rather than measuring actual learning and development outcomes (Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016). These "customer satisfaction surveys" work more as a formality rather than an assessment tool, offering at best indirect and anecdotal evidence of program effectiveness and little information regarding the

type, quality, and extent of student learning and development that occur in study abroad (Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016).

In the meantime, there has been an ongoing effort to establish the standards for best practices and outcome assessment in study abroad. The standard setting for U.S. study abroad goes back to the 1920s and has greatly accelerated after the World War II (Terzuolo, 2016). Following the Cold War era, the accumulated attention to matters in international education led to the foundation of The Forum on Education Abroad, which was later recognized by the Anti-Trust Division of the U.S. Department of Justice and the Federal Trade Commission as the Standards Development Organization for study abroad in the U.S. (Terzuolo, 2016). The *Standards of Good Practice for Education Abroad*, published by The Forum on Education Abroad and is currently in preparation for the 6th edition, specifies “minimum requirements, quality indicators, and a framework for continuous improvement for education abroad for U.S. postsecondary participants” (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2019, p. 1).

A large body of the study abroad research concerns the learning outcomes derived by student participants. The practices of study abroad have been evolving over the years; however, the learning outcomes from study abroad—whether expected or documented—seem to have changed little during the past few decades. For example, Coelho (1962) provides a catalog of outcomes from study abroad, including “international understanding, technical and specialty training, personal growth, and general educational development” (p. 66). Specifically examining American undergraduates participating in programs in Europe, Battsek (1962) identifies four learning objectives for study abroad, namely, the academic objective—referring to the study in certain disciplines; the intellectual objective—concerning with the university education in general; the social objective—similar to but somewhat narrower than what is known today as intercultural competence; and the human objective—the most complicated one regarding the education of shaping “a better person” (p. 229). Similarly but with more clarity, Abrams (1965) lists four areas of educational outcomes of study abroad: 1) language skills, 2) content knowledge regarding the arts, international affairs, and foreign civilizations, 3) cross-cultural understanding, and 4) development of personal values, worldviews, and self-awareness (as cited in Koester, 1985).

As more and more HE institutions in the U.S. start to grant (or accept) academic credits for study abroad students, educators and researchers have come to embrace the idea that students

can indeed learn things through study abroad, and learn in ways that may not be accessed if they remain on home campuses (Vande Berg, 2007). It is increasingly believed that when study abroad programs are well-designed and delivered, students will be able to learn actively and to obtain or develop the knowledge, attitudes, and skills that are desired by future employers and the globalized society (Vande Berg, 2007). Meanwhile, as an extensive range of learning outcomes are assumed (or later proved) from participation in study abroad, researchers have continued working on a reasonable classification system for those outcomes.

Through a review of previous literature, Koester (1985) divides identified study abroad learning outcomes into two categories—attitude change variables and other personal effects. Within the category of attitude change, one major cluster contains changes in general attitudes or personality characteristics, such as world-mindedness, ethnocentrism, and tolerance for ambiguity. Other more specific types of attitude change include favorability towards the host country and/or people of that country, and changes in awareness and understanding of the student's own country and culture. The category of personal effects encompasses a series of individual changes in constructs like self-concept, self-esteem, and self-confidence, as well as changes in intellectual interests and academic performance, improvement in language learning, interests in world events, and changes in career interests and job goals (Koester, 1985).

More recently, a more straightforward categorization of learning outcomes has been proposed by Sutton et al. (2007). They identify three key sets of learning outcomes—knowledge and skills (i.e., knowledge of course content and relevant skills, especially language acquisition), attitudinal development (e.g., intercultural learning outcomes, positive shifts in personality traits), and resultant life choices (i.e., transformation in behavior, such as choosing academic majors, career paths, lifestyles, and residence patterns). In a similar vein, Steinberg (2007) indicates that, both academic and personal outcomes from study abroad are expected by the HE community. Academic outcomes incorporate the development of foreign language proficiency, academic learning in both general education and the student's major fields, and a more rounded intellectual view of the world accrued from the interaction with various dimensions of the host country environment. Personal outcomes include intercultural competence, interpersonal skills, career preparation for working in an international or intercultural setting, and the development of a variety of personal attributes such as adaptability, independence, enhanced self-esteem, realistic self-appraisal, social responsibility, and healthy lifestyles (Steinberg, 2007). Generally,

the aforementioned categorization of learning outcomes corresponds to the taxonomy developed by Bloom et al. (1956), namely the cognitive, affective, and psychomotor learning domains.

Smith (1983), on the other hand, approaches the classification of learning outcomes in a slightly different way, as he identifies four types of learning benefits, including cultural, linguistic, professional, and educational. He further divided the last one—educational benefits—into four sectors, including impact on the individual student’s performance, on the curriculum, on the institutions involved, and on the future development of study abroad programs. Notably, the impact of study abroad on the broader institution and the education system has received relatively less attention from researchers (Smith, 1983).

Meyer-Lee and Evans (2007) also approach the learning outcomes differently by identifying both direct and indirect impacts of study abroad. Specifically, the direct impact takes effect on three discrete groups of participants—currently enrolled students, alumni, and faculty/staff. For current students, four broad categories of development have been identified, including language learning, intercultural competence, disciplinary knowledge, and social/emotional growth. For study abroad alumni, the long-term effects of the aforementioned four categories can be assessed; moreover, other long-term impact is specified, including career development, academic progression, and institutional loyalty to the home institution (Meyer-Lee & Evans, 2007). For faculty and staff who are involved in study abroad on-site, their language learning, intercultural competence, and professional approach can be impacted, although less studied in the extant literature. Indirect impact mainly refers to the influence of study abroad on the broader contexts, such as the home institution, the host community, and even impact at the state/national level; such indirect influences can in turn affect the individual participants (Meyer-Lee & Evans, 2007). More recently, Duerden et al. (2018) also categorize the impact of study abroad into short-term and long-term benefits. The short-term learning outcomes include the increase or improvement of knowledge, skills, and personal traits (e.g., intellectual growth, interpersonal skills, self-confidence), while changes regarding personal and professional life (e.g., civic engagement, global citizenship, career path) are considered as long-term outcomes (Duerden et al., 2018).

A greater amount of research on study abroad outcome assessment has focused on one or more aforementioned categories of learning benefits obtained by participating students. The body of literature displays a diverse landscape in terms of methodologies adopted and learning

constructs examined. For instance, quantitative methods are frequently used to evaluate certain learning outcomes such as intellectual growth, language proficiency, and intercultural competence. A variety of survey instruments and scales have been developed over the years, such as the *Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory*, the *Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory*, the *Global Competency and Intercultural Sensitivity Index*, as well as the *Intercultural Development Inventory* (IDI), which is arguably the most frequently used and extensively validated tool for assessing intercultural development in study abroad research (Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016). In addition to tests and survey questionnaires, researchers have also used the cumulative grade point average (GPA) and course grades as quantitative indicators of cognitive learning gains from study abroad (DiBiasio & Mello, 2004; Merva, 2003).

Qualitative research methods have been adopted in study abroad outcome assessment as well. For example, Dolby (2008) conducts pre-departure and post-program interviews with a group of American undergraduates studying abroad in Australia and their Australian counterparts in the U.S. to understand how the students negotiated their national identity while abroad and the degree to which they considered themselves as global citizens. The study reveals more critical self-reflection by the American students about their identity, but more global awareness and political knowledge obtained by the Australian students. In another study, Tonkin and Quiroga (2004) use delayed interviews and focus groups with 17 study abroad alumni who participated in a service learning program years ago and report long-term transformative impacts on the participants, including changed moral and intellectual characters as well as perspectives on American values, norms, behaviors, and beliefs, altered career choices, increased sense of self-sufficiency, and improved leadership abilities. More recently, Winke (2017) reviews 10 study abroad research articles that employed focus groups as a data collection method and indicates that, focus groups have been largely adopted to investigate the influence of study abroad on students' perceptions and attitudes regarding the culture, learning, and the world. Focus groups are considered advantageous in capturing the nuances of the study abroad experience, providing rich and multilayered views of the impact on participants' attitudes and perspectives, and allowing for larger sample sizes compared to other qualitative methods (Bacon, 2002; Winke, 2017).

A considerable amount of study abroad studies have utilized mixed-methods for data collection and analysis, which is especially conducive to assessing more complicated and

multifaceted learning outcomes (Deardorff, 2006; Sutton et al., 2007). For example, Michigan State University employs mixed methods for an ongoing assessment of study abroad learning outcomes, including intellectual growth (i.e., language learning and academic performance), personal growth, intercultural awareness, and professional development (Ingraham & Peterson, 2004). The data were collected from pre- and post-program self-assessment surveys, focus groups, students' written journals, as well as faculty observations of student learning. The study demonstrates positive impact of study abroad on all four outcomes—particularly on personal growth and intercultural awareness (Ingraham & Peterson, 2004). Similarly, Doyle (2009) evaluates the impact of a semester-long study abroad program on student growth and development, using both quantitative data collected with the *Global Perspectives Inventory* and qualitative data gathered from in-depth interviews. In general, the mixed methods present a holistic approach to outcome assessment. The qualitative data complement and further illuminate the quantitative data, and together the two sets of information provide richer and more comprehensive evidence for understanding the impact of study abroad experience on student learning outcomes (Doyle, 2009; Savage & Hughes, 2014).

The international education community has traditionally believed that students normally and naturally learn through participating in such an educational experience in another country as study abroad. However, this view is becoming increasingly challenged as more evidence show that humans do not automatically learn just by being immersed in a culturally different environment (Fordham, 2006; Vande Berg et al., 2012). Therefore, international educators and administrators have begun to redirect their focus from using the sheer number of study abroad participants as an assessment metric, to appraising the actual quality of and learning outcomes from the study abroad experience (Engle & Engle, 2003; Vande Berg et al., 2012). Despite the ongoing research efforts, the supportive evidence of educational benefits derived from study abroad is still criticized for being anecdotal, methodologically unreliable, or devoid of a solid theoretical underpinning (Streitwieser et al., 2019). Future outcome assessment research on study abroad needs to address these issues and advance the field with more insights into what and how students are learning from study abroad.

2.4 Affective Learning Outcomes from Short-Term Study Abroad—A Systematic Synthesis

The “systematic quantitative assessment” technique for conducting literature reviews as outlined in Pickering and Byrne (2014) was employed to address the first research objective of the current study—to identify the major affective learning outcomes obtained by undergraduate students participating in short-term study abroad programs (i.e., eight weeks or less) and classify these outcomes based on the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives—The Affective Domain* (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Different from the traditional narrative approaches, the systematic quantitative method presents an explicit and reproducible way to locate relevant literature and select studies to include in the review, therefore minimizing potential biases (Pickering & Byrne, 2014). In addition, since the interested field of research contains both quantitative and qualitative studies with diverse methodological approaches, it is not feasible to conduct other types of statistical evaluation procedures, such as meta-analysis (Park & Gretzel, 2007). Therefore, the method of systematic review was utilized to synthesize the results of the extant studies and identify gaps and critical subjects or variables for future research on the topic of affective learning outcomes accrued from short-term study abroad.

2.4.1 Methodology

Following the guidance in previous literature, an electronic database search to locate relevant articles for inclusion in the review was conducted as the first step. Two databases were used as the primary source to identify relevant studies—*Academic Search Premier* and *ERIC* (Education Resources Information Center). A search within these two databases was deemed appropriate as they incorporate a premier collection of journals from every academic discipline and, especially, education-related literature and resources (EBSCO, 2020a, 2020b). Search terms included the combinations of the primary keywords—*study abroad*, *education abroad*, *international program*, secondary keywords—*short term*, *summer*, *spring break*, and tertiary keywords—*learning outcome*, *benefit*, *gain*, and *development*. No limit was applied to the publication date to allow more pertinent items to be identified. The database search was conducted in December 2019. Table 2 presents the search terms and the number of items generated in each search.

Table 2. Database search terms and number of search results (conducted in December 2019).

Primary Search Terms	Secondary Search Terms	Tertiary Search Terms	Number of Search Results			
			(a)	(b)	(c)	Subtotal
study abroad	(a) short term	learning outcome	32	6	0	38
	(b) summer	benefit	67	21	1	89
	(c) spring break	gain	48	15	0	63
		development	161	56	0	217
			308	98	1	407
education abroad	(a) short term	learning outcome	4	1	0	5
	(b) summer	benefit	6	1	1	8
	(c) spring break	gain	5	1	0	6
		development	16	5	0	21
			31	8	1	40
international program	(a) short term	learning outcome	7	2	0	9
	(b) summer	benefit	38	13	0	51
	(c) spring break	gain	16	7	0	23
		development	108	56	0	164
			169	78	0	247
			Total			694

A preliminary screening was conducted to remove exact duplicates and include only peer-reviewed English-language academic journal articles with online access to the full texts. This process resulted in 278 remaining items. Then, a second screening was conducted by reading titles and abstracts of the remaining articles to obtain the final study sample. A detailed set of inclusion/exclusion criteria corresponding to the review scope was developed to sort out the pertinent items. Specifically, an article was excluded if it:

- did not discuss learning outcomes falling within the affective domain (e.g., an article discussing foreign language acquisition in short-term study abroad was excluded), or did not discuss learning outcomes at all (e.g., an article examining economic values of short-term study abroad was excluded);
- discussed learning outcomes accrued only from long-term study abroad programs as defined in the present study (e.g., an article investigating intercultural learning in a semester-long study abroad program was excluded);
- discussed learning outcomes obtained only by students other than undergraduates (e.g., articles examining study abroad learning outcomes of graduate students or high school students were excluded).

After the two rounds of screening, a total of 103 articles were retained as the final study sample and evaluated as the author read through the full texts of the articles. For each included article, the following data were extracted and tabulated:

1. full reference details—article title, author(s), year of publication, journal title;
2. study abroad program information—program type, geographic location, duration;
3. research methodology—data collection method, sample size (not applicable to conceptual papers);
4. affective learning outcomes.

The first three categories of data were quantified to provide an overview of the basic characteristics of the published research on the topic of affective learning outcomes in short-term study abroad programs. The last category of data—affective learning outcomes reported in previous studies—were synthesized using theoretical or deductive thematic analysis. Specifically, the deductive thematic analysis was conducted by coding the data using an *a priori* codebook developed in accordance with Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s classification scheme of affective educational objectives (Crabtree & Miller, 1992; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). With the assistance of the data analysis software *NVivo 12*, the textual data were coded by matching the codes with segments of data selected as representative of the code; then, the different codes were sorted into potential themes, and each theme was checked against the relevant data and the entire dataset. At last, the identified themes were defined and assigned names (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006).

2.4.2 Results

Publication

Overall, the current review covers a 20-year publication timeframe from 1999 to 2019 (Figure 2). The number of published articles continues to grow since 2010 with a peak in 2015 (16 articles; 15.5%). The leading peer-reviewed journal in education abroad research—*Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*—constitutes the most prominent publication outlet (16 articles; 15.5%); the other source journals address the integrative or specialized topics in learning, teaching, and education. Figure 3 shows the representative source journals where two or more reviewed articles have been published in each.

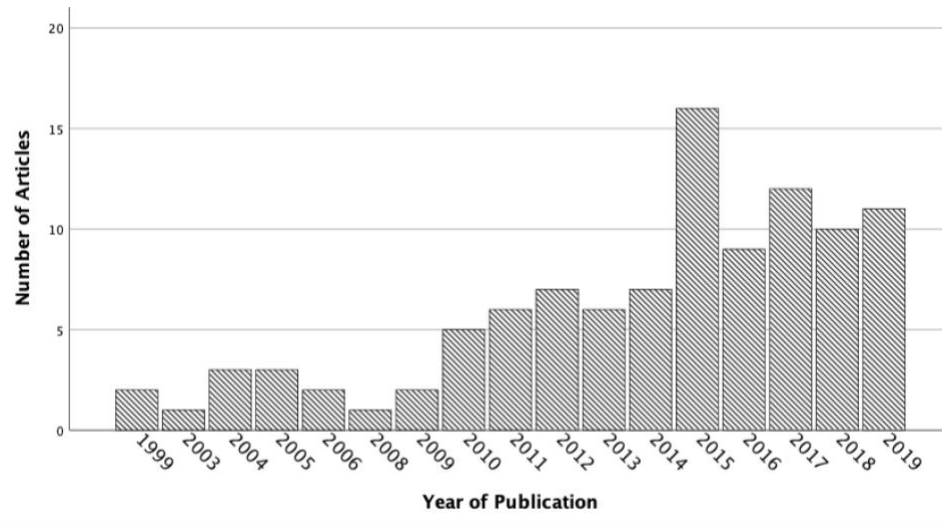


Figure 2. Number of published articles in each year from 1999 to 2019.

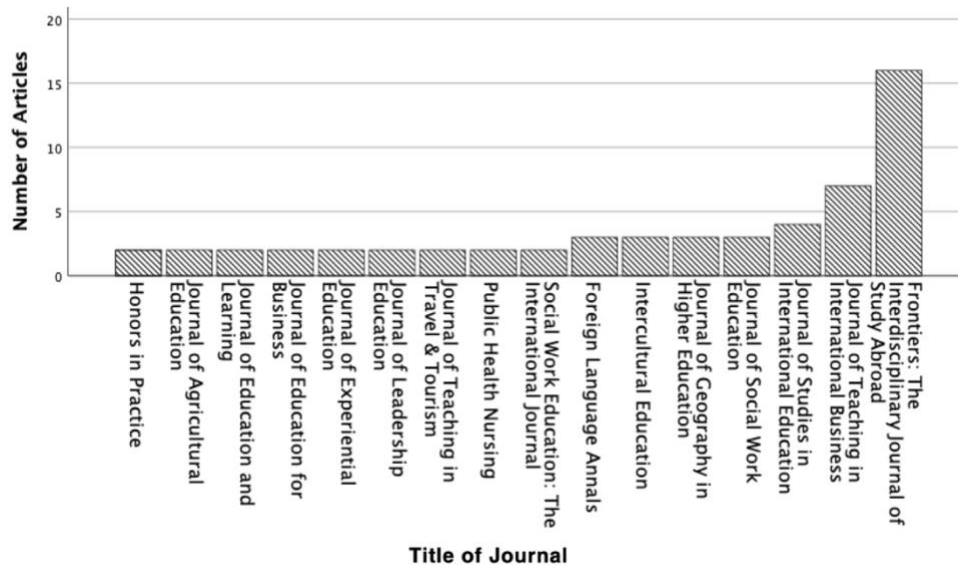


Figure 3. Representative source journals with two or more reviewed articles published in each.

Program Type, Duration, & Destination

The majority of the reviewed articles investigate faculty-led study abroad programs (61 articles; 59.2%). Faculty-led study abroad is a typical format of short-term program where one or more faculty members from the home institution plan the curriculum and lead the group abroad.

The specific content of the faculty-led programs varies, including but not limited to experiential learning courses, language-based programs, and specialized programs focusing on service learning, social work, or research training. Other types of programs covered in the review include exchange with host university or institution and co-sponsored programs (i.e., organized by a third-party study abroad provider). Most programs involve a pre-trip session to provide academic and/or cultural preparation for the participants. In some cases, the study abroad trip is an integrated element of a semester-long course, which happens either during or by the end of the course.

Except for those that did not specify, the duration of the examined study abroad programs ranges from 6 days to 8 weeks, with the majority lasting for 1-3 weeks (58 programs), followed by 4-6 weeks (34 programs). The wide spread of geographic locations of study abroad destinations is also reflected in the review. Figure 4 presents the most frequently visited countries in each region as documented in the reviewed articles (note that some programs visit multiple countries on one trip; thus, frequency instead of number of program is counted here). The trend is largely consistent with the leading destinations of U.S. study abroad as reported by *Open Doors* (IIE, 2020c). Meanwhile, since 15 (14.6%) of the reviewed articles investigate study abroad by students from non-U.S. home institutions (e.g., Australian students, Chinese students), the representation of destinations may be somewhat skewed. For example, Asian countries seem to have taken up a larger percentage in the current review than in the *Open Doors Report*, as nine programs participated by Australian students were in Asia. In addition, although destination countries less frequently recorded in the reviewed articles are not shown in Figure 4, it is worth noting that a number of investigated study abroad programs were in less conventional destinations, such as Cuba, Tunisia, and Zambia. Especially in the past few years, more and more study abroad programs have started exploring countries and regions outside the traditional “safety net” choices within Western Europe.

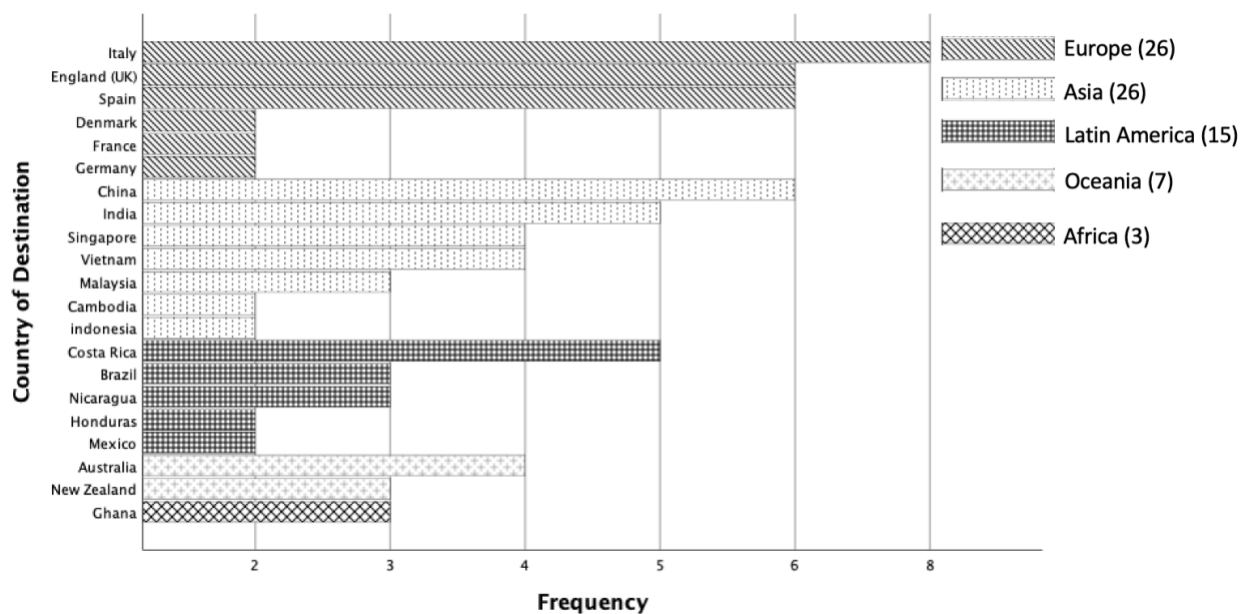


Figure 4. Most frequently visited destination countries as documented in the reviewed articles.

Research Methodology Utilized

Consistent with the study abroad research at large, the reviewed studies have frequently used qualitative (31.1%), mixed (23.3%), and quantitative (20.4%) research methods to empirically investigate students' experiences and learning outcomes in short-term study abroad programs. The most commonly utilized qualitative methods include the analysis of participating students' written narratives (i.e., journals, reflection papers, diaries, essays and other course projects) and researchers' observations and field notes, as well as data collection with open-ended survey questionnaire, interviews, and focus groups. The majority of the qualitative studies examined a cohort of students participating in one program, resulting in smaller sample sizes. Meanwhile, most studies have collected qualitative data in a variety of formats to provide rich content of the experiences and program effects from the students' and, in a few cases, the program leaders' perspectives. Although larger samples are desirable, a robust qualitative approach may counteract the limitations of small sample size to some extent.

All of the quantitative studies in the current review involve pre-post or post-only survey questionnaire data collection, and 11 of them have included one or more comparison groups (i.e., long-term study abroad students and/or on-campus control group) for further analysis. The

mixed-methods studies have mostly adopted pre-post survey in addition to some form of qualitative data collection, such as students' reflection journals and in-depth interviews. Among the quantitative and mixed-methods studies, except for 12 articles with sample sizes larger than 200 students (including comparison groups), most studies are also subject to the issues of small samples—in some cases as small as 10 students. It is acknowledged that large samples are relatively difficult to achieve in such institution-based overseas projects (Dorsett et al., 2019), especially when the target sample of over half of the reviewed empirical studies (39 out of 77 articles) was one cohort of students in one single study abroad program. Collecting data from multiple cohorts is one way to expand the sample size for the focused investigation of one program; meanwhile, to include a number of study abroad programs which are similar in terms of duration, format, or course subject is also an approach for obtaining larger study samples and more variations within the data.

20.4% of the reviewed articles can be categorized as case studies, which focus on describing the features or step-by-step development of one program or one type of programs and presenting “how to” instructions or suggestions, with no or only preliminary assessment data collection and analysis. Evidently a common type of study in the field of study abroad research, such articles have both strengths and weaknesses. On one hand, the detailed descriptions of program design and delivery provide valuable implications for future program leaders and study abroad practitioners in general to learn from previous experiences. On the other hand, the instructions of program development and “lessons learned” in such case studies are becoming either too generic and homogeneous, or too course-specific and less generalizable. Furthermore, the student learning outcomes reported in these articles lack the support of empirical data and rigorous assessment, rendering the case studies a less desirable source for the evidence of study abroad programs' effect on student learning.

The remaining five articles (4.9%) in the review used other methods to discuss the impacts of short-term study abroad programs, such as literature review, conceptual modeling, and expert panel discussion (the Delphi method). Table 3 presents a summary of the utilized methods in the reviewed articles.

Table 3. Utilized research methods and number of reviewed articles.

Research Method	Number of Articles	Number of Articles by Study Abroad Program Investigated	
		Single Program	Multiple Programs
Qualitative	32 (31.1%)	25	7
Quantitative	21 (20.4%)	9	12
Mixed-Methods	24 (23.3%)	12	12
Case Study	21 (20.4%)	16	5
Other	5 (4.9%)	/	/
<i>Total</i>	<i>103</i>	<i>62</i>	<i>36</i>

2.4.3 Discussion

The reviewed research on short-term study abroad programs has reported a myriad of learning outcomes that fall within the affective domain. The current review aims to use a coding scheme developed according to Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s taxonomy of affective educational objectives and action verbs from the affective domain as identified by Boyd et al. (2006) to extract and classify the recorded affective learning outcomes. A total of 359 excerpts (containing sentences or paragraphs) of affective outcomes were classified into five categories (ordered by the level of internalization from low to high)—*receiving*, *responding*, *valuing*, *organization*, and *characterization*. Based on the analysis of the coded texts, four themes have been formulated regarding the identification and assessment of affective learning outcomes in short-term study abroad programs.

Lower-Level Affective Learning—Developing Awareness

Awareness describes a human response where the individual is sensitized to the existence of certain phenomena or stimuli, willing to pay them attention and recognition rather than ignoring or denying their existence (Boyd et al., 2006; Krathwohl et al., 1964). The development of awareness is considered a lower-level affective educational objective which is relatively easier to achieve and evaluate. It corresponds to the first category—*1.0 Receiving*—of Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s taxonomy but is beyond the lowest level (i.e., *1.1 Awareness*), which is awareness in its simplest form of mere consciousness. Study abroad exposes students to new and unfamiliar

environments with people, opinions, customs, and lifestyles that are distinct from their own, consequently stimulating awareness.

Among the 359 excerpts of affective learning outcomes from the reviewed articles, 70 (19.5%) refer to developing awareness. Participation in short-term study abroad is demonstrated to have a positive impact on students' awareness of differences in cultures, perspectives and beliefs, and communication styles (e.g., Bai et al., 2016; Black & Duhon, 2006; Blankvoort et al., 2019). The participants also become more aware of global interdependence as well as the context and consequences of globalization (e.g., Cai & Sankaran, 2015; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Gambino & Hashim, 2016), and more aware of current events and global issues such as poverty, inequity, and the environment (e.g., Boone et al., 2013; Caldwell & Purtzer, 2015; McLaughlin & Johnson, 2006). In addition, students have reported increasing awareness of oneself (i.e., self-awareness), including a deeper look into self-identity, awareness of one's privilege, cultural assumptions and stereotypes, and one's limitations or lack of knowledge and competence (e.g., Anderson et al., 2016; Boateng & Thompson, 2013; Bond et al., 2005).

Generally, students have demonstrated the development of awareness simply by choosing to report the aforementioned benefits in the learning assessment during or after the program (Boyd et al., 2006). Meanwhile, the extant literature reveals a definitional challenge regarding the term "awareness," leading to disparate conceptualizations and measurements of the relevant constructs, such as global awareness and intercultural (or cultural, cross-cultural) awareness. In some studies, awareness is used as an umbrella term, incorporating learning outcomes at higher levels of the affective domain. For example, Chieffo and Griffiths (2004) measure the development of global awareness among groups of winter session study abroad students and students who stayed on campus. They define global awareness by four categories—intercultural awareness, awareness of global interdependence, functional knowledge of world geography and language, and personal growth and development (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004). Similarly, in a qualitative study with 15 short-term study abroad students, Blake-Campbell (2014) interprets increased global awareness as being more globally minded, gaining refined knowledge on global citizenship and global competence, being motivated to explore global issues, and growth in empathy. Intercultural awareness has also been considered a higher-order outcome encompassing various items—understanding of international issues, other cultures and countries, and one's own culture; curiosity about other cultures; appreciation of human difference; cultural empathy and

communication competence; openness to new ideas and the capacity to change one's own ideas; and flexibility, tolerance, and patience (Alexis et al., 2017; Ingraham & Peterson, 2004; Scharoun, 2016).

In other studies, definitions of global awareness with a narrower scope have been employed, such as acknowledging the increasing connectivity and interdependence of the world and developing a sense of and familiarity with the global village (Helms et al., 2003), and “alertness and responsiveness to issues that are global in nature” (Stoner et al., 2014, p. 152). Intercultural awareness has been collated under constructs like global awareness and intercultural competence (Bunch et al., 2018; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004; Dorsett et al., 2019; Grant, 2018), and it has also been used as a stand-alone learning outcome. The inconsistent interpretation and operationalization of these constructs are likely to hinder the effective assessment of study abroad students' gained learning outcomes. Therefore, the current study proposes to use the term “awareness” in line with the affective taxonomy, where awareness—a lower-level affective learning outcome—refers to the recognition of and attention to certain phenomena based on a basic understanding or knowledge of the phenomena. Consequently, global awareness describes the recognition of global interdependence and attention to global issues; while intercultural awareness is the recognition of and attention to cultural similarities and differences as reflected in perspectives, ways of communication, lifestyles, and so forth. With the clarified definitions, future research can develop or revise measurement scales and coding schemes accordingly to better evaluate the acquisition of these affective learning outcomes.

Lower-Level Affective Learning—Cultivating Responses with Emotions

At a higher level than awareness or *receiving* along the continuum of internalization is the affective objective of *responding*, denoting a sufficient motivation and willingness to react to certain phenomena or stimuli and, furthermore, an emotion in responses (Krathwohl et al., 1964). This emotional component—generally of satisfaction, pleasure, or enjoyment—that accompanies the response “designates a reinforcement or reward which tends to increase the frequency and strength of the response” (Krathwohl et al., 1964, p. 130); thus, educators seek to elicit emotions for their value in building behaviors. It is worth noting that, although most elicited emotions have positive valence, sometimes negative emotional responses are evoked to facilitate learning. This is especially true in transformative learning settings such as study abroad. For example,

during a two-week program in Bangladesh on the topic of sustainable development, students from the U.S. reported feelings of shock and remorse towards the poverty and yet spiritual abundance of the Bangladeshis' life and the wasteful, seemingly meaningless American consumer culture (Gambino & Hashim, 2016). Feelings of guilt, shame, or humility have also been revealed by short-term study abroad students, particularly those who visited an impoverished or underdeveloped area and were involved in community work and service learning (e.g., Caldwell & Purtzer, 2015; Dorsett et al., 2019; Lyons et al., 2018).

A variety of affective learning outcomes at this level are presented in the literature. Specifically, 30 excerpts (8.4%) refer to increased interest in and curiosity, motivation, or desire for learning about other countries, cultures, and people, learning foreign languages, engaging in coursework or interdisciplinary studies, gaining more knowledge on global issues, and pursuing more international travel and experiences abroad—such as longer-term study abroad, internships, and research—in the future (e.g., Blake-Campbell, 2014; Bretag & van der Veen, 2017; Dekaney, 2008). Another 23 excerpts (6.4%) are about enhanced flexibility and openness (or open-mindedness) to new experiences or ideas, different values and beliefs, diversity in cultures or people, as well as challenging situations and confrontation (e.g., Batey & Lupi, 2012; Harrison & Palmer, 2019; Tajés & Ortiz, 2010).

Compared with interest and motivation, flexibility and openness incorporate more explicitly an emotional element. Pascarella et al. (1996) define openness to diversity or challenge as “an orientation toward enjoyment from being intellectually challenged by different ideas, values, and perspectives as well as an appreciation of racial, cultural, and value diversity” (p. 179). Similarly, the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory (CCAI; Kelly & Meyers, 1995) includes flexibility and openness as one of the dimensions, which is measured by the extent to which an individual lacks rigidity, enjoys diversity, and likes being with and learning from different people (Black & Duhon, 2006; Nguyen et al., 2010). In addition to enjoyment, short-term study abroad participants have indicated increased levels of emotional comfort interacting with people different from oneself, communicating in a foreign language, traveling abroad and exploring new places, and handling challenging or novel situations (e.g., Glass, 2015; Ingraham & Peterson, 2004; Jackson, 2009).

Interestingly, the opposites of comfort—the feelings of discomfort or emotional strain—are also beneficial, as they can act as a means to extend students' flexibility and openness (Batey

& Lupi, 2012). Study abroad students have mentioned experiencing linguistic and cultural discomfort and stress, especially at the beginning of their programs (Grant, 2018; Menard-Warwick & Palmer, 2012; Seay et al., 2016). Meanwhile, attempts to “push the boundaries,” stretch beyond one’s comfort level, or step out of their intellectual and material comfort zones have been reported more frequently (e.g., Bretag & van der Veen, 2017; Gambino & Hashim, 2016; Glass, 2015). The conscious effort to overcome emotional or psychological obstacles is described as emotional resilience in CCAI, measured by one’s capacity to cope with discomfort or ambiguity and bounce back from imperfections and mistakes (Batey & Lupi, 2012; Black & Duhon, 2006; Kelly & Meyers, 1995). Emotional resilience and openness are like two sides of a coin; together, they constitute the necessary responses to the new and disorienting situations that students are to experience during study abroad, and enable the acquisition of more complicated learning outcomes in the later stages of the transformative and experiential learning process.

Another related learning outcome reported in the reviewed literature (21 excerpts; 5.8%) is intercultural sensitivity. Chen and Starosta (2000) conceptualize intercultural sensitivity as an individual’s active desire to motivate themselves to develop a positive emotion towards understanding, appreciating, and accepting cultural differences. Based on this definition, intercultural sensitivity can be considered as a combination of the aforementioned affective outcomes at the *responding* level (i.e., interest and motivation, flexibility and openness) confined within the aspect of cross-cultural interactions. Apart from language proficiency, sensitivity towards culturally-distinct counterparts by showing interest and respect and reserving judgement is key to effective social interactions in a cross-cultural setting (Chen & Starosta, 2000; Tarrant et al., 2015). Well-designed short-term study abroad can lead to increased intercultural sensitivity through a positive cycle of intention/preparation, learning activity participation, and reflection during the entire pre-departure, on-site, and post-trip experience (Fierke et al., 2016; Hall et al., 2016; Paras et al., 2019).

Mid-Level Affective Learning—Establishing Appreciation and Values

In Krathwohl et al. (1964)’s affective taxonomy, the subsequent category following *responding* is *valuing*, in which the individual is perceived as holding a particular belief, attitude, or value. At this level, one demonstrates the acceptance of a value (i.e., a general notion that something has worth and is considered important in its own right), preference for a value, and

even commitment to a value. In the context of short-term study abroad, it is difficult to assess the higher-level learning outcomes of *valuing*, as the short duration does not allow the measurement of consistent and stable behaviors, which are integral characteristics of value internalization (Kraithwohl et al., 1964). Nevertheless, previous research on short-term study abroad has provided evidence of the students' establishment of appreciation and certain senses of value, which represents at least a step forward along the continuum of internalization.

Among the 359 excerpts of affective learning outcomes extracted from the reviewed articles, 35 (9.75%) concern the development of appreciation, including appreciation of the host country or culture, one's home country or culture, and other cultures or the cross-cultural environment in general (e.g., Antonakopoulou, 2013; Boateng & Thompson, 2013; Cai & Sankaran, 2015); appreciation for human differences (i.e., different perspectives, attitudes, and beliefs) and cultural diversity (e.g., Gambino & Hashim, 2016; Ingraham & Peterson, 2004; Pipitone, 2018); and appreciation for arts and history, the natural environment and the severity of environmental problems, other global issues and the globally linked nature of modern endeavors, and one's own role and responsibility in the interconnected world (e.g., Bell & Anscombe, 2013; McComb et al., 2019; Ritz, 2011). The establishment of appreciation is based upon a deeper understanding of certain phenomenon or material and an acknowledgement of its value and significance. Short-term study abroad programs, especially those that are committed to specific themes (e.g., music, culture, and art; sustainability and conservation), provide abundant opportunities for students to gain first-hand experiences, comprehend the inherent value, and in turn develop appreciation.

A number of the reviewed articles (18 excerpts; 5%) have also discussed the formulation of certain senses of values related to ethical or moral obligations, as well as social and civic responsibility—especially regarding social justice and sustainability (e.g., Bell & Anscombe, 2013; Le & Raven, 2015; Moorhead et al., 2014; Shupe, 2013). Especially, the impact of short-term study abroad on activating students' environmental values has received more attention in scholarly works in the recent few years.

As previous research indicates, the environment is a context where global citizenship is best considered, because most environmental issues transcend the national boundaries and require a joint effort of “globally minded citizens” who understand the interdependence of the world and have a concern for environmental problems and their global impacts (Stoner et al.,

2014; Tarrant, 2010; Tarrant & Lyons, 2012). Participation in study abroad can modify beliefs about environmental conditions, promote environmental virtuous values and senses of environmental responsibility, and ultimately lead to pro-environmental behaviors (Tarrant, 2010). A widely applied scale measuring this pro-environmental orientation is the New Environmental Paradigm (NEP) that focuses on “beliefs about humanity’s ability to upset the balance of nature, the existence of limits to growth for human societies, and humanity’s right to rule over the rest of nature” (Dunlap et al., 2000, p. 427). This scale was later revised to a 15-item instrument called the New Ecological Paradigm Scale, which provides a contemporary measure of general environmental concerns and has been adopted by study abroad researchers as one of the learning outcome assessment tools (Dunlap et al., 2000; Landon et al., 2017; Tarrant, 2010).

Experiential education—in this case, short-term study abroad—plays a critical role in forming values (Stoner et al., 2014; Tarrant, 2010). It has been acknowledged that affective learning outcomes at this level are becoming considerably more difficult to measure than those in the *receiving* or *responding* categories; meanwhile, high scores on instruments measuring attitudes, beliefs, and values can be taken as evidence of this level (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Based on the current review, the investigation of learning outcomes pertinent to value development is a relatively recent phenomenon in the study abroad literature. Furthermore, most of the outcomes were only mentioned in the narratives of a small sample of participants, or were discussed in the case studies as the educational goals of a particular program. There is a need to further understand and empirically evaluate the effect of short-term study abroad on participating students’ value formation. Future studies can employ appropriate quantitative instruments (e.g., the revised NEP scale) alongside qualitative inquiries to examine the adoption or transformation of certain values as a result of study abroad participation. Moreover, longitudinal research can be conducted to verify the level of internalization of the formed values by monitoring the students’ long-term behaviors and life choices.

Higher-Level Affective Learning—Organizing Values and Forming Characteristics

The higher-level affective learning objectives in the classification scheme include *organization* and *characterization*, which both concern bringing together a complex of values into an internally consistent system. The peak of the internalization process—*characterization*—

is manifested through one's view of the universe, philosophy of life, and encompassing, unique personal characteristics (Krathwohl et al., 1964). Students who have obtained the higher-level affective outcomes will demonstrate consistency and priority of their values in the system (Boyd et al., 2006). Furthermore, the value system's control of the individual's behavior is so generalized that he/she will display consistently an orientation toward phenomena or a predisposition to act in a certain way, such as approaching problems objectively and with confidence (Krathwohl et al., 1964). It is again conceivable that short-term study abroad renders limited testing scenarios for students' behavioral consistency due to its brevity. However, previous research still reveals affective learning outcomes that fall within the higher-level categories, albeit mainly suggesting some movement in the positive direction instead of providing definitive and quantifiable achievements (Bond et al., 2005; Lyons et al., 2018).

A large proportion of the outcomes at this level reflect the process and results of transformative learning (38 excerpts; 10.6%), as students experience changes in attitudes and perspectives, start critically assessing and questioning their basic underlying assumptions and core beliefs and values, and indicate intentions to adjust worldviews and modify behaviors (e.g., Blake-Campbell, 2014; Harrison & Palmer, 2019; Tarrant, 2010). Among the mostly generic statements regarding the transformation of study abroad participants, one specific indicator of change stands out—the shift of mindset or worldview from ethnocentrism towards ethnorelativism.

As a critical concept in understanding intergroup relations, ethnocentrism describes the tendency of people putting their own group in a position of centrality and viewing themselves as virtuous and superior, while creating and reinforcing negative attitudes and behaviors toward outgroups (Neuliep & McCroskey, 1997). In contrast, the ethnorelative worldview holds that “cultures can only be understood relative to one another, and that particular behavior can only be understood within a cultural context” (Bennett, 1993, p. 46). In the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS)—one of the most prominent theoretical frameworks in intercultural learning, Bennett (1993) presents a developmental process of responding to cultural differences, including three ethnocentric stages (i.e., denial, defense, minimization) and three ethnorelative stages (i.e., acceptance, adaptation, integration). Short-term study abroad students' development of ethnorelativism or overcoming of their ethnocentric views has been evaluated both qualitatively with interviews or reflection journals, and quantitatively through measurement

scales such as the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)—a psychometric instrument constructed based on DMIS (e.g., Bloom & Miranda, 2015; Caldwell & Purtzer, 2015; Jackson, 2009).

Another 23 excerpts (6.4%) pertain to the impact of short-term study abroad experience on participants' identity formation or change. Identity is defined as "that solid sense of self, that inner feeling of mastery and ownership" (Chickering & Reisser, 1993; as cited in Shames & Alden, 2005, p. 5). Individuals with a strong sense of identity often have a clear value system and unambiguous ideas regarding oneself in relation to the self, to others, and to the world (Black & Duhon, 2006; Shames & Alden, 2005). Specifically, the reviewed articles cover a variety of identity-related affective outcomes, including changes in the perceptions of cultural identity (e.g., learned to reflect on oneself both as a cultural being in one's own right and in relation to a different culture) (Kortegast & Boisfontaine, 2015; Medina-López-Portillo, 2004; Paras et al., 2019), (re)connections with personal faith systems and attainment of new aspects of intrapersonal identity (Anderson et al., 2016; Coryell, 2011; Hall et al., 2016), and strengthened senses of group identity (e.g., reinforced commitment as European citizens) and professional identity (Bai et al., 2016; Blankvoort et al., 2019; Cushing et al., 2019; Glass, 2015; Moorhead et al., 2014; Stoner et al., 2014). The establishment and maintenance of identity reflect the development of personal autonomy, with which the student can remain confident and open-minded toward unfamiliar people and different cultures without feeling threatened by a loss of self in cross-cultural interactions (Batey & Lupi, 2012).

Integral to developing a positive identity is the acquisition of the ability to value and affirm oneself over time and across various contexts—in other words, the development of confidence in one's abilities, opinions, and self-sufficiency (Shames & Alden, 2005). The study abroad experience involves a considerable level of separation from one's familiar environment and increased reliance on oneself and the peer group, which may lead to major changes related to the complex objectives in the affective domain (Krathwohl et al., 1964; Shames & Alden, 2005). In fact, 49 excerpts (13.6%) of student learning outcomes from the reviewed articles are about enhanced confidence or self-efficacy, especially in terms of the generalized notion—the belief in one's capabilities to complete a task successfully or self-confidence as a student, a professional, a traveler, and a global citizen (e.g., Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012; Gambino & Hashim, 2016; Moorhead et al., 2014; Parada et al., 2018; Shiri, 2015). The overall confidence boosted through

study abroad is able to be retained and transferred to other areas of their lives, characterizing the students as maturing individuals in the long run (Bai et al., 2016; Ritz, 2011; Ruth et al., 2019).

2.4.4 Conclusion

The systematic synthesis of 103 studies on the affective learning outcomes obtained by undergraduate students participating in short-term (i.e., eight weeks or less) study abroad programs aims to identify the salient affective learning outcomes reported in previous literature and classify them in accordance with the *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives—The Affective Domain* (Krathwohl et al., 1964). The findings reveal four categories of affective learning outcomes positioned along the classification scheme, including developing awareness, cultivating responses with emotions, establishing appreciation and values, and organizing values and forming characteristics. Figure 5 illustrates the hierarchically ordered categories and specific affective learning outcomes within each category.

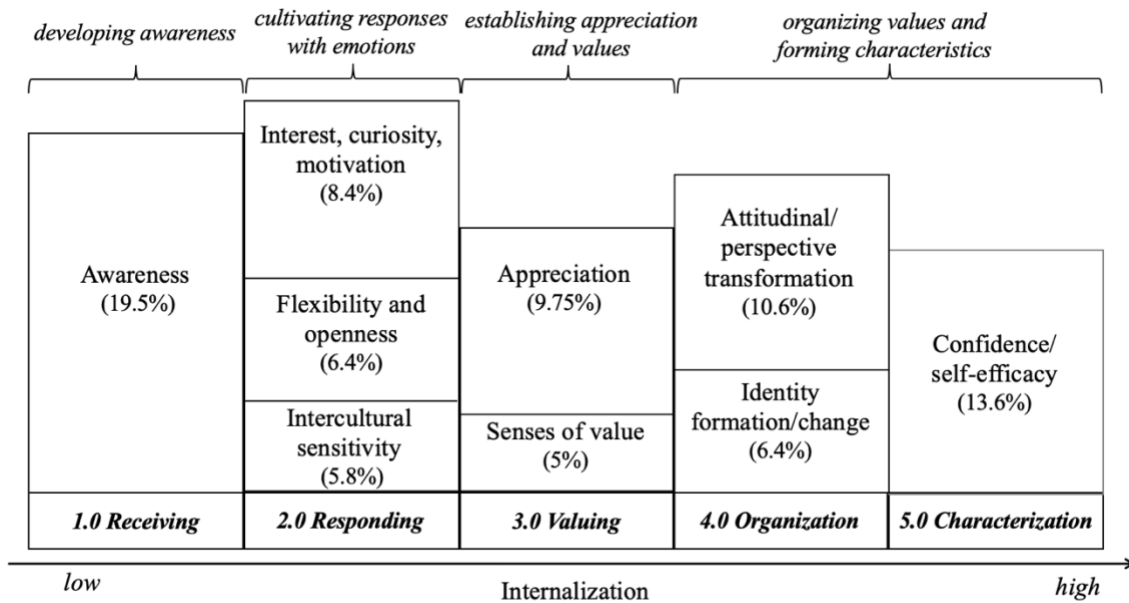


Figure 5. Affective learning outcomes obtained by undergraduates in short-term study abroad programs.

Note that the percentages of the learning outcomes shown in the figure do not add up to 100%, as the rest of the excerpts refer to overarching or mixed learning outcomes (e.g., personal growth and development, global competence) that could not be coded into any category. It also

reflects a lack of clarity in some study abroad outcome assessment research, where student learning outcomes are often presented as a cluster of similar or overlapping terms or phrases, and cognitive, affective, and psychomotor learning outcomes are mixed together. For example, Le et al. (2018) indicate that business students participating in international cocurricular activities (including summer study abroad) can “increase their knowledge of global issues, reflect on social responsibility and social justice, develop cultural empathy, enhance the ability to be nonjudgmental, establish a cosmopolitan thinking, and develop the ability to grasp and articulate complexity” (p. 68). Given the importance of affective learning in students’ personal and professional development and the significant role study abroad plays in helping students attain affective outcomes, it is essential to identify salient outcomes from the extant literature and further investigate how short-term study abroad programs can contribute to the acquisition of these outcomes more effectively.

The current review indicates a lack of quantitative and mixed-methods studies on the topic of affective learning outcomes in short-term study abroad. Qualitative studies are advantageous in capturing the nuances of students’ learning through study abroad; however, researchers have found that students find it difficult to articulate and explain what they have learned from their experiences and the changes they have undergone (Kortegast & Boisfontaine, 2015; Smith & Mrozek, 2016). Therefore, instead of relying solely on qualitative inquiries, a set of constructs for quantitative measurement of affective learning outcomes is proposed based on the findings in the review, as shown in Figure 6.

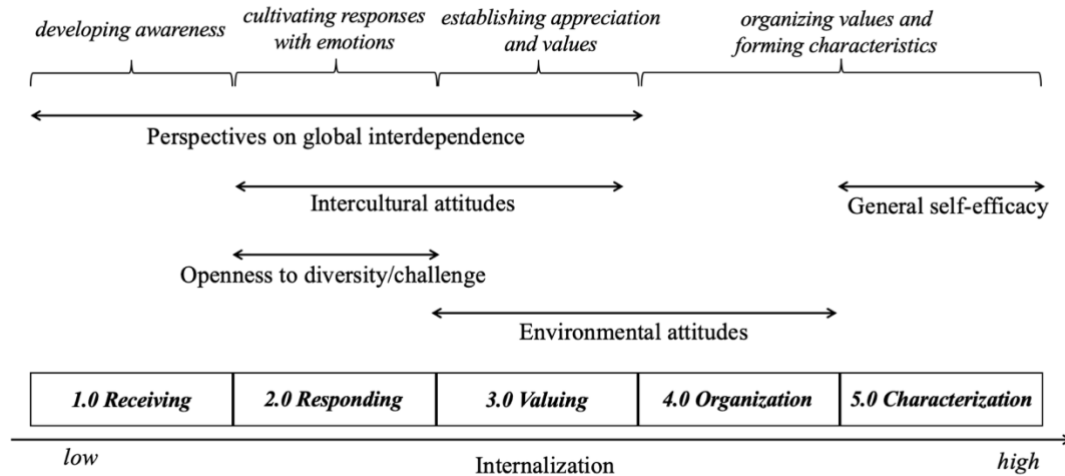


Figure 6. Constructs of affective learning outcomes for quantitative measurement.

In line with the discussions in previous literature, the proposed constructs largely measure the lower- and mid-level affective learning outcomes, as short-term study abroad is considered the most influential in the attainment of outcomes in those categories. Furthermore, global interdependence, intercultural interactions, diversity and challenge, as well as environmental issues are prominent subjects in the context of study abroad, toward which the students' reactions or responses are worth investigating. Finally, general self-efficacy is one of the few higher-level affective learning outcomes that can be enhanced by short-term study abroad experience and tested with scales currently available.

As a result of the systematic synthesis along with the literature review presented in the previous sections, a conceptual framework for the dissertation is proposed, as shown in Figure 7. The framework illustrates the potential impact of the formal education (i.e., academic characteristics) and travel (i.e., trip characteristics) components of short-term study abroad on participants' affective learning outcomes, which will be empirically tested with data collected from undergraduate students participating in short-term study abroad programs provided by a large public university in Midwest USA.

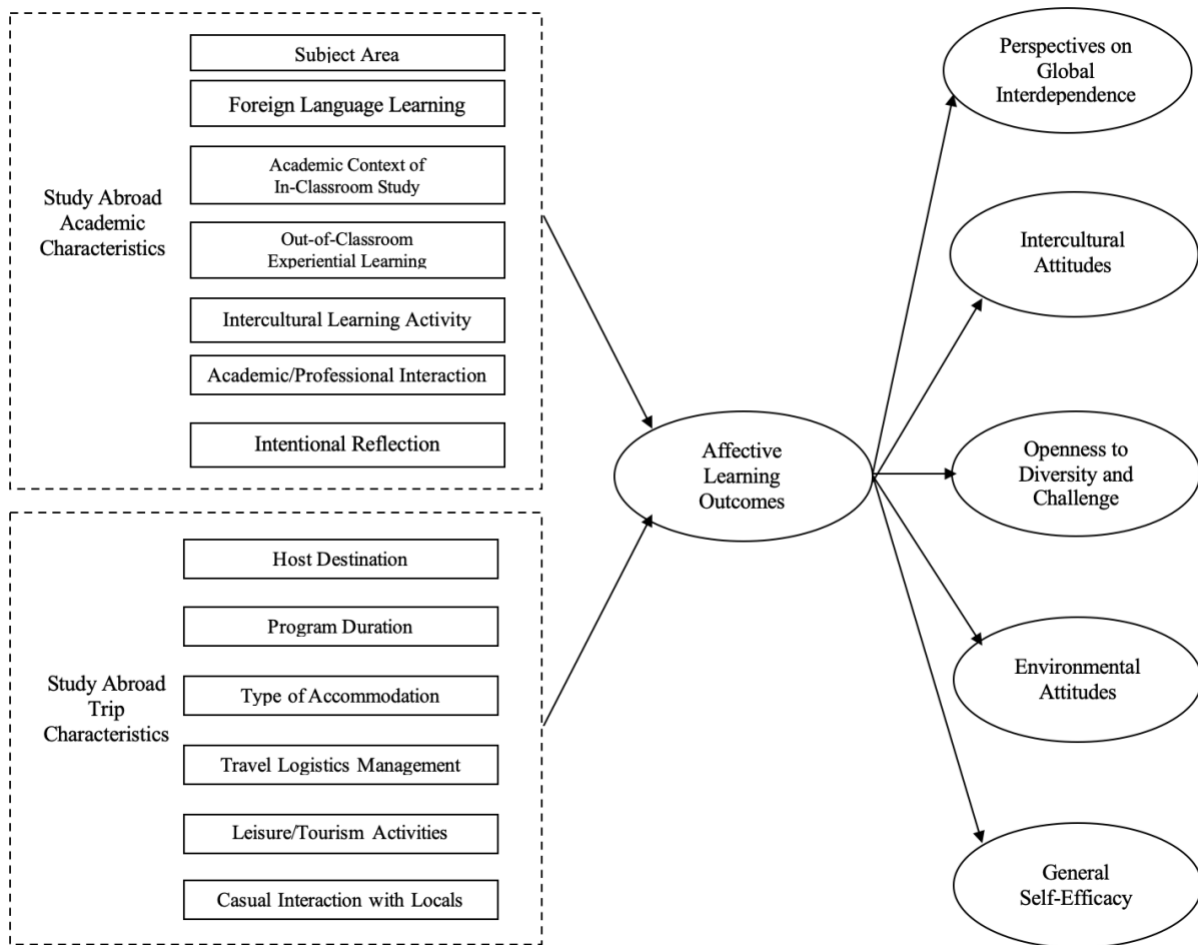


Figure 7. The conceptual framework of the dissertation.

CHAPTER 3. METHODOLOGY

To achieve the research objectives, this study adopted a mixed methods approach. The utilization of both qualitative and quantitative research methods to investigate the same phenomenon has been justified in previous literature. The follow-up qualitative data collection and analysis can illustrate and explain the findings generated by the quantitative approach and provide rich descriptive details for a more contextual and comprehensive understanding of the research topic (Amaratunga et al., 2002; Bryman, 2006; Trochim et al., 2016). Specifically, in the present study, quantitative data was collected with pre-departure and post-program self-administered survey questionnaires. Following the post-program survey data collection, focus groups were conducted to collect qualitative data. The purpose of the focus groups was to examine the study abroad participants' first-hand experiences and unpack the findings from the survey data to further understand how and why they perceived their affective learning outcomes influenced by different study abroad components. The following sections specify the population and sample, development of survey questionnaire and focus group protocol, procedures of data collection, and methods of data analysis.

3.1 Population and Sample

The target population for this study was undergraduate students at U.S. universities (including domestic and international students) who attend short-term (i.e., eight weeks or less) study abroad programs. The undergraduates enrolled in a large public university in the Midwest (LPMU) who attended university-affiliated, short-term study abroad programs during the 2018-2020 academic years constituted the accessible population for this study. LPMU is among the top 25 leading institutions by study abroad total during the past few years, as revealed by the *Open Doors Report* (IIE, 2020d). The university offers a variety of study abroad options with different types of program design and administration, durations, and destinations for undergraduates in all majors and at all levels. A majority (over 80%) of LPMU study abroad students were in short-term programs, consistent with the national trend. The comparison between LPMU study abroad student profile and that of the U.S. study abroad students as reported by IIE for the same year showed similar characteristics in terms of gender, ethnicity,

and academic level, with LPMU's percentage of male study abroad students slightly higher than the overall figure and that of White students slightly lower (IIE, 2020a). Overall, it is reasonable to consider a sample of LPMU short-term study abroad participants representative of the population of U.S. undergraduates who study abroad for a short term.

The study sample included LPMU undergraduates who were enrolled in a short-term study abroad program in one of the four terms—Spring Break 2019, Summer 2019, Winter Break 2019, and Spring Break 2020. While programs offered in each term varied with respect to length, country of destination, and program design, all of the sampled programs were within the duration range of one week to eight weeks. Specifically, all spring break and winter break programs offered by LPMU are one- or two-week long. A small proportion (about 5%) of summer programs are longer than eight weeks, while none of the Summer 2019 students in the sample participated in one of those programs.

3.2 Instrumentation

The dependent variables of this study were undergraduate students' affective learning outcomes obtained from short-term study abroad participation. Based on the systematic synthesis of extant literature described in the previous section (i.e., section 2.4), five primary affective learning outcomes were identified—*perspectives on global interdependence, intercultural attitudes, openness to diversity and challenge, environmental attitudes, and general self-efficacy*—as the dependent variables to be examined in this study.

The independent variables were academic and trip characteristics of short-term study abroad programs. As defined for the purpose of the current study, academic characteristics refer to the program features that reflect the formal education component of study abroad, including subject area of courses taken abroad, host country language (non-English) learning, academic context of in-classroom study, frequency of outside-of-classroom experiential learning, frequency of intercultural learning activities, frequency of academic and/or professional interactions, and frequency of intentional reflection through writing or journaling. Trip characteristics, on the other hand, describe the program features that reflect the travel component of study abroad, including the host destination (evaluated by the cultural distance from the United States), program duration, type of accommodation, type of travel logistics management, type of leisure/tourism activities, and frequency of casual interaction with locals. The series of

independent variables included in this study were identified from the review of relevant study abroad literature (e.g., Engle & Engle, 2003; Sutton et al., 2007; Terzuolo, 2016; Vande Berg et al., 2009).

3.2.1 Survey Instrument

A pre-test post-test design was adopted in the survey data collection to determine the overall effect that short-term study abroad programs had on the affective learning outcomes of participating students. Therefore, two versions of survey questionnaire were developed—a pre-departure survey and a post-program one.

The pre-departure survey consisted of two sections. The first part of the questionnaire intended to collect information on the study abroad students' affective learning baseline scores. The constructs of affective learning were measured with scales adapted from previous literature—*perspectives on global interdependence* (4 items) (Association of American Colleges and Universities [AAC&U], 2014; Hett, 1993), *intercultural attitudes* (6 items) (Ang et al., 2007; Hett, 1993; Holgate et al., n.d.; Research Institute for Studies in Education, 2017), *openness to diversity and challenge* (4 items) (Pascarella et al., 1996), *environmental attitudes* (8 items) (Dunlap et al., 2000), and *general self-efficacy* (5 items) (Chen et al., 2001). All the items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 7= *strongly agree*).

The second part of the pre-departure survey contained questions regarding the participants' demographic and background information, including gender, age, ethnicity, current class level, subject area of major, and type of student in the U.S (i.e., domestic or international student). The pre-departure questionnaire is shown in Appendix A.

The post-program survey consisted of three sections. The first section intended to measure the study abroad participants' affective learning outcomes using the same scale as employed in the pre-departure survey. The second section contained two sub-sections, aiming to collect information on the study abroad program's academic characteristics and trip characteristics. In the first sub-section, the respondents were instructed to indicate the main subject area of the study abroad course (note that “course” here—and hereafter—refers to either in-classroom studies, or outside-of-classroom experiential learning activities, or both), main language of course instruction—*English* or *Non-English*, host country language (if non-English) learning during study abroad—*Yes* or *No*, academic context of in-classroom studies (if

applicable)—*With or Without host university students*, frequency of participation in any experiential learning activity (e.g., internship, field trip, practical training, etc.)—*Always, Sometimes, or Never*, frequency of participation in any intercultural learning activity (e.g., cultural class/workshop, orientation, on-site mentoring, etc.)—*Always, Sometimes, or Never*, frequency of interaction with host country/university students, faculty, staff, or professionals—*Always, Very often, Sometimes, Rarely, or Never*, and frequency of intentional reflection of study abroad experience through writing or journaling—*Always, Sometimes, or Never*. These items were adapted from previous literature (Engle & Engle, 2003; Terzuolo, 2016).

In the second sub-section, the respondents were asked about the trip characteristics of their study abroad programs. Questions included the region of study abroad destination, length of program, and main type of housing—*With or Without host country residents/students*. These items were adapted from previous literature (Terzuolo, 2016; Vande Berg et al., 2009). In addition, respondents were asked to indicate how travel logistics (e.g., booking flight tickets, preparing travel documents, etc.) were managed—*Mostly done independently or done by program leaders/family members*, type of for-leisure travel during study abroad (multiple answers could be chosen)—*Organized group excursion, Package tour, Independent travel, etc.*, type of leisure/tourism activities during study abroad (multiple answers could be chosen)—*Visiting cultural/historical sites, Visiting nature-based tourism destinations, Going to the beach/resort, etc.*, and frequency of interaction with local people while traveling—*Always, Very often, Sometimes, Rarely, or Never*. These items were developed by the author based on the review of prior research on tourism and learning (e.g., Freestone & Geldens, 2008; Kirillova et al., 2015; Scarinci & Pearce, 2012).

The last section contained demographic questions as employed in the pre-departure survey. At the end of the survey, respondents were asked if they would like to participate in a follow-up focus group to talk more about their study abroad experience. The post-program questionnaire is shown in Appendix B.

3.2.2 Focus Group Protocol

Follow-up focus groups were conducted to elicit more detailed descriptions and perceptions from the respondents to achieve a greater scope for understanding the effect of short-term study abroad on the participants' affective learning outcomes. The adoption of focus groups

was considered more appropriate in the context of the current study relative to individual interviews, because focus groups promote insightful discourses and spontaneous conversations on a topic that the participants can “relate their experiences and reactions among presumed peers with whom they likely share some common frame of reference” (Kidd & Parshall, 2000, p. 294). In a comfortable environment and led by a skillful moderator, focus group participants stimulate each other to communicate their experiences and views in a way that individual interviews cannot facilitate (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Krueger & Casey, 2001).

A set of semi-structured questions were developed to prompt responses and evoke conversations among the participants while ensuring the key topics were covered. One section of the questions was based on the affective learning outcome scale adopted in the pre-departure and post-program survey questionnaires. Each of the focus group participants was presented a print-out of the five sets of measurement items along with the name of the corresponding construct (e.g., *general self-efficacy*) as the moderator asked related questions. The focus group protocol is as follows:

1. Study abroad experience and learning outcomes
 - 1.1 Please describe to me the most memorable experience during your study abroad program, and what do you think you have learned from this memorable experience?
 - 1.2 Reflect on your experience throughout the entire study abroad program, what do you think are the three most important things that you’ve gained from participating in the program?
2. Affective learning outcomes from study abroad
 - 2.1 Reflect on the five constructs of affective learning outcomes that appeared in the pre-/post-survey you did. Do you perceive any change in your perceptions/attitudes in terms of these constructs because of your participation in the program? Can you provide specific examples?
 - 2.2 In this study, we’ve identified different components of study abroad, including pre-program planning, in-classroom studies, leisure and tourism activities, social interactions, etc. Which component(s) or part(s) of study abroad do you think is so impactful that has led to the changes you mentioned earlier? Why?
3. Travel for study abroad vs. travel for tourism

Imagine that you went on the same trip—in terms of destination, length, tourist activities—but for the purpose of tourism instead of study abroad, would there be any difference as to the learning outcomes or the changes you experienced as a result of this travel experience? Why (or why not)?

4. Program improvement

How do you think the study abroad program you participated in can be improved, if in any way, to better facilitate the acquisition of affective learning outcomes as reflected in the five affective learning constructs?

3.3 Data Collection

A purposive sampling method was employed to select participants who were undergraduate students at LPMU and were going to or recently returned from a university-affiliated short-term study abroad program. The LPMU Study Abroad Office provided assistance in the recruitment of participants and distribution of the online survey questionnaires. All the data collection procedures have been approved by the university's Institutional Review Board (IRB).

3.3.1 Survey Data Collection

The pre-departure and post-program survey data collection was conducted at a series of time points from May 2019 to March 2020, targeting four separate terms of study abroad programs, as shown in Table 4. The self-administered online questionnaire (both the pre-departure and post-program versions) was powered by Qualtrics, and an anonymous link to the survey was included in the recruitment email sent to the potential participants. For the terms of Spring Break, Summer, and Winter Break 2019, a compensation method of voluntary gift card lucky draw was used, and a total of eight \$15 gift cards were given out.

Table 4. Survey data collection timeline.

Time of Data Collection	Term of Study Abroad	Type of Survey	Number of Survey Sent	Number of Responses	Complete Responses
May 16, 2019	Spring Break 2019	post-program	441	66	35
June 3, June 19, & July 1, 2019	Summer 2019	pre-departure	1696	114	22
September 24, 2019	Summer 2019	post-program	1696	163	126
November 19 & December 19, 2019	Winter Break 2019	pre-departure	56	29	28
January 17 & 23, 2020	Winter Break 2019	post-program	56	23	17
March 3, 2020	Spring Break 2020	pre-departure	453	101	89

A modification of the survey questionnaire was conducted after the Spring Break 2019 (post-program) and Summer 2019 (pre-departure) data collection. Only the affective learning outcome scale in the survey were modified. To shorten the questionnaire and help increase the response rate, 5 items were deleted from the *perspectives on global interdependence* scale, 4 items were deleted from *intercultural attitudes* while another two were added, 4 items were deleted from *openness to diversity/challenge*, and 3 items were deleted from *general self-efficacy*. An *environmental attitudes* scale with 8 items was added to the survey. The finalized pre-departure and post-program survey questionnaires are as described in the previous section (3.2.1 Survey Instrument) and shown in Appendix A and B.

Although it would have been optimal to administer the survey questionnaire with the same timing (e.g., two weeks prior to the program's departure, one week after program completion) to all the participants, it was unfortunately not feasible, given the considerable number of programs involved and the fact that even the programs in the same term did not have uniform starting or ending dates. Summer programs, especially, had a large variation in terms of program dates. This posed a potential problem as the pre-departure survey might be sent to a student whose program had already started. In fact, by the time the pre-departure survey was available for the first round of distribution on June 3, 2019, a sizable proportion of the students had started or returned from their programs in May. Therefore, in addition to a statement in the recruitment email emphasizing that the pre-departure survey "should be done before your study abroad program starts," a screening question was included at the beginning of the survey, asking in which month the student's program started. These techniques were applied to the second and third rounds of survey distribution as well (i.e., June 19 & July 1, 2019). Note that in Table 4,

only about 20% (22/114) of the Summer 2019 pre-departure responses were recorded as complete. This was because the students who answered “May” as the program starting month were stopped from continuing to respond to the survey.

Another point worth noting is that, because of the outbreak of a global pandemic (i.e., COVID-19) in the spring of 2020, international travel was brought to a halt and the LPMU Study Abroad Office canceled all the ongoing and scheduled study abroad programs, including programs for Spring Break 2020. As a result, the 82 students in the sample who completed the pre-departure survey for Spring Break 2020 did not actually go to their programs as planned. Meanwhile, their responses were retained in the dataset, as these students were not informed of the program cancellation as of the time of data collection (i.e., March 3, 2020), and they should still be considered representative of the target population in terms of perceptions or attitudes before departure for a short-term study abroad program.

3.3.2 Focus Groups

Following the post-program survey data collection for Summer 2019 and Winter Break 2019, the students who responded “Yes” to the survey question regarding their interest in the follow-up focus group participation were contacted by email. Based on the availability of the students who replied to the email, three groups were formed for the Summer 2019 cohort, each containing three participants; one group with four students was formed for the Winter Break cohort (Table 5). Each participant was compensated \$10 cash after the completion of the focus group.

Table 5. Focus group data collection timeline.

Term of Study Abroad	Number of Interested Students	Time of Data Collection	Number of Participants
Summer 2019	53	[Focus group 1] October 21, 2019	3
		[Focus group 2] October 21, 2019	3
		[Focus group 3] October 24, 2019	3
Winter Break 2019	7	[Focus group 4] February 14, 2020	4

The focus groups were conducted on campus at LPMU in a face-to-face manner. The author served as the moderator, leading the discussions with open-ended questions in the protocol and encouraging conversations among the participants. The focus groups lasted from 40

minutes to one hour. Each session was audiotaped with the participants' consent and later transcribed verbatim for data analysis. Written notes were also taken during each session to record the participants' significant non-verbal details as observed by the moderator.

3.4 Data Analysis

3.4.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative data collected through survey questionnaire was analyzed primarily with the statistics software SPSS 26.0. Descriptive statistics were examined to present the profile of the respondents and check the assumptions for using inferential statistics in the later stage.

To achieve the second research objective and examine if there were significant differences between the pre-departure affective learning baseline scores and the post-program outcome scores, one-way ANOVA tests were performed. It is important to note that the original intention for the pre-test post-test design of the survey questionnaire was to collect individually paired pre-post survey data from the study abroad participants. However, because of the low response rate and the cancellation of Spring Break 2020 programs, only 15 matching responses (i.e., the respondent answered both the pre-departure and post-program survey) were obtained, all of which were in the Winter Break 2019 cohort. Thus, further comparative analyses were performed on the pre-test and post-test group means.

To achieve the third and fourth research objectives and investigate the effect of the academic and trip characteristics of short-term study abroad on the participants' affective learning outcomes, as illustrated in the conceptual framework (Figure 7), structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted with the statistical program SPSS Amos 26 Graphics. Following the previous literature, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) of the measurement items of the latent variables was first carried out to explore the stability of the data (Li & Liang, 2020). Then, SEM was conducted in the two-step approach—a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to validate the measurement model and a subsequent assessment of the hypothesized relationships among the constructs in the structural model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Klem, 2000; Schumacker & Lomax, 2004).

CFA was applied to the latent variables (i.e., constructs) and their respective indicators in the affective learning outcome scale resulted from the previous EFA. The measurement's

reliability was checked by computing Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability (CR) for each construct. The items or indicators of a specific construct should share a high proportion of variance in common, which is referred to as convergent validity and was checked by examining CR and the average variance extracted (AVE) of a construct and the factor loadings of all the indicators measuring the construct (Hair et al., 2010). Factor loadings greater than 0.6, CR greater than 0.7, and AVE greater than 0.5 are considered criteria for good convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Gefen et al., 2000). Discriminant validity, indicating the extent to which a construct is distinct from other constructs, was assessed by comparing AVE of one construct with the squared correlations between that construct and all others. AVE of a construct greater than the squared correlations with the others indicates good discriminant validity (Hair et al., 2010).

The overall fit of the measurement and structural models was estimated using the maximum likelihood method. Both models' degree of fit with the current dataset was evaluated using multiple indices, including the chi-square value (and the normed chi-square, or chi-square/df), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), comparative fit index (CFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA). The model fit is considered acceptable when chi-square test is insignificant ($p > 0.05$), the normed chi-square value is less than 3, and the values of GFI, AGFI, CFI, NFI, and TLI are greater than 0.9 (Bentler, 1990; Hair et al., 2010). As to RMSEA, it has been suggested that values less than 0.08 are acceptable, and values between 0.08 and 0.1 are marginal (Fabrigar et al., 1999). In general, simpler models and smaller samples should be subject to more strict evaluation. For example, based on a sample of less than 250 observations and a model with 12 to 30 observed variables, the chi-square test can be significant even with good fit, and RMSEA less than 0.08 with CFI or TLI of 0.95 or higher indicate good model fit (Hair et al., 2010).

As supplementary analyses, a series of multiple regression were also performed on the post-program data to analyze the effect of the program characteristics (i.e., academic- and trip-) on the students' affective learning outcomes. The results were compared with those of SEM. The employment of various approaches from the same research tradition (e.g., quantitative methods) for data analysis regarding the same research question is considered within-method triangulation, which provides validation of the findings (Denzin, 1989).

3.4.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The qualitative data collected through post-program focus groups were subjected to thematic analysis for significant recurring themes related to the research objectives. Thematic analysis is a qualitative descriptive method for “identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 79; Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Themes can be identified in one of two primary ways in thematic analysis—an inductive or bottom-up way, or a theoretical (deductive) or top-down way (Braun & Clarke, 2006). For the purpose of the current study, which is to understand how and why the students perceived their affective learning outcomes influenced by the various components of short-term study abroad through their described experiences, an inductive, data-driven approach was employed (Patton, 1990).

Following the guidelines introduced in Braun and Clarke (2006), the thematic analysis was conducted in six phases, as shown in Table 6.

Table 6. Phases of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 87).

Phase	Description of the Process
1. Familiarizing yourself with your data:	Transcribing data (if necessary), reading and re-reading the data, noting down initial ideas.
2. Generating initial codes:	Coding interesting features of the data in a systematic fashion across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code.
3. Searching for themes:	Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme.
4. Reviewing themes:	Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts (Level 1) and the entire data set (Level 2), generating a thematic ‘map’ of the analysis.
5. Defining and naming themes:	Ongoing analysis to refine the specifics of each theme, and the overall story the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme.
6. Producing the report:	The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a scholarly report of the analysis.

First, the transcripts of the four focus groups were read and re-read in an active way to search for patterns and potential themes. To ensure accuracy, the researcher checked the transcripts back against the original audio recordings when necessary. Then, the data were organized into meaningful groups through the process of coding. After the data were collated together within each code, the researcher sorted the different codes into potential themes and collated all the relevant coded data within the identified themes. At this stage, the codes were combined to form themes or sub-themes, or temporarily labeled as “miscellaneous” if they didn’t fit into any main theme (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The identified themes were then reviewed to

ensure that the coded data within each theme were coherent, and the themes reflected the meanings evident in the dataset as a whole. After necessary re-coding of the data and refinement of the themes, the researcher named the final set of themes and selected exemplary data extracts under each theme for the analytic narrative presented in the Results section. The qualitative data analysis software *NVivo 12* was used to assist with the data coding procedure.

To ensure the rigor of the analysis, a coding scheme was developed by the researcher to present the generated codes and identified themes. An independent coder was asked to code a random sample of half of a focus group transcript (12.5% of the full sample) independently from the researcher after being instructed on how to use the coding scheme (Lombard et al., 2002). Intercoder reliability was tested by computing the percent agreement and kappa index. Percent agreement is a simple method calculating the percentage of all coding decisions made by pairs of coders on which the coders agree (Lombard et al., 2002). Given that the percent agreement does not account for the agreement that would occur by chance, Randolph (2005)'s free-marginal bi-rater kappa was also calculated, providing a chance-corrected index. The results of the percent agreement (94.6%) and the kappa value (94.4%) indicate good intercoder reliability (Gisev et al., 2013).

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS

This section presents the results of the descriptive analysis and the quantitative and qualitative analyses in regard to the corresponding research objectives. Specifically, one-way ANOVA tests were performed to determine if there were significant differences between the study abroad students' pre-departure affective learning baseline scores and the post-program affective learning outcome scores (Research Objective 2); SEM was conducted to examine the effect of the academic and trip characteristics of short-term study abroad on the participants' affective learning outcomes (Research Objectives 3 & 4); a series of multiple regression were carried out to supplement the analysis of SEM; thematic analysis of four post-program focus groups was conducted to illustrate and explain the findings generated by the quantitative analyses and provide rich details of the students' experiences and perceptions on the impact of study abroad on their affective learning.

4.1 Quantitative Results

First, a screening of the quantitative data (i.e., survey responses) was conducted. No missing data was found in the dataset as the respondents were required to answer all the questions in order to complete the survey. Valid responses were selected from the complete responses based on two criteria: 1) the respondents were undergraduate students; and 2) the respondents correctly answered the two attention-check questions embedded in the survey questionnaire. As a result, 14 responses by graduate students and 5 responses with incorrect answers to the attention-check questions were eliminated from further analysis. Table 7 shows the details of the valid survey responses.

Table 7. Valid survey responses.

Type of Survey	Term of Study Abroad	Complete Responses	Responded by Non-Undergrads	Failed Attention-Check	Valid Responses
Pre-Departure	Summer 2019	22	1	0	21
	Winter Break 2019	28	0	0	28
	Spring Break 2020	89	3	4	82
<i>Total</i>		<i>139</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>131</i>
Post-Program	Spring Break 2019	35	7	0	28
	Summer 2019	126	3	1	122
	Winter Break 2019	17	0	0	17
<i>Total</i>		<i>178</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>167</i>

4.1.1 Sample Profile & Comparability of Groups

The pre-departure and post-program survey respondent profile is presented in Table 8. Among the 131 pre-departure respondents, the gender split was 72.5% female versus 27.5% male. Over 90% of the respondents were between the ages of 18 and 21. In terms of ethnicity, 74% of the respondents were Caucasian, 13% were Asian, and the rest were African American or Hispanic/Latino, or belonged to other ethnic groups. Approximately 56% of the respondents were in their sophomore or junior year, while freshmen and senior students each composed a little over 20% of the sample. With respect to academic major, around 70% of the respondents were in Engineering, Agriculture and Natural Resources, Sciences, or Health and Medical Professions. Only 6.9% of the respondents identified themselves as international students in the U.S. Among the 167 post-program respondents, 78.4% were female and 21.6% were male. About 86% were between the ages of 18 and 21. As to ethnic background, Caucasian (68.9%) was still the dominant group, followed by Asian (12.6%). Sophomore and junior students composed more than 70% of the sample. In terms of academic major, about 60% of the respondents were in Engineering, Agriculture and Natural Resources, Health and Medical Professions, or Business. 8.4% of the respondents indicated that they were international students.

Table 8. Pre-departure and post-program survey respondent profile.

Demographic Variable	Pre-Departure		Post-Program		Total	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Gender						
Female	95	72.5	131	78.4	226	75.8
Male	36	27.5	36	21.6	72	24.2
Age						
18-21	120	91.6	144	86.2	264	88.6
22-26	11	8.4	23	13.8	34	11.4
Ethnicity						
Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	97	74.0	115	68.9	212	71.1
African American	7	5.3	5	3.0	12	4.0
Hispanic/Latino	5	3.8	10	6.0	15	5.0
Asian	17	13.0	21	12.6	38	12.8
American Indian, Alaskan, Hawaiian, or Pacific Islander	0	0	1	0.6	1	0.3
Other	5	3.8	15	9.0	20	6.7
Class-level						
Freshmen	29	22.1	12	7.2	41	13.8
Sophomore	37	28.2	57	34.1	94	31.5
Junior	37	28.2	63	37.7	100	33.6
Senior	28	21.4	35	21.0	63	21.1
Major						
Agriculture & Natural Resources	23	17.6	21	12.6	44	14.8
Art & Humanities	4	3.0	12	7.2	16	5.4
Business	12	9.2	20	12.0	32	10.7
Communications or Journalism	2	1.5	5	3.0	7	2.3
Education or Social Work	2	1.5	7	4.2	9	3.0
Engineering	29	22.1	37	22.2	66	22.1
Health & Medical Professions	18	13.7	21	12.6	39	13.1
Sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Computer Science, Mathematics, Physics, Statistics, etc.)	22	16.8	18	10.8	40	13.4
Social Science	3	2.3	9	5.4	12	4.0
Technology	7	5.3	14	8.4	21	7.0
Other Field	9	6.9	3	1.8	12	4.0
Int'l student?						
Yes	9	6.9	14	8.4	23	7.7
No	122	93.1	153	91.6	275	92.3

Because the dataset of pre-departure and post-program responses each contains three sub-groups (as shown in Table 7), it is necessary to ensure the appropriateness of combining the sub-groups for further analysis. Therefore, the demographic information of the respondents was compared between the sub-groups within each dataset. A series of chi-square tests of independence were conducted to determine whether there is an association between the study

abroad term and demographic variables. Cramer's V was also reported to demonstrate the effect size (Table 9 and Table 10).

The results of the chi-square tests indicated that no significant differences were found in terms of demographic information among the sub-groups within the pre-departure dataset. Thus, they can be combined into one pre-departure group. In the post-program dataset, one demographic variable showed statistically significant association with the study abroad term—*current class level* ($\chi^2 = 16.78$, $df = 6$, $N = 167$, $p = .01$). Meanwhile, the effect size was small as indicated by Cramer's $V = .22$ (Cramer's $V = .10$ indicates a small effect size, $.30$ as medium, and $.50$ as large; Cohen, 1988). Therefore, it is reasonable to consider it appropriate to combine the three sub-groups into one post-program group.

Table 9. Demographic comparison of sub-groups within the pre-departure dataset.

Demographic Variable	Summer 2019		Winter Break 2019		Spring Break 2020		Total		p	Cramer's V
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%		
Gender										
Female	14	66.7	19	67.9	62	75.6	95	72.5	.589	.090
Male	7	33.3	9	32.1	20	24.4	36	27.5		
Age										
18-21	19	90.5	26	92.9	75	91.5	120	91.6	.954	.027
22-26	2	9.5	2	7.1	7	8.5	11	8.4		
Ethnicity										
Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	17	81.0	17	60.7	63	76.8	97	74.0	.179	.162
Non-Caucasian	4	19.0	11	39.3	19	23.2	34	26.0		
Class-level										
Freshmen	3	14.3	8	28.6	18	22.0	29	22.1	.563	.136
Sophomore	8	38.1	6	21.4	23	28.0	37	28.2		
Junior	8	38.1	7	25.0	22	26.8	37	28.2		
Senior	2	9.5	7	25.0	19	23.2	28	21.4		
Major										
Art/Social/Humanities	3	14.3	6	21.4	14	17.1	23	17.6	.795	.059
Other	18	85.7	22	78.6	68	82.9	108	82.4		
Int'l student?										
Yes	2	9.5	3	10.7	4	4.9	9	6.9	.500	.103
No	19	90.5	25	89.3	78	95.1	122	93.1		

Table 10. Demographic comparison of sub-groups within the post-program dataset.

Demographic Variable	Spring Break 2019		Summer 2019		Winter Break 2019		Total		<i>p</i>	Cramer's <i>V</i>
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%		
Gender										
Female	22	78.6	96	78.7	13	76.5	131	78.4	.978	.016
Male	6	21.4	26	21.3	4	23.5	36	21.6		
Age										
18-21	25	89.3	103	84.4	16	94.1	144	86.2	.486	.093
22-26	3	10.7	19	15.6	1	5.9	23	13.8		
Ethnicity										
Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	21	75.0	83	68.0	11	64.7	115	68.9	.716	.063
Non-Caucasian	7	25.0	39	32.0	6	35.3	52	31.1		
Class-level										
Freshmen	2	7.1	5	4.1	5	29.4	12	7.2	.010*	.224
Sophomore	9	32.1	45	36.9	3	17.6	57	34.1		
Junior	9	32.1	49	40.2	5	29.4	63	37.7		
Senior	8	28.6	23	18.9	4	23.5	35	21.0		
Major										
Art/Social/Humanities	7	25.0	42	34.4	4	23.5	53	31.7	.467	.095
Other	21	75.0	80	65.6	13	76.5	114	68.3		
Int'l student?										
Yes	1	3.6	11	9.0	2	11.8	14	8.4	.560	.083
No	27	96.4	111	91.0	15	88.2	153	91.6		

Note: * $p < .05$

Furthermore, to ensure that the pre-departure and post-program groups are comparable, another set of chi-square tests of independence were conducted on the demographic variables and these two categories (Table 11). As a result, the variables of *current class level* ($\chi^2 = 14.71$, $df = 3$, $N = 298$, $p = .002$) and *major* ($\chi^2 = 7.77$, $df = 1$, $N = 298$, $p = .005$) showed statistically significant associations with the group category. It appears that the pre-departure group was more balanced in terms of class level, while the proportion of sophomore and junior students was higher in the post-program group. Additionally, the proportion of students in art, humanities, and social sciences majors (i.e., Art & Humanities, Business, Communications or Journalism, Education or Social Work, Social Science) was significantly higher in the post-program group than in the pre-departure one. Nonetheless, the effect size of these tests was again very small (a Cramer's *V* of .22 and .16, respectively), suggesting a weak association. Therefore, we consider it appropriate to perform further comparative analyses on the pre-departure and post-program groups.

Table 11. Demographic comparison of the pre-departure group and post-program group.

Demographic Variable	Pre-Departure		Post-Program		Total		<i>p</i>	Cramer's <i>V</i>
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%		
Gender								
Female	95	72.5	131	78.4	226	75.8	.236	.069
Male	36	27.5	36	21.6	72	24.2		
Age								
18-21	120	91.6	144	86.2	264	88.6	.147	.084
22-26	11	8.4	23	13.8	34	11.4		
Ethnicity								
Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	97	74.0	115	68.9	212	71.1	.327	.057
Non-Caucasian	34	26.0	52	31.1	86	28.9		
Class-level								
Freshmen	29	22.1	12	7.2	41	13.8	.002**	.222
Sophomore	37	28.2	57	34.1	94	31.5		
Junior	37	28.2	63	37.7	100	33.6		
Senior	28	21.4	35	21.0	63	21.1		
Major								
Art/Social/Humanities	23	17.6	53	31.7	76	25.5	.005**	.161
Other	108	82.4	114	68.3	222	74.5		
Int'l student?								
Yes	9	6.9	14	8.4	23	7.7	.627	.028
No	122	93.1	153	91.6	275	92.3		

Note: ** $p < .01$

4.1.2 Testing of Assumptions

Descriptive statistics in SPSS were used to check the assumptions for using inferential statistics in the later stage. After examining the histograms and Q-Q plots generated for all continuous endogenous variables in the hypothesized model (i.e., the affective learning outcome constructs and items), no extreme outliers were found. The skew index and kurtosis index were utilized to determine whether the data seriously deviated from normal distribution. Absolute values of skewness greater than 3.0 and of kurtosis greater than 10.0 suggest problems of nonnormal distribution (Kline, 2005). As a result, the skewness and kurtosis values for all the items in the affective learning outcome scale in the current study indicated no serious skewness ($|SI|$'s < 1.59 for pre-departure data; $|SI|$'s < 1.94 for post-program data) or kurtosis ($|KI|$'s < 5.43 for pre-departure data; $|KI|$'s < 6.71 for post-program data). For each dependent variable as a summated mean (i.e., the mean of all the scores of indicators measuring a latent construct), the

skewness and kurtosis did not exceed the conservative cut-off point of |2.0| (Hair et al., 2010), indicating no serious deviation from normal distribution.

To examine if there were significant differences between the pre-departure affective learning baseline scores and the post-program outcome scores, one-way ANOVA was performed on the corresponding group means. Accordingly, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested by conducting Levene's Test on the affective learning variables in the pre-departure and post-program groups. Except for the variable of *environmental attitudes* producing a significant Levene statistic ($p = .043$), all the other variables produced a p -value greater than 0.05, verifying the assumption of homogeneity of variance. Since small differences in group variances may produce a Levene's test that is significant when the sample size is fairly large (in this case, $N > 100$ for each group), Hartley's F-max (or the variance ratio) was also examined to double check this assumption for the variable of *environmental attitudes* (Field, 2009). The resulted variance ratio ($F_{\max} = V_{\text{post}}/V_{\text{pre}} = .775/.628 = 1.23$) was close to 1, indicating homogeneity of variance for this variable (Bhandary & Dai, 2008).

To analyze the effect of the program characteristics on the students' affective learning outcomes, SEM and multiple regression were performed on the post-program data. Accordingly, the assumption of absence of multicollinearity was tested using the variance inflation factor (VIF). A VIF above 10 indicates high correlation between the independent variables (i.e., presence of multicollinearity), while a more conservative rule of thumb suggests an acceptable value of 4.0 or below (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). The present data resulted in VIFs far smaller than 4.0 (VIFs < 1.88), indicating the absence of multicollinearity of variables.

4.1.3 Results of One-Way ANOVA

To test the effect of short-term study abroad participation on the students' affective learning outcomes, one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were significant differences in the scores of the five affective learning variables between the pre-departure and post-program survey administrations. Table 12 presents the descriptive statistics and the test results. The results revealed a statistically significant increase in the post-program scores in two of the affective learning variables—*perspectives on global interdependence* ($F_{(1, 296)} = 4.01, p = .046$; $M_{\text{post-program}} = 5.79$ vs. $M_{\text{pre-departure}} = 5.60$) and *intercultural attitudes* ($F_{(1, 247)} = 7.38, p = .007$; $M_{\text{post-program}} = 6.04$ vs. $M_{\text{pre-departure}} = 5.80$). No between-groups effect was statistically

significant in terms of the other three affective learning variables—*openness to diversity and challenge*, *environmental attitudes*, and *general self-efficacy*.

Table 12. Pre-departure vs. post-program affective learning scores.

Table 12-1 – Statistics Summary					
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error
Perspectives on global interdependence	Pre-departure	131	5.60	.819	.072
	Post-program	167	5.79	.818	.063
	Total	298	5.71	.823	.048
Intercultural attitudes	Pre-departure	110	5.80	.655	.062
	Post-program	139	6.04	.690	.058
	Total	249	5.94	.683	.043
Openness to diversity & challenge	Pre-departure	131	5.80	.835	.073
	Post-program	167	5.85	.859	.066
	Total	298	5.82	.848	.049
Environmental attitudes	Pre-departure	110	4.85	.792	.076
	Post-program	139	4.98	.880	.075
	Total	249	4.92	.843	.053
General self-efficacy	Pre-departure	131	5.80	.663	.058
	Post-program	167	5.77	.796	.062
	Total	298	5.78	.740	.043

Table 12-2 – One-Way ANOVA Results						
		Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p-value
Perspectives on global interdependence	Between Groups	2.683	1	2.683	4.006	.046*
	Within Groups	198.250	296	.670		
	Total	200.933	297			
Intercultural attitudes	Between Groups	3.357	1	3.357	7.381	.007**
	Within Groups	112.343	247	.455		
	Total	115.700	248			
Openness to diversity & challenge	Between Groups	.184	1	.184	.255	.614
	Within Groups	213.192	296	.720		
	Total	213.376	297			
Environmental attitudes	Between Groups	1.059	1	1.059	1.492	.223
	Within Groups	175.386	247	.710		
	Total	176.446	248			
General self-efficacy	Between Groups	.105	1	.105	.191	.662
	Within Groups	162.397	296	.549		
	Total	162.502	297			

Note: * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

4.1.4 Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis

Before conducting the SEM analysis, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on the measurement items of the affective learning scale in the post-program dataset to explore the stability of the data. Since certain affective learning measurement items were added to the survey questionnaire after the Spring Break 2019 data collection, these cases (N =

28) were removed from the post-program dataset to ensure the absence of missing data (i.e., rendering the post-program sample size $N = 139$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) statistics and Bartlett's test of sphericity were examined to verify the adequacy of the data for running an EFA. As a result, the KMO value was .813 and Bartlett's test was significant ($p = .000$), indicating the suitability of the data for factor analysis (Li & Liang, 2020).

As the primary objective of EFA here was to identify the underlying dimensions represented in the items of the affective learning scale, the factors were extracted by the method of principal axis factoring and rotated by Promax rotation (Hair et al., 2010). The number of factors was determined using the criterion of eigenvalue greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1974). During the iterative rounds of EFA, items were removed because of having insignificant item-to-factor loadings (i.e., lower than 0.5) or having significant cross-loadings (i.e., higher than 0.5) (Hair et al., 2010). Specifically, 2 items under *perspectives on global interdependence*, 4 items of *intercultural attitudes*, 1 item under *openness to diversity and challenge*, and 6 items of *environmental attitudes* were deleted. As detailed in Table 13, five factors were extracted, and the cumulative variance explained was 73.94%. The item-to-factor loadings in each of the dimensions/constructs were higher than 0.5, suggesting good convergent validity of the revised affective learning outcome scale (Li & Liang, 2020). The internal consistency reliability of each dimension was evaluated by the values of Cronbach's alpha, which ranged from .708 to .900, indicating good internal consistency of the constructs.

Table 13. Results of exploratory factor analysis.

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Variance (%)	Cronbach's alpha
General self-efficacy	I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself. (SE1)	.908	34.87	.900
	In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me. (SE3)	.783		
	When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them. (SE2)	.778		
	Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well. (SE5)	.766		
	I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks. (SE4)	.754		
Openness to diversity & challenge	The courses I enjoy the most are those that make me think about things from a different perspective. (OD3)	.822	13.59	.789
	I enjoy taking courses that challenge my beliefs and values. (OD2)	.778		
	I enjoy having discussions with people whose ideas and values are different from my own. (OD1)	.564		
Intercultural attitudes	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me. (IA5)	.822	10.73	.758
	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me. (IA6)	.724		
Environmental attitudes	When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences. (EA3)	.883	7.77	.708
	The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset. (EA7)	.614		
Perspectives on global interdependence	I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my country, but also as a citizen of the world. (GI3)	.897	6.99	.709
	I feel a strong sense of connection with the worldwide human family. (GI4)	.552		

4.1.5 Measurement Model and Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Following the two-step approach in conducting SEM, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was first performed to assess the hypothesized measurement model (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Based on the previous literature on affective learning outcomes from study abroad participation, a hierarchical CFA model was proposed. This special type of CFA model is used to represent hierarchical relations between constructs through the specification of higher-order factors with presumed direct causal effects on lower-order factors (Kline, 2005). In the current study, the hierarchical CFA model was specified with two layers of latent constructs—one second-order factor, *affective learning outcome*, and five first-order factors as detailed in the previous section. A primary validation criterion for a second-order structure is how well the

second-order factor explains theoretically related constructs (Hair et al., 2010). The theoretical foundation for testing a second-order factor structure in this study has been established in the results of the systematic review on affective learning outcomes from short-term study abroad (i.e., Chapter 2, section 2.4).

For a CFA model with second-order factor to be identified, there must be at least three first-order factors and at least two indicators under each first-order factor (Kline, 2005). The present model satisfies both of these requirements (Figure 8).

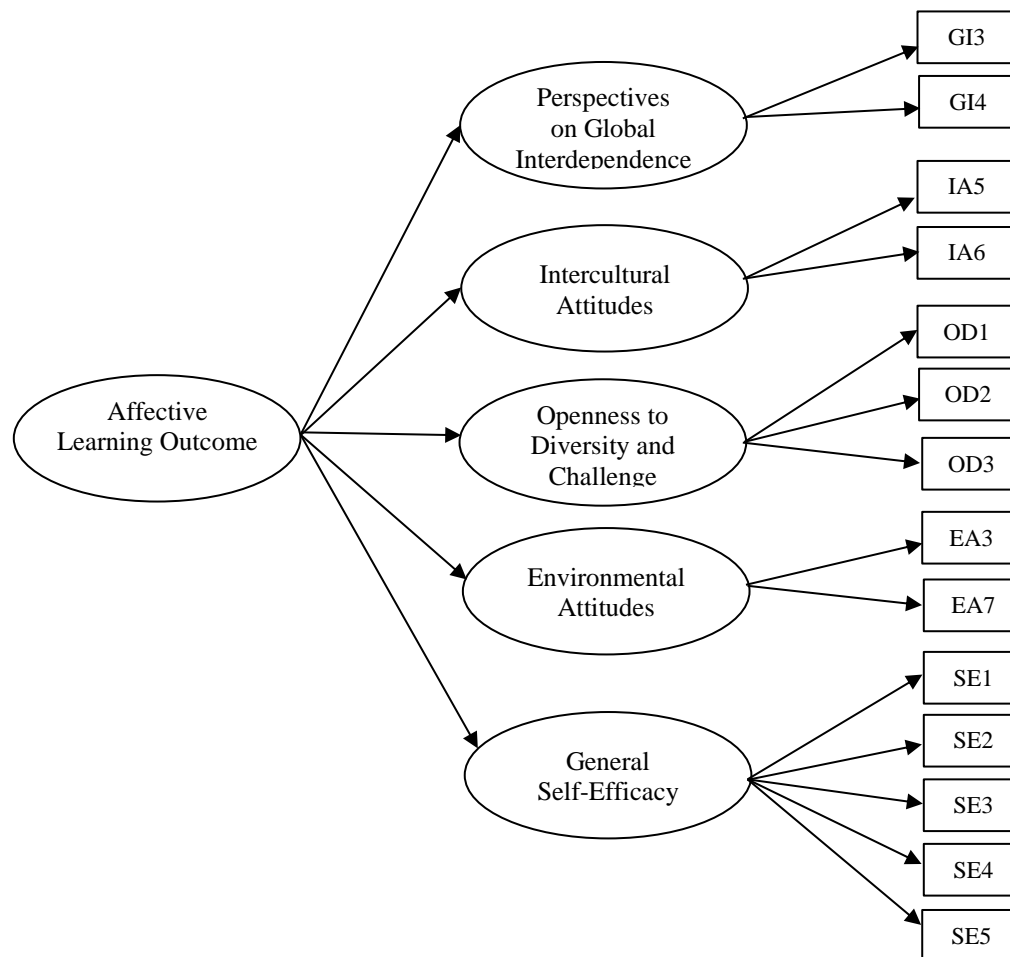


Figure 8. The hierarchical CFA model of affective learning outcome.

Because all items of the first-order constructs used the same type of rating scale, it was necessary to rule out the interpretation that the second-order factor might be common measurement bias (Hair et al., 2010). Harman's single factor test was performed on the

measurement items of the affective learning outcome scale as shown in Figure 8 (Li & Liang, 2020). The results of the one-factor EFA indicated that the variance explained by the first factor was 38.07%, which was less than 50%. In addition, a single-factor CFA was conducted using the same set of items, and the resulted model fit indices showed a poor fit between the one-factor model and the present sample ($\chi^2/df = 5.434$, GFI = .698, AGFI = .548, TLI = .634, CFI = .712, RMSEA = .179). Both tests indicated that the common measurement bias was not a factor influencing all first-order constructs (Hair et al., 2010; Li & Liang, 2020). The hierarchical CFA model was then tested with the post-program sample (N=139), using SPSS Amos 26 Graphics with maximum likelihood estimation.

Results of Hierarchical CFA

All the standardized first-order factor loadings were statistically significant at $p < .01$, ranged from .643 to .872. The composite reliability (CR) scores of the first-order constructs ranged from .711 to .900. The CR scores coupled with the values of Cronbach's alpha computed earlier (ranged from .708 to .900) indicated adequate reliability of each of the constructs. The values of average variance extracted (AVE) for each construct ranged from .552 to .645, which exceeded 0.5 and suggested good convergent validity together with factor loadings greater than 0.6 and CR larger than 0.7. Discriminant validity of the first-order constructs was confirmed by comparing the AVE values and squared correlations between the constructs. All the AVE values were larger than the squared correlations between paired constructs, suggesting sufficient discriminant validity for the first-order constructs.

The standardized second-order factor loadings were between .317 to .828 and were statistically significant at $p < .01$. The factor of *environmental attitudes* obtained the lowest second-order factor loading. Additionally, the standardized error variance in this factor was the largest (.485), indicating that this factor was not well represented by the second-order factor (Cheung, 2000). The CR value was .783 and Cronbach's alpha was .847 for the second-order factor, suggesting adequate construct reliability and internal consistency. However, the AVE value was only .436. Coupled with the lower factor loading, satisfactory convergent validity for the second-order factor was not achieved. Table 14 presents the detailed results of the hierarchical CFA.

Table 14. Results of hierarchical confirmatory factor analysis.

Second-Order Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Standard Error Variance	AVE	CR
Affective learning outcome	Perspectives on global interdependence	.716	.126	.436	.783
	Intercultural attitudes	.828	.142		
	Openness to diversity & challenge	.695	.071		
	Environmental attitudes	.317	.485		
	General self-efficacy	.631	.062		
First-Order Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Standard Error Variance	AVE	CR
Perspectives on global interdependence	GI3	.713	.151	.552	.711
	GI4	.772	.150		
Intercultural attitudes	IA5	.863	.127	.623	.766
	IA6	.708	.099		
Openness to diversity & challenge	OD1	.809	.059	.566	.795
	OD2	.769	.120		
	OD3	.672	.097		
Environmental attitudes	EA3	.852	.475	.570	.722
	EA7	.643	.303		
General self-efficacy	SE1	.872	.031	.645	.900
	SE2	.779	.060		
	SE3	.772	.034		
	SE4	.841	.042		
	SE5	.743	.059		

In terms of model fit, the values of the indices suggested marginally acceptable model fit: GFI = .873, AGFI = .810, NFI = .847, TLI = .883, CFI = .910, RMSEA = .091 (Bentler, 1990; Fabrigar et al., 1999; Hair et al., 2010). The normed chi-square value also indicated acceptable model fit: $\chi^2/df = 2.14$ ($\chi^2 = 150.03$, $df = 70$, $p < .001$) (Bentler, 1990).

Modification of Measurement Model (Hierarchical CFA Model)

Because of the poor factor loading and high error variance of the first-order construct *environmental attitudes*, a modification of the hierarchical CFA model was conducted by removing this construct and its corresponding indicators from the first-order factors. In addition, the modification indices provided by SPSS Amos were examined and correlations were added to

pairs of error items within the same latent construct to improve the model fit (Gerbing & Anderson, 1984). The modified measurement model is shown in Figure 9.

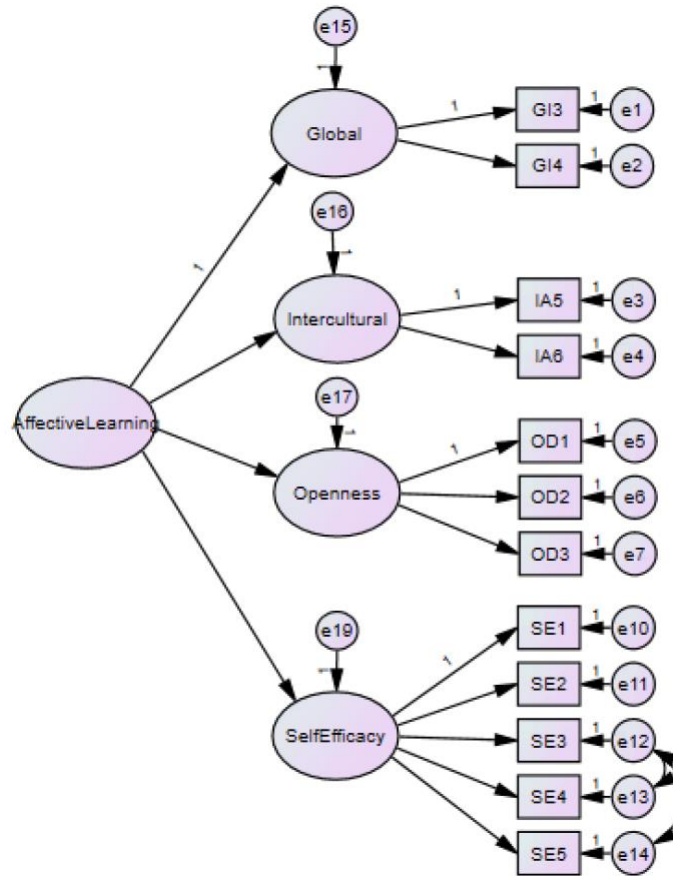


Figure 9. The modified hierarchical CFA model as specified in SPSS Amos.

After the modification, the standardized first-order and second-order factor loadings were all larger than 0.6 and significant at $p < .001$. The standardized error variances were also within an acceptable range. The value of AVE for the second-order construct exceeded the cut-off point of 0.5, showing significant improvement in convergent validity compared to that of the previous model. Cronbach's alpha (.865) and CR for the second-order factor also slightly increased, suggesting improved construct reliability and internal consistency. The reliability and validity of the retained first-order constructs were not much affected in the modified model (Tables 15 & 16). The chi-square test of the modified measurement model was significant at $p < .01$, and the normed chi-square value indicated acceptable model fit ($\chi^2 = 80.608$, $df = 48$, $p = .002$; $\chi^2/df = 1.68$). The values of other model fit indices also satisfied the respective levels of acceptance

suggested by previous research: GFI = .913, AGFI = .859, NFI = .907, TLI = .944, CFI = .959, RMSEA = .070. The modified measurement model showed a good fit with the present data.

Table 15. Results of hierarchical CFA of the modified model.

Second-Order Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Standard Error Variance	AVE	CR
Affective learning outcome	Perspectives on global interdependence	.692	.127	.536	.821
	Intercultural attitudes	.846	.131		
	Openness to diversity & challenge	.712	.071		
	General self-efficacy	.666	.056		
First-Order Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Standard Error Variance	AVE	CR
Perspectives on global interdependence	GI3	.707	.153	.553	.711
	GI4	.778	.155		
Intercultural attitudes	IA5	.845	.119	.618	.763
	IA6	.723	.097		
Openness to diversity & challenge	OD1	.824	.058	.563	.793
	OD2	.758	.120		
	OD3	.660	.098		
General self-efficacy	SE1	.846	.030	.658	.905
	SE2	.793	.049		
	SE3	.789	.036		
	SE4	.903	.035		
	SE5	.711	.063		

Table 16. Comparison of AVE and squared correlations of paired first-order constructs.

First-Order Construct	Perspectives on global interdependence	Intercultural attitudes	Openness to diversity & challenge	General self-efficacy
Perspectives on global interdependence	.553			
Intercultural attitudes	.154	.618		
Openness to diversity & challenge	.194	.171	.563	
General self-efficacy	.091	.278	.105	.658

Note: AVE is on the diagonal. Squared correlations of paired constructs are on the off-diagonal.

In addition, to evaluate the ability of the second-order structure in explaining the covariation among the first-order factors, the target coefficient—the ratio of the chi-square of the first-order model to the chi-square of the hierarchical model was computed (Cheung, 2000; Marsh, 1987). The maximum value of the target coefficient is 1, indicating that all the covariances among the first-order factors are explained by the second-order factor structure (Cheung, 2000). As a result, the target coefficient was .920 (χ^2 first-factor/ χ^2 hierarchical = 74.145/80.608), suggesting that the covariation among the first-order factors was very well explained by the second-order structure.

4.1.6 MIMIC (Multiple Indicators Multiple Causes) Structural Equation Modeling

Initially proposed by Joreskog and Goldberger (1975), multiple indicators multiple causes (MIMIC) modeling is a special case of structural equation modeling (SEM), presenting a more systematic statistical approach to investigate the complex associations between covariates and latent variables (Proitsi et al., 2011). The MIMIC model integrates “causes” of latent factors and specifies that, the observed variables as manifestations of the latent factors (i.e., indicators) and the latent factors themselves are caused by some other exogenous observed variables (i.e., causes) (Krishnakumar & Nagar, 2008). Thus, in MIMIC models, one or more latent variables intervene between two sets of observed variables—one set of covariates and a second set of indicator variables (Ríos-Bedoya et al., 2009). In the current study, we aim to examine the effect of short-term study abroad components—the formal education component (i.e., academic characteristics) and the travel component (i.e., trip characteristics)—on the participants’ affective learning outcomes. Therefore, a MIMIC model consisting of a measurement model (the latent constructs and their indicators) and a regression model (analogous to simultaneous multiple regressions of the latent variables onto multiple covariates or causes) (Ríos-Bedoya et al., 2009) was deemed appropriate for determining the degree of association between study abroad characteristics and students’ affective learning outcomes.

Following the hierarchical CFA which verified the measurement model, the study abroad academic and trip characteristics as predictor variables were added to form the MIMIC model (Figure 10). Specifically, academic characteristics were represented by seven variables—main subject area of courses taken during study abroad (*Subject*), host country language (non-English) learning (*Language*), academic context of in-classroom study (*Context*), frequency of

participation in experiential learning activities (*Experiential-Learn*), frequency of participation in intercultural learning activities (*Intercultural-Learn*), frequency of academic and/or professional interactions (*Academic-Interact*), and frequency of intentional reflection through writing or journaling (*Reflection*). Trip characteristics included a total of 16 variables—host destination (*Destination*), program duration (*Duration*), type of accommodation (*Accommodation*), type of travel logistics management (*Logistics*), type of for-leisure travel and tourism activities participated during study abroad (*Tour1 = organized group excursions, Tour2 = package tour, Tour3 = independent travel with others, Tour4 = solo travel, Tour5 = visit family/friends; Activity1 = sightseeing, Activity2 = cultural tourism, Activity3 = relaxation/entertainment, Activity4 = nature-based tourism, Activity5 = outdoor activities, Activity6 = shopping*), and frequency of casual interaction with locals (*Casual-Interact*).

Based on the initial MIMIC model as shown in Figure 10, a series of MIMIC models were tested in search of better model fit and statistically significant associations between the covariates and the latent variable. The figures of the MIMIC models can be found in Appendix C. Table 17 displays the results of the fit indices during the model testing procedures. Model 1 yielded a relatively poor fit to the present data. Upon examining the modification indices provided by SPSS Amos, correlations between pairs of covariates were added to the model to account for the covariances. The resulted Model 2 showed a much improved model fit. Since the model was a relatively complex one containing more than 30 observed variables, the fit indices demonstrated goodness-of-fit (i.e., significant chi-square test at $p < .05$, CFI or TLI above .92, and RMSEA below .08) (Hair et al., 2010). Model 3 and Model 4 each contained a subset of the covariates (i.e., seven variables of academic characteristics and 16 variables of trip characteristics, respectively), both resulting in an insignificant p -value ($p > .05$) and other fit indices that suggested acceptable model fit.

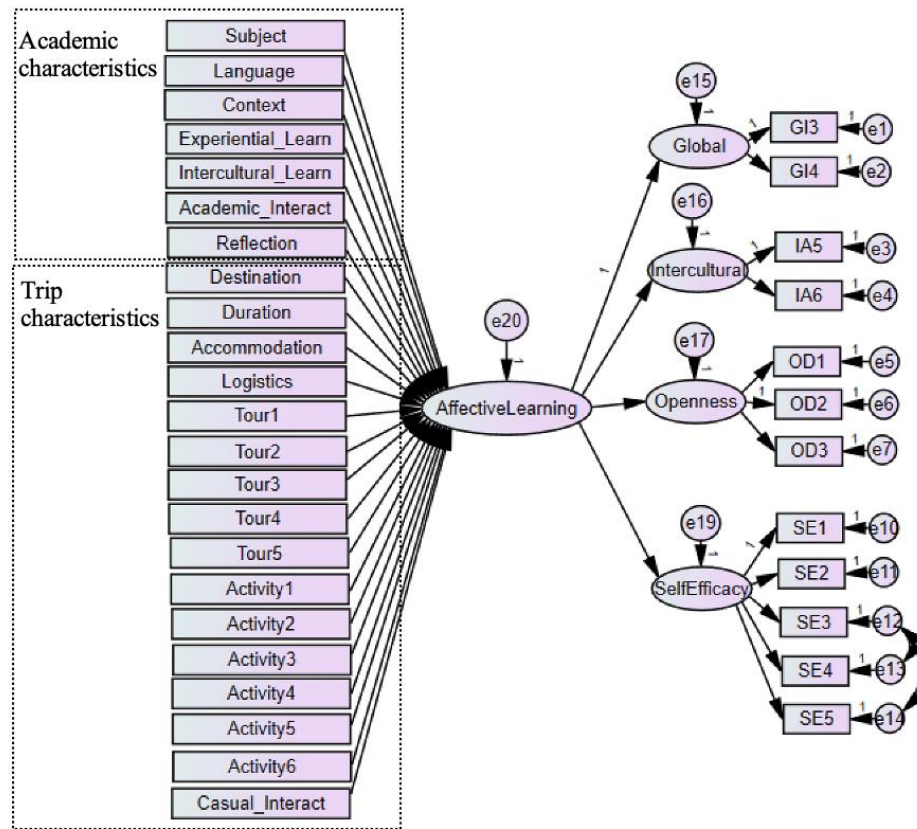


Figure 10. The initial MIMIC model as specified in SPSS Amos (Model 1).

Table 17. Fit indices of MIMIC Models 1, 2, 3, & 4.

	χ^2/df	<i>p</i>	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 1 (initial model in Figure 10)	1.786	.000	.701	.660	.455	.617	.644	.075
Model 2 (modified Model 1 w/correlations between covariates)	1.108	.047	.829	.786	.693	.948	.956	.028
Model 3 (modified Model 2 w/Academic characteristics only)	1.183	.072	.897	.855	.850	.965	.973	.036
Model 4 (modified Model 2 w/Trip characteristics only)	1.110	.087	.859	.819	.751	.960	.966	.028

Overall, the addition of the covariates did not affect the first-order and second-order factor loadings in the measurement model. To identify the effects of the covariates on the affective learning outcome, the corresponding regression coefficients in the MIMIC models were

examined. Table 18 presents the regression results that were statistically significant in each of the better-fitting MIMIC models (i.e., Models 2, 3, and 4).

Table 18. Statistically significant regression results in Models 2, 3, & 4.

	Latent Factor	Covariate	Standard Regression Coefficient (β)	Standard Error (S.E.)	<i>p</i>
Model 2	Affective learning outcome	<i>Logistics</i>	.251	.068	.015*
		<i>Organized group tour</i>	.217	.195	.034*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.231	.303	.028*
Model 3	Affective learning outcome	<i>Academic-Interact</i>	.238	.064	.029*
Model 4	Affective learning outcome	<i>Logistics</i>	.223	.066	.026*
		<i>Organized group tour</i>	.228	.190	.023*
		<i>Casual-Interact</i>	.236	.077	.016*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.258	.308	.016*

Note: * $p < .05$

As shown in Table 18, when all the covariates were included in the MIMIC model (i.e., Model 2), three variables—which were all trip characteristics—showed statistically significant associations with the students’ affective learning outcome. The positive association between *Logistics* and affective learning outcome suggested that students who managed the relevant travel logistics (e.g., booking flight tickets, preparing travel documents, etc.) more independently (i.e., by oneself or with peers) were likely to obtain higher scores in affective learning outcome compared to the students who reported logistics management by program leaders or parents. The results also indicated a positive relationship between participation in organized group excursions during study abroad and affective learning outcome. Furthermore, participation in for-leisure sightseeing activities was revealed to be negatively influencing the students’ affective learning outcome.

In Model 3, which contained only the academic characteristics as covariates, a statistically significant, positive association between affective learning outcome and the frequency of students’ interaction with host country/university students, faculty, staff, or professionals emerged. In Model 4 where only the trip characteristics were included, in addition to the three significant associations revealed in the results of Model 2, *Casual-Interact*—the frequency of students’ casual interaction with local people while traveling—also showed a positive impact on their affective learning outcome. All the other covariates were not found to

have significant effects on the latent factor of affective learning outcome at $p < .05$ in the MIMIC models tested.

In terms of the squared multiple correlation coefficients (R^2) that describe the amount of variance of the latent factor explained by the MIMIC models, 33.3%, 17.8%, and 30.3% of the variability of *affective learning outcome* was explained by Model 2, Model 3, and Model 4 respectively.

MIMIC Models with First-Order Latent Factors

Because the MIMIC models with the hierarchical measurement structure were not able to provide details regarding the effects of the covariates on each of the specific affective learning outcome variables, another set of MIMIC models with only the first-order factor structure as the measurement model were tested. Appendix C includes the figures of all the MIMIC models tested. Following the same procedures, a CFA was first conducted to verify the measurement model (Figure 11). The model demonstrated an acceptable fit to the present data: $\chi^2/df = 74.145/46 = 1.612$ ($p = .005$), GFI = .918, AGFI = .861, NFI = .914, TLI = .949, CFI = .965, RMSEA = .067. All the factor loadings were larger than 0.6 and significant at $p < .001$. The detailed results of the CFA model and the indicators of sufficient convergent validity and discriminant validity are shown in Tables 19 and 20.

Table 19. Results of the CFA model with only first-order factor structure.

Factor	Item	Factor Loading	Standard Error Variance	AVE	CR
Perspectives on global interdependence	GI3	.718	.147	.551	.710
	GI4	.766	.144		
Intercultural attitudes	IA5	.849	.117	.620	.764
	IA6	.720	.096		
Openness to diversity & challenge	OD1	.827	.057	.562	.793
	OD2	.756	.119		
	OD3	.657	.098		
General self-efficacy	SE1	.845	.030	.658	.905
	SE2	.794	.049		
	SE3	.791	.035		
	SE4	.902	.035		
	SE5	.712	.063		

Table 20. Comparison of AVE and squared correlations of paired latent constructs.

Latent Construct	Perspectives on global interdependence	Intercultural attitudes	Openness to diversity & challenge	General self-efficacy
Perspectives on global interdependence	.551			
Intercultural attitudes	.303	.620		
Openness to diversity & challenge	.387	.321	.562	
General self-efficacy	.158	.384	.188	.658

Note: AVE is on the diagonal. Squared correlations of paired constructs are on the off-diagonal

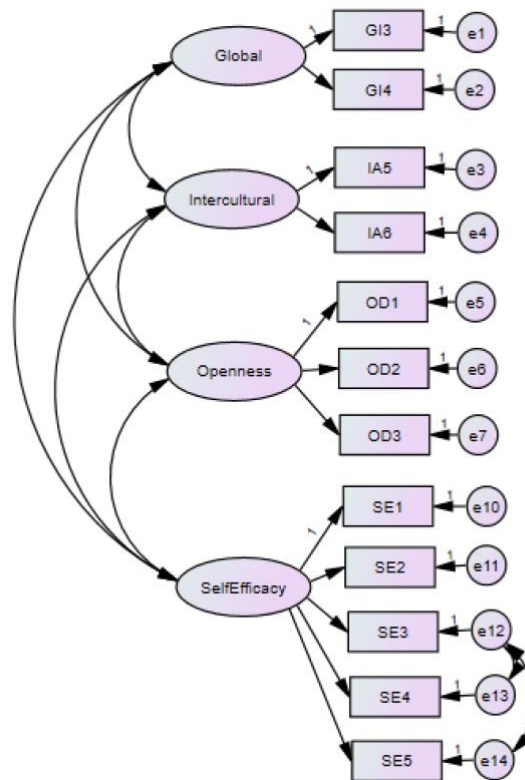


Figure 11. The measurement model with only first-order factor structure as specified in SPSS Amos.

After the measurement model with the four affective learning outcome variables as the factor structure was verified, a second set of MIMIC models (Models 5, 6, & 7) with the same regression model (i.e., including the correlations between pairs of covariates) as in Models 2, 3, and 4, respectively, were tested in SPSS Amos. Table 21 presents the model fit indices. All the three new MIMIC models produced insignificant chi-square values ($p > .05$), and other model fit indices also indicated good fit of the models to the data. The corresponding regression coefficients in the MIMIC models were then examined for the effects of the covariates on the specific affective learning outcome variables. The regression results that were statistically significant in Models 5, 6, and 7 are shown in Table 22.

Table 21. Fit indices of MIMIC Models 5, 6, & 7.

	χ^2/df	p	GFI	AGFI	NFI	TLI	CFI	RMSEA
Model 5 (modified Model 2 w/first-order latent factors only)	1.062	.180	.852	.785	.747	.970	.978	.021
Model 6 (modified Model 3 w/first-order latent factors only)	1.107	.207	.917	.858	.884	.980	.987	.028
Model 7 (modified Model 4 w/first-order latent factors only)	1.087	.157	.879	.815	.795	.968	.977	.025

Table 22. Statistically significant regression results in Models 5, 6, & 7.

	Latent Factor	Covariate	Standard Regression Coefficient (β)	Standard Error (S.E.)	p
Model 5	Perspectives on global interdependence	<i>Experiential-Learn</i>	.264	.099	.002**
		<i>Logistics</i>	.241	.084	.008**
		<i>Organized group tour</i>	.255	.245	.005**
		<i>Package tour</i>	.160	.163	.044*
		<i>Solo travel</i>	.173	.164	.049*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.227	.375	.014*
		<i>Nature-based tourism</i>	-.260	.161	.004**
	Intercultural attitudes	<i>Duration</i>	.214	.148	.028*
		<i>Logistics</i>	.221	.099	.023*
		<i>Casual-Interact</i>	.206	.124	.039*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.209	.445	.037*
	Openness to diversity & challenge	<i>Academic-Interact</i>	.260	.074	.011*
		<i>Organized group tour</i>	.226	.229	.023*
	General self-efficacy	<i>Shopping</i>	.202	.160	.019*
		<i>Experiential-Learn</i>	.183	.076	.028*
		<i>Academic-Context</i>	-.173	.110	.030*

Table 22. continued

Model 6	Perspectives on global interdependence	<i>Experiential-Learn</i>	.292	.123	.006**
	Intercultural attitudes	<i>Language</i>	.247	.160	.023*
	Openness to diversity & challenge	<i>Academic-Interact</i>	.269	.092	.009**
	General self-efficacy	<i>Academic-Interact</i>	.224	.062	.015*
		<i>Experiential-Learn</i>	.174	.083	.050*
		<i>Academic-Context</i>	-.201	.118	.016*
Model 7	Perspectives on global interdependence	<i>Logistics</i>	.198	.087	.030*
		<i>Organized group tour</i>	.297	.255	.001**
		<i>Package tour</i>	.185	.175	.026*
		<i>Solo travel</i>	.204	.178	.026*
		<i>Casual-Interact</i>	.200	.100	.023*
		<i>Nature-based tourism</i>	-.200	.167	.028*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.263	.405	.007**
	Intercultural attitudes	<i>Duration</i>	.214	.142	.024*
		<i>Logistics</i>	.228	.098	.018*
		<i>Casual-Interact</i>	.234	.113	.011*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.212	.451	.037*
	Openness to diversity & challenge	<i>Organized group tour</i>	.240	.225	.015*
		<i>Sightseeing</i>	-.207	.360	.047*
	General self-efficacy	<i>Shopping</i>	.207	.168	.021*

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Overall, in Model 5 where all the academic and trip characteristics were included as covariates, 49.7%, 26.5%, 23.4%, and 18.2% of the variance of *perspectives on global interdependence* (*Global*), *intercultural attitudes* (*Intercultural*), *general self-efficacy* (*Self-Efficacy*), and *openness to diversity & challenge* (*Openness*) was respectively explained. Specifically, *Global* was found to be positively impacted by participation in experiential learning activities, independence in travel logistics management, and participation in organized group excursions, package tour, and solo travel. Meanwhile, *Global* was negatively impacted by participation in sightseeing and nature-based tourist activities during study abroad. *Intercultural* was positively influenced by the duration of the study abroad program (i.e., longer vs. shorter), independence in logistics management, and frequency of casual interaction with local people; while participation in sightseeing had a negative effect on *Intercultural* as well. In terms of *Openness*, the frequency of academic/professional interaction and participation in group

excursions were found to have positive associations with this learning outcome. Finally, *Self-Efficacy* was positively impacted by participation in experiential learning activities and shopping, while negatively affected by academic context—which refers to the level of immersion of in-classroom studies during study abroad (i.e., with vs. without other international or host students).

Model 6 included only the academic characteristics as covariates, and this model explained, respectively, 15.7%, 14.1%, 11.8%, and 11.2% of the variability of *Global*, *Self-Efficacy*, *Intercultural*, and *Openness*. In addition to the associations between certain academic characteristics and affective learning outcomes reported by Model 5, another two statistically significant associations emerged—participation in host country (non-English) language learning positively impacted on the learning outcome of *Intercultural*, and the frequency of academic/professional interaction had a positive influence on *Self-Efficacy*.

In Model 7 with only the trip characteristics as covariates, the amount of variance of the affective learning outcomes explained was 42.3% of *Global*, 25.1% of *Intercultural*, 16.1% of *Self-Efficacy*, and 12.9% of *Openness*. Most of the emerged significant associations in this model have been accounted for in the results of Model 5 except for two—*Global* was also positively impacted by the frequency of casual interaction with local people, while *Openness* was found to be negatively influenced by participation in sightseeing activities.

4.1.7 Supplementary Analyses—Multiple Regression

A series of multiple regression analyses were conducted to investigate how much the academic and trip characteristics of short-term study abroad programs contribute to the participating students' affective learning outcomes. Each multiple regression model assessed the effect of all the 23 predictor variables representing academic and trip characteristics on one of the five affective learning outcome variables, including *environmental attitudes (Environmental)* which was removed from the analyses of MIMIC models. Each affective learning outcome variable (i.e., dependent variable) was a summated mean—the mean of all the scores of indicators measuring that latent construct (as shown in Table 13). Absence of multicollinearity among the independent variables was demonstrated by all the tolerance values greater than 0.4 and VIF values smaller than 4.0 (Hair et al., 2010; Nichols, 2011). The results of the regression models and the statistically significant independent variables are presented in Table 23.

Table 23. Results of multiple regressions and statistically significant independent variables.

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	Standard Coefficient (β)	p	Model R^2
Perspectives on global interdependence	<i>Experiential-Learn</i>	.334	.007**	.321**
	<i>Logistics</i>	.248	.015*	
	<i>Organized group tour</i>	.760	.016*	
	<i>Nature-based tourism</i>	-.473	.020*	
Intercultural attitudes	<i>Logistics</i>	.207	.044*	.225
Openness to diversity & challenge	<i>Academic-Interact</i>	.198	.037*	.147
General self-efficacy	<i>Experiential-Learn</i>	.202	.032*	.217
	<i>Shopping</i>	.433	.024*	
Environmental attitudes	<i>Shopping</i>	.551	.045*	.274*
	<i>Logistics</i>	.263	.018*	
	<i>Intercultural-Learn</i>	-.329	.045*	
	<i>Duration</i>	-.460	.008**	

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Overall, the results indicated that a statistically significant portion of the total variation in the dependent variable *Global* ($R^2 = .321$, $p = .001$) and that of *Environmental* ($R^2 = .274$, $p = .015$) was explained by the independent variables in their respective regression model. Compared to the results of the MIMIC models in the previous section, the employment of multiple regression did not provide additional benefits in terms of determining which academic/trip characteristics contributed to the four affective learning outcomes included in both analyses. As to the outcome variable of *Environmental*, the regression analysis disclosed that it was positively impacted by the students' independence in travel logistics management and participation in shopping activities, while negatively affected by participation in intercultural learning activities and duration of the study abroad program.

4.1.8 Effect Size and Post Hoc Power Analysis

Social science researchers have promoted the use of effect size to complement statistical significance testing results, as effect size provides information regarding the magnitude of a difference or relationship, allowing for the comparison of current results to previous ones and the judgement of practical significance of research findings (Kotrlík et al., 2011; Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2004). Following the guidance in previous literature, effect sizes (i.e., Cohen's d) of the two statistically significant one-way ANOVA (in this case, equivalent to independent samples t -test) results were calculated, as shown in Table 24. The results indicate a small-to-medium effect

size of the between-groups effect for both variables—*Global* and *Intercultural* (based on the rules that Cohen’s *d* of 0.2 represents a small effect size, 0.5 as medium, and 0.8 as large; Cohen, 1988).

Table 24. Statistically significant between-groups effect and effect size.

	Pre-Departure			Post-Program			t	df	p	Cohen’s <i>d</i>
	N	M	SD	N	M	SD				
Perspectives on global interdependence	131	5.60	.819	167	5.79	.818	-2.00	296	.046	.23
Intercultural attitudes	110	5.80	.655	139	6.04	.690	-2.72	247	.007	.35

In regard to nonsignificant testing results, researchers such as Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2004) have advocated for the use of a post hoc power analysis “to rule in or to rule out inadequate power (e.g., power < .80) as a threat to the internal validity of the finding” (p. 219). However, opponents argue that such a power value is of little meaning, as the statistically nonsignificant result already guarantees a low observed power for detecting a population effect equal to the observed sample effect (O’Keefe, 2007). Nonetheless, post hoc power analysis can be potentially useful when it is based on a population effect of independent interest (e.g., one that is based on prior research results or identifiable as a practically important effect) instead of the observed effect size found in the current sample (O’Keefe, 2007). For example, in his research investigating intercultural development (as measured by IDI) of students in a study abroad group and those in an on-campus control group, Terzuolo (2016) conducted a post hoc power analysis to demonstrate that, given the obtained sample size, the power to detect the statistical significance of a medium-sized effect (Cohen’s *d* = .50) employing two-way ANOVA and a moderate Pearson coefficient (*r* = .30) using correlation analysis was higher than the accepted standard of 0.8. Thus, the study was adequately powered to find a practically important population effect.

Based on the previous literature, I conducted a set of post hoc power analyses to examine the power for detecting statistical significance of lower to medium effect sizes through one-way ANOVA tests (equivalent to independent samples t-test, two-tailed, .05 alpha). The power analysis program of G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al., 2009) was used. The results, as displayed in Table 25, indicate that the current study has adequate power for detecting small-to-medium or medium

population effects, even when the sample sizes were smaller (because of lacking the information on certain affective learning variables, the survey responses collected before the questionnaire modification were removed in certain tests). The fact that no statistically significant between-groups effect was found regarding the three affective learning variables can be meaningful in that it demonstrates the probability that the population effect was indeed trivial.

Table 25. Post hoc power analysis for one-way ANOVA.

N (pre-departure)	N (post-program)	Cohen's <i>d</i>	Power
131	167	.20	.400
131	167	.35	.848
131	167	.50	.990
110	139	.20	.345
110	139	.35	.780
110	139	.50	.974

In a similar vein, a set of post hoc power analyses to examine the power for detecting statistical significance of medium to large effect sizes in multiple regression were also conducted. The ratio of explained variance and error variance (i.e., Cohen's f^2) serves as the effect size measure; f^2 values of .02, .15, and .35 (corresponding to R^2 values of .02, .13, and .26, respectively) represent small, medium, and large effects, respectively (Cohen, 1988; Faul et al., 2009). With the total sample size of $N = 139$, number of predictors = 23 (i.e., all the academic and trip characteristics variables), .05 alpha, and an effect size of interest as input parameters in G*Power 3.1, the power analyses produced the results as shown in Table 26.

Table 26. Post hoc power analysis for multiple regression.

N (total)	Number of Predictors	Cohen's f^2	Power
139	23	.15	.687
139	23	.25	.931
139	23	.35	.990

The results indicate that the current study is a little underpowered (power < .80) for detecting a medium-sized population effect in terms of the proportion of the dependent variable's variance explained by the independent variables in the model. Thus, as shown in the regression results presented in the previous section, the nonsignificant explained variance ($R^2 = .147$) of the dependent variable *Openness* could be due to a lack of statistical power. Meanwhile, this study

has adequate power for detecting medium-to-large or large population effects, as demonstrated by the statistically significant R^2 values for the dependent variables *Global* ($R^2 = .321, p = .001$) and *Environmental* ($R^2 = .274, p = .015$). However, the model with the dependent variable *Intercultural* and the one with *Self-Efficacy* reported nonsignificant R^2 values (.225 and .217, respectively), but post hoc power analysis based on such observed effect sizes revealed sufficient power (.894 and .880, respectively). Therefore, it is probable that the current set of independent variables (i.e., the academic and trip characteristics) might not be the best combination of variables for explaining the variances of those two affective learning variables.

4.2 Qualitative Results

The profile of the focus group participants is shown in Table 27. Based on the thematic analysis of the transcripts, four themes emerged from the qualitative data, namely, (1) study abroad experience—the travel component; (2) study abroad experience—the formal education component; (3) affective learning outcomes gained from program participation; and (4) student feedback on program design and implementation. The detailed results are presented below along with selected quotes from the focus group participants. For the purpose of this study, all participants were given pseudonyms.

Table 27. Profile of focus group participants.

	Count		Count		Count
Gender		Class-level		SA Destination	
Female	9	Freshmen	2	Brazil	2
Male	4	Sophomore	6	Canada	1
Age		Junior	3	China	1
18-21	10	Senior	2	Ecuador	2
22-26	3	Int'l student?		France	1
Ethnicity		Yes	4	Ireland	1
Caucasian/Non-Hispanic	5	No	9	Jamaica	1
Non-Caucasian	8	SA Duration		Spain	2
Major		1 week	2	UK	2
Art/Social/Humanities	6	2 weeks	6		
Other	7	3-4 weeks	5		

4.2.1 Study Abroad Experience—The Travel Component

Travel is an inseparable part of study abroad programs. Tourist activities and other travel-related experiences (e.g., pre-trip planning, casual interactions with locals) can influence or directly result in many of the learning benefits of study abroad (Stone & Petrick, 2013). The focus group participants spoke of their weekend trips to the neighboring countries or solo exploration of the city as one of their most memorable experiences of study abroad. In addition to the fun and escapism they enjoyed during the trip, many participants reported gaining personal growth or deeper insights from the travel experiences. For example:

I wandered around and I looked at some of the stores that they had their souvenirs and something like that... I felt actually pretty comfortable going by myself, cause for the most part, if I needed any help, I could ask, which was something that was beneficial towards myself... I knew that I could find my way of getting back and figuring out where I was; so I was fine, didn't really have any fear going out by myself and exploring. (Hailey)

... one day we went rafting down, like when you start from the mouth of the river and you raft all the way back to the ocean, and there was a point where we had to get out of the raft and push it, because it [the water] was just so shallow, and the guides were like, "I've been sending people rafting trips for thirty years and it has never been this low..." I mean that was more of a leisure thing, but it kind of showed the drastic effects [of the drought in the region] towards agriculture and other aspects. (Charlotte)

As most short-term study abroad programs incorporate both organized group tours and allocated free time for independent travel, the participants compared these two types of experiences and reported their respective advantages. In regard to group tours, the students mentioned such benefits as getting inclusive packages and customized arrangements, more intentional learning opportunities, good use of limited time, and ensured safety. As the following observations demonstrate:

We had two group excursions... The nice thing about them was like, they were planned, we had to show up, and we had a lot of cool things packed into it... And also, being kind of forced, like you said, to take the time to understand the culture. Because if you go with your three best friends out to some random castle, you would be like, oh my God, it's a castle! You might not really do the full tour and

learn that actual cultural significance; whereas if you go with a group that's from a university, you are gonna maybe pop a little bit more consciousness as of what the value of this is, and probably would talk more as a group about what this has meaning for. (Ariana)

I like traveling by myself, but maybe not in Brazil, because it's kind of dangerous. You follow the group that's led by [the program], so you get a good chance to see something different rather than by yourself... We went to a local TV station, we saw how they arranged everything, to tape the TV, make the TV show... I feel like if I maybe travel by myself or sign up for other travel groups, I may not be able to go inside to see it. (Allison)

I think the group activities [are the most important to me], cause you get the overall experience of the different culture of Ecuador... In the free time, you just do whatever you are able to do with that time, but then with the planned [trips]... you get the whole experience rather than just walking around and wandering. So you are being valuable with the time you have rather than just going around. (Michael)

Meanwhile, the participants recognized the benefits associated with independent travel during study abroad, especially in terms of the freedom to explore a new environment and enhanced self-efficacy through planning trips by oneself and learning from mistakes along the way:

I remember biking through the city... We rented bikes, so we ended up returning the bikes at the wrong spot, and so then we ran the rest of the route to the company... It was fun experience. We got to see—I think it was a lake, maybe? ...and the view was beautiful. (Lucy)

... when I went to London, it was very stressful, because we had to coordinate flights and taxis and hotels. It was all of a sudden all on us to figure out what to go do, which I think partially it was a good thing for us to try and figure out how to plan a quick trip and make it happen, even though you make bad decisions on which airport to fly into... We flew in a time when none of the public transportation was happening... Check the airport before you book the ticket! (laughing) But lessons learned. ...there's good things about making mistakes on your own. (Ariana)

In the discussions of impactful study abroad experiences, one recurring subject was immersion in the daily life, or “living like a local,” as the participants put it. Study abroad provides an extended period of time in the host destination for students to sample the local

lifestyle as well as perceive and engage with different cultures and people first-hand. Many participants reported that they enjoyed observing the normal day-to-day operations of a once unfamiliar society and felt proud and inspired as they found themselves immersed in the local life and blended in with local people. For example:

There was this market called “Tesco”... just walking there every day with one or two people, when I didn’t feel like I was standing out, it just made me feel like a local, being able to go into the shop. So that was really, really memorable. (Ivy)

So what we do was, us three would get on the metro every morning to get to class, so that became kind of a normal thing, too. At first, it was kind of scary trying to find your way around, but then you know all the stops you can take and all the shortcuts, too. (Daniel)

I went there, I walked there... And buy groceries, and then cook... So the idea of living there for one month, you already feel you are like a local at one point. And use the transport to go here and there, just like, it’s fun. (Evelyn)

I’d never traveled and stuck around at one spot for multiple weeks at a time, and so getting to be somewhere for four weeks and feeling like I kind of fit in at the end of it, was my favorite part of my experience. Because if I don’t study abroad, I can’t see myself working somewhere, living in a foreign country for a number of weeks randomly, and so it was a really cool experience just to feel like a local student, carrying your backpack to class, having your favorite grocery store... That was my favorite part of the trip. (Ariana)

Some participants described being struck by the perceived differences in lifestyle, customs and everyday consumption between the host country/culture and the one they were used to, and they realized that even with the progress of globalization, the world has more diversity than they have thought:

... I think it’s more like noticing the big social change. Cause here, it’s like you walk on campus, and everybody has their earbuds in; you walk in a city, everybody’s just doing their own thing, not interacting. There... Everything is social, everything is built on that. ...having these connections with people is definitely a bigger part of their college that I wish we could take on. (James)

I grew up in a really small town... everyone around me was like me. So it was really different to go to a place that was just so diverse, and to immerse myself in a new culture that I wasn’t used to. And it did scare me at the beginning. Especially like, just going to the markets and doing stuff that they would do on a

daily basis, like getting groceries. I mean, their marketplace is like an alley... they are yelling at you, and try to shovel stuff in your face... It was overwhelming at first for sure, but just learning about that side of the culture and how that's different was really important for me. (Charlotte)

I felt we think that places elsewhere are so similar sometimes, like, when you go to the grocery stores and not recognize the brands. I think that was one of the weirdest things, like, not knowing where everything was in the grocery store, looking for anything recognizable, cause I would trust that brand to buy. ...I thought that so many things transcended internationally more than they did... (Ariana)

Others talked about feeling self-conscious as they behaved differently than the locals and drew attention:

I guess, walking around with a large group of people was... a vastly different experience from walking around either by myself or with just one or two other people. Cause as Americans, we are kind of loud, and in France, Paris, everyone's [more quiet]... they tried to keep them to themselves, especially in a big city. So I learned that pretty quickly. I didn't think that was gonna be a problem, but walking around with ten other people or so... everyone's gonna turn their eyes to you. ...I didn't enjoy that so much. (Daniel)

Overall, the travel component of study abroad represents a variety of rewarding experiences as recalled by the focus group participants, including both taking part in tourism activities and trying to differentiate oneself from a mere tourist and immerse in the daily life of the host destination. These two dimensions of travel do not necessarily contradict each other; however, the achievable degree of immersion in local life during study abroad depends very much on the students' individual characteristics as well as program features such as duration, location, and housing arrangement. Nonetheless, reflecting on their time abroad, most participants expressed a strong desire to travel more in the future and seek more cultural immersion:

... it definitely made me want to experience more and learn more about the world, and definitely to pursue more experiences similar to that. (Sophia)

I didn't get the experience of being able to, like, cook my own food and stuff. ... I feel like I would benefit from just having a full day in the life of a Jamaican.
(Charlotte)

There are so many cultural assumptions that we all take for granted... People do so many different things in so many different ways, just because they've grown up with it different. So I kind of want to see a little bit of all those different things if I can, and if possible, spend more time in China. And specifically, see the different ways that things are done. (Henry)

4.2.2 Study Abroad Experience—The Formal Education Component

The component of formal education distinguishes study abroad from generic international travel experiences. Although the focus on academics is sometimes less explicit in short-term study abroad programs (e.g., no in-classroom studies in some program design), formal learning still occurs through interactions with professors, students, and/or industry professionals in the host country, experiential learning activities, and intentional reflections and discussions among the faculty leaders and students. The focus group participants shared their experiences that illustrated these important academic elements within study abroad. For example, some talked about memorable academic interactions that happened during the program:

Every team worked with two graduate students from the university on our project... They taught us a lot about the culture and also about the things that we were working on... like, how do we build something to help this community, and so through that we were able to learn a lot about the university from them; we got to learn a lot about the culture from them, also about the actual subject matter.
(Ivy)

The international business class was focusing on the economy in Spain, so I learned about their culture and like, their economic situations... It was taught by a Spanish professor, so that was really cool to learn from a Spanish person.
(Sophia)

[In the] two other cities we visited, we were paired with university students from the universities we were staying at, and we did everything there with them. Honestly, that was a lot more fun, cause we got to meet a bunch of students over there and interacted with them for a couple of days when we were at that location. ...I ended up getting to know a bunch of partners. Yeah, I'm still in touch with them a little bit. (Henry)

Some acknowledged the value of experiential learning activities incorporated in their programs:

During the class, we had study visit three times... So this one trip, we went to Chelsea, the stadium, and we had this trip, learning how Chelsea—this football club, how do they manage their revenue, how do they do the sales and get the money... so it was really real experience talking with the people. And then we went there visiting all the places, all the parts of the stadium, and learning how much they pay for each player, how much they invest... It was interesting. It's kind of hands-on, not just touring. (Evelyn)

It's very good to read an article that's about, for example, the history of Toronto City, and in the afternoon, we went to the historical museum to actually combine what you have learned and to actually see the things that's part of their history, so I can memorize it better. (Lucy)

... going to different high schools that we went to, not taking the classes, but just viewing their facilities and seeing what all that they do, I feel like it helps me. Cause I can take the course, the same course I took here at [LPMU], so it wasn't necessarily the course-specific [content]; it was more so the experience related to my major. (Charlotte)

Others reported that the reflections and/or group discussions they had during study abroad played a positive role in facilitating more effective learning and cultural adaptation:

Since we had the purpose of taking the class, we would actually go and talk to the people in our group, who would be like, "hey, this is the thing that we talked about... [that] we looked at in our readings in the morning, and here is my point of view..." But if we were only traveling there, we would probably be more of the observing part... And we also need to write reflections for what we have seen, and our professor would give us feedback. She would write emails to us individually to talk about... like, "I like this idea of yours, and I think you can improve on this..." But if we were only traveling, we wouldn't get all that. (Lucy)

Every morning...we meet up at our hotel and have our reflection time, where we talk about what we've noticed, what we've learned, what we've gone through... which wasn't great [for] seven in the morning when you don't need to be in the lab until nine. But it was still very helpful exercise, talking and thinking through like, what's different culturally, what have we noticed that are different, what have we noticed similar; talking about challenges we are having with our projects, challenges we are having with the cultural differences... I think that was really helpful. (Ivy)

As short-term programs vary a lot in course design, some participants got to be exposed to different academic styles or practices of the local students and institutions, while others were placed in a more familiar academic context coordinated by the program leader and with other study abroad students only. Regardless of the program design, many participants indicated that their study abroad experience was more academically intense than they had expected. Consequently, learning to manage time and balance the coursework and leisure activities became the most challenging yet constructive, as shown in the following remarks:

We have group projects, too, so just trying to coordinate when we are going to work on them... We obviously had distractions—we had a pool, and we were like five minutes' walk from the ocean; so when we go out, we'd be like, OK, we are gonna go to the ocean, but we are gonna spend two hours doing homework at the ocean, and then we can swim. So you have to budget time, I guess. (Charlotte)

... you want to explore but you can't put off studying for stuff until the night before the final. So I guess for me, it was a core ME class, and I'm like, oh, I'm gonna go explore! And I put that off. I mean I ended up doing fine [on the exam]... but not a great strategy all and all... Like, yeah you are going to have fun, explore, but I mean, you are still taking a class with the school. (James)

Altogether, the formal education component ensures short-term study abroad as a unique learning experience rather than merely a self-indulgent vacation. Although concentrating on academics in an exciting, new place can be a difficult task for undergraduates, most of the focus group participants perceived the related experiences as beneficial and worthwhile. Two participants further revealed the impact of such experiences on their future academic plans and careers:

So being able to go around their Agriculture classrooms and see what they have... made me think a little bit more about my future classroom [as an Ag educator], what I want there, how I want it to look like. So being able to see, like, they had a huge hydroponic system, and that's the part that I'm interested in. (Charlotte)

From that experience, I now know that I wouldn't be able to do a whole semester program, but I'll consider studying abroad in Europe for my Master's degree to just get a different experience, since... I'm doing my undergrad in the U.S.; just [to get] a more global experience. (Sophia)

4.2.3 Affective Learning Outcomes Gained from Program Participation

Learning outcomes that fall within the affective domain are constantly cited as the educational benefits of short-term study abroad programs. For the purpose of this study, Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s affective taxonomy—including five hierarchically arranged overarching outcomes (i.e., *receiving*, *responding*, *valuing*, *organization*, and *characterization*)—was adopted as a guiding theoretical framework and the foundation of the proposed five constructs of affective learning outcomes for quantitative measurement (i.e., *Global*, *Intercultural*, *Openness*, *Environmental*, and *Self-Efficacy*). During the focus group discussions, the participants were presented the five sets of affective learning outcome scales (i.e., identical to what they have responded to in the survey questionnaire), and were asked probing questions regarding how and why their study abroad experience impacted on such outcomes.

Increased Awareness and Understanding of Global Interdependence

The recognition of global interdependence can result from traveling internationally and experiencing foreign affairs first-hand. In the focus group sessions, a few participants spoke of increased awareness and deeper understanding of global interdependence as a significant outcome of their study abroad experience. They described how interacting with another culture and the local people made them realize the interconnected nature of the world and that they should pay more attention to the happenings of other countries instead of being ignorant and self-involved. The following discussion on Brexit in one focus group demonstrates these findings:

Ariana: One of the business classes we had that was taught by the local professors was about Brexit, and how Brexit affects the U.K. and Ireland, and we even went to how it would affect the U.S. I had heard about Brexit, but I had never realized how much of an impact it has outside the U.K. until taking that class and hearing [from] the people who live there and their fears about it... It might be kind of an American ideal, or just in general that people forget other people are out there and that their problems do affect us and our problems do affect them. So I felt like I understood more the impacts of... how their actions could impact us here; so to care more, I guess, about what's happening elsewhere in the world.

Ivy: Yeah, I definitely experienced that as well, cause Brexit was also a big deal in... Newcastle is [in] Northern Ireland, almost Scotland basically, so a lot of those people did not vote for Brexit, so there's a lot of that discussion going on...

how does that impact our farm, how does that impact imports... Cause they are much more interdependent with other countries there; whereas the America, I feel like we have this isolationist [mindset]... There was also a weird historical violence that happened between Ireland and Northern Ireland. For example, in London, there's no trash cans anywhere, because during that issue, Ireland would bomb London, and so there's no trash cans in London. ... It made me think a lot more about, oh, there's a lot of historical stuff that I don't know but that has a really large impact on the way that people live.

Ariana: We learned so much U.S. history in school, and we talk about global history, but it's very much like how the pieces of global history that directly impact us here... but we don't learn a lot about the current problems or issues in other parts of the world. So going to another country, you actually get a sense of what's happening there.

Enhanced Intercultural Attitudes

Consistent with findings in the previous literature, enhanced intercultural attitudes cover a great deal of affective learning outcomes gained by short-term study abroad students. Specifically, the focus group participants indicated that they noticed different norms and perspectives in another culture and began to consciously identify the differences and similarities between countries and cultures, further developing cultural self-awareness, empathy, and curiosity. Such learning can come from major activities scheduled in their programs as well as seemingly trivial encounters or interactions with the host culture. For example:

Definitely, learning the diversity of different agricultural practices in the world is important. As a future teacher, someday to be able to tell my students that it's not just how it is at home, which is really important. ...I didn't think about certain things, like we have greenhouses while they have "shade houses," because it's so sunny there that they had to shade the sun to actually grow stuff. So that was really memorable for me, just to open my eyes [to see] that there's more out there than just small town Indiana. (Charlotte)

We went to an NGO place where we were meeting with some children there... and we brought them backpacks and stuff for them, and then we also ate lunch with them. But I think after that, they were a little upset with our group, because a lot of people were wasting the food, so I think that's also a huge cultural difference, like, everyone there finishes everything on their plate, versus here... I feel like people here are so privileged, we don't even realize that we were being super wasteful. (Gabriella)

I was somewhat surprised by a lot of the similarities that I found, but then sometimes, there are just other things come up, and I would be like, oh, I never thought about it that way, or things are just different... So in that sense, maybe I'm more aware that there's a difference, and more able to look for it next time. ...I guess I just took the school calendar for granted. Other countries have classes [at] different times of a year than we do in the United States, which is something very dumb, very trivial, but the first time I heard about that, like, you have class from the middle of...what we call February to late June, that's... (laughing) Like, I never thought about that, about having school at a different time of a year. And it makes sense, cause it's just based on whatever...cultural events of the year. Like, school starts after the Chinese New Year, our school—the United States, is after our New Year, after Christmas. It makes sense! It's just different. Like, hold on, why are things different? Oh! Of course they'd be different. Why would they be the same! What I want to do is to explore the different things. (Henry)

In addition, many participants described their experiences of intercultural communication during study abroad, which facilitated their confidence in interacting with culturally different others and speaking a second language, and promoted the formation of interpersonal connections between the students and the locals. As the following remarks indicate:

Don't be afraid to talk to people, cause the natives, they know everything, and most of the time they are really friendly. If not, you'll be able to tell (laughing). ... Then there were some of us, like I know Spanish, a couple of other people did, which was very nice that we had a couple of Spanish speakers going with us from my class. I mean, either way, it worked. We've been able to communicate with them, get what we needed. ...if you have any questions, they are all super nice, they'd love to talk. (James)

I would go to the bars occasionally with them, and that was a unique experience, too, in terms of, whether it's trying to blend in, or just trying to go to a new place and see what it's like. ... And we would always come in at a certain time, and at the end of the month, you know, we were just about to leave, this bartender knew us all by names, he'd always come and greet us, "oh, Daniel! Amy! ..." It was the funniest thing. He would speak English and French to us. It was a funny experience getting to know that bartender and all became friends with them. But at the same time, there's some time I would think that it would've been nicer to not have him speak as much English as he did to us, and try to speak a little more French, too. (Daniel)

Some of the students there, they would follow us on Instagram and we would connect that way... The person that hosted us actually followed me on Facebook a couple of months ago, and she was like, "I want to stay in touch! Please come back some time. I loved to host you!" That was really cool that we got to build

that connection with her, and if I would like for everyone to go back some day, and have someone I can call and I trust, and [who] knows the local stuff.
(Charlotte)

Strengthened Openness and Emotional Resilience

As a more specific attitudinal response to issues/situations characterized by unfamiliarity and ambiguity, openness (or open-mindedness) specifies students' capability of being flexible in new or challenging environments and reserving judgements toward different perspectives, values, and practices. The focus group participants reported gaining such learning outcomes from immersing in the local daily life, traveling to different places and experiencing diverse cultures within the host country or across multiple countries, and interacting with local people as well as their study abroad peers. For instance:

... just adaptation, where different places have different ways, and you just be fluent, and live with it. (Evelyn)

Being open to different cultures is definitely something that I came out of that experience. I guess I was always open to the fact of learning other things, but just didn't have the experience to actually immerse myself in that situation, so... I guess just not being afraid and realizing that there's other norms out there besides mine. (Charlotte)

The thing I learned is that, be more open and be more brave. Because people say, like, Brazil is very dangerous, like real dangerous. So I went running by myself... at the end I found that people there are not that, you know, dangerous... like they would try to rob you or something. They are just normal people. (Allison)

One thing I learned from the study abroad is being open to different cultures. Cause I remember like, all the times we ate, it took a while for the food to get out, but that's normal there; but for us here in America, we want it fast-paced, we want the food right away. Just getting adjusted to that, and it was pretty eye-opening seeing the different cultures. ... I like working with the group, too, cause you get different perspectives rather than just being by yourself and just being narrow-minded. (Michael)

In my case, the majority of my group were American students, and on campus I don't have a lot of American friends; I usually stick to Latino people. So it was fun to get to learn more about them and actually open myself to them. So I guess, that's, in a way, what changed about me. (Sophia)

The disorienting experiences in study abroad may also stimulate emotional resilience in the students, as they make efforts to overcome stress and acquire more readiness to explore outside their comfort zones and engage in further cross-cultural interactions. As these participants explained:

Going to the U.K. was just really interesting, cause it was stressful despite... there was culture shock despite the familiarity with the language and all that. ... Cause you don't realize how often in your daily life, you just start kind of an autopilot, and all these little things just disturbed that autopilot thing later on. ... It was stressful at first, but I was able to work through that no matter what. So it's like, even if there's a language barrier, or if there isn't, I can work through those problems and learn about these people... by the end, I knew the words, how to do things, and I didn't walk up the wrong side of the escalator at the end (laughing). ...I kind of understood the culture, and I was able to figure it out. It was really enjoyable experience despite some of the initial weirdness of it. (Ivy)

I mean, it sounds cheesy (laughing), but the world is out there, and even if it's your first time, yeah, it's intimidating at first... But then you are missing out on so much if you just stay where you are comfortable. You have to get out of your comfort zone to be able to grow, learn... All those cheesy quotes they put on the posters. (James)

Another point worth noting is the positive role that ingroup, peer interactions played in facilitating students' openness and emotional resilience. Different from long-term study abroad where students are most likely to be independent participants, short-term programs allow a group of diverse individuals to share the experience abroad and develop personal relationships along the way. The focus group participants talked about establishing connections with their study abroad peers—whom they “would never have met otherwise”—and staying in touch as close friends after returning to campus. Especially, the peer interactions and positive group dynamic during the program provided the students emotional support and helped them relieve anxiety, leading to the acquisition of more complicated affective outcomes in the learning process:

It was nice of the way that our apartments were set up in Dublin. We all had our own bedroom and bathroom, but we had a shared kitchen and living space. It was a really good thing, because if you were like, I can't be alone right now, then you go hang out in the living room and chat with people. ...you feel less isolated. It's like, I'm really struggling with having to cook here, and she's like, “oh me, too!” All of a sudden, you feel less alone in it. (Ariana)

I think the best memories I came out with were with the group, and just thinking back on it, it was just some of the witty remarks, or even just some of the remarks that weren't necessarily thought through, that were said in certain situations... Overall, it was just the group and the people. That's what made it worth it.
(Hailey)

Heightened Awareness of Pro-Environmental Practices

Environmental issues are of global significance, and therefore a prominent subject in the context of study abroad. Through daily life interactions as well as experiential learning and travel activities, the students were exposed to sustainability and conservation values and practices in countries where such issues are attached more importance to. Nonetheless, the focus group discussions on this topic failed to dig deep into how these experiences may impact on the students' environmental values and senses of environmental responsibility. Most of the participants merely described their perceived pro-environmental practices in the host country and how they tried to conform to those norms while abroad, and only one participant indicated that she kept the habit of walking formed during study abroad after coming back on campus, as demonstrated in the following conversation:

Ivy: Also, about the environmental attitudes, I feel like in the U.K., they are a lot more environmentally friendly, like, there's a lot more public transit, there's a lot more recycling...

Daniel: It's funny. I grew up in Seattle, and there's a lot of recycling there, and that's something that I notice even as a culture shock coming here [to LPMU]. Once I moved out of the dorms, I realized, oh, there aren't recycling bins around every corner. But the thing I noticed in Paris... they have probably, I think it was six different kinds of trash. You know, recycling, compost, all that. But it was funny to see... In the head, all the different colors mixed up; so recycling was actually yellow... It's hard to do the proper stuff, but I tried. ...I haven't visited all the European countries, but I would say that there's more of an emphasis over there on doing that.

Ariana: Definitely more environmentally friendly. ...all of the things in our apartment were like, if the stove's on for 15 minutes, it would shut off, and you'd have to restart it to keep it going. The lights in our bathroom, they shut off after 15 minutes, and you could not take a long shower, cause the lights would turn off on you! (all laughing) That might have been because of the student housing that we were in, but I thought that was very interesting.

Ivy: Also, just everyone walks everywhere. Everywhere! Even if it's like a long way...

Ariana: That definitely has changed me. Cause when we were in Dublin, if something was a 30 minutes' walk, we were like, oh, that's not bad! Whereas when you are at [LPMU], something's like a ten minutes' walk—oh I'd better drive... So that was really different. I feel like, coming back here, my perspective on how far a walk is has really changed. Looking at a grocery market—that's only like a 30 minutes' walk! That's what I used to do to get groceries in Dublin, it's nothing.

Elevated General Self-Efficacy

The focus group participants overwhelmingly reported that the study abroad experience has elevated their general self-efficacy in terms of a stronger belief in one's abilities to complete a task successfully and to live and work effectively in another country. As these participants stated:

For me, it just makes me want to go out there more and more. ...I like to indulge in the culture and feel how to live [like a local]... It just makes me want to...go anywhere; you can live anywhere on your own. (Evelyn)

I definitely agree with the point that, you can kind of live anywhere, which helped me a lot going into my senior year. I'm like, OK, I'm looking for a job, and I'll be fine no matter where I end up, basically, which was super helpful. I can be dropped down anywhere, and I can live there and work there and figure it out. (Ivy)

If a company wants to send me abroad after college, I would be like, yeah, sure! Go on some trips, that'll be fun! (James)

Before I had gone on this trip, I was thinking about trying to study abroad. But after this trip, I definitely, definitely want to study abroad. And then, I'm much more open to the idea of working in China, whereas before I've never thought about that. (Henry)

Such learning outcomes usually come from the entirety of study abroad experiences, but especially from situations where the students can only rely on themselves or the peer group to solve problems and achieve goals. For example:

So being able to actually go and figure out how do I do this, or ways that I can ask people about it, being able to do the different tasks, that was fun for me. Just talking with the locals or even working on translating sometimes, cause there were moments where some of the people were like, “yeah we don’t speak English,” and we weren’t with [the program leaders], so... you had to rely on the knowledge of people who didn’t know Spanish... It was just fun overall, knowing what you are able to accomplish even in certain situations, even if you are under pressure, things like that. (Hailey)

I just finished my freshmen year when I went [to study abroad], so I’ve been living in the dorms up until that point. And in Dublin, we were living in an apartment, and we had to cook for ourselves—a new level of responsibility that I hadn’t had before in a foreign country. So being able to tackle, like, grocery shopping, when you don’t recognize any of the brands, or things like that, gives me a lot of confidence going into this year when I’m living in an apartment now. So it was like, if I can handle cooking in Ireland when I don’t know how to use the weird stove they gave us, can’t find boxed mac-and-cheese in the grocery stores... I can figure out how to do it here. I think it gave a lot of confidence going into future challenges, cause I was able to survive something that was harder. (Ariana)

4.2.4 Student Feedback on Program Design & Implementation

Following the discussions of their study abroad experiences and gained learning outcomes, the focus group participants were asked about their opinions on the design and implementation of their respective programs. The participants commented on the aspects of pre-trip planning, program structure, arrangement of group tours, and curricular intensity. Specifically, the students spoke highly of the programs showing a good balance of planned activities (including coursework and group tours) and free time for self-learning and independent travel. Such a program design allows the participants to take the initiative and absorb the local culture at their own pace, but also pushes them to be more organized and make the most out of the learning opportunities.

On the other hand, the participants expressed negative feedback towards programs that were too structured, encompassing a large proportion of academic tasks (especially in-classroom studies and written homework) or tightly scheduled group tours. As the students had to overcome various distractions to focus on academics while abroad, too much coursework in a short period of time would lead to mental exhaustion and become counter-productive to their overall learning outcomes. Meanwhile, programs with an excessive schedule of group tours made the students

feel like package tourists and resulted in cultural fatigue when the sights and activities became repetitive. As such, some participants pointed out that they would benefit more from a less structured program design:

What I would change, I don't know if it would even be possible, just to restructure or rearrange the coursework in a way that we would have more time to explore and do stuff on our own. Especially being in a big city, there are so much to do... In Europe, everything starts way later than what we are used to, like, people would have dinner at 9 and then go out at midnight, so it was hard to try to get to do as much and still wake up at 7:30 to have breakfast and make to class. So, I don't know, just to restructure the daily schedule to get your schoolwork done but at the same time, have enough time to do different things. (Sophia)

A lot of the times, we would have a tour guide and we would all be on a bus to go from place to place. And it makes sense if you are going a little far. But if you are going somewhere you could get on the subway, for instance, I would rather... that we would have used the subway. Because then, we'd get a better idea of what actually living here looks like... (Henry)

Furthermore, the participants mentioned other elements of program design and implementation which may be improved, such as insufficient pre-trip planning, poorly-arranged group tours, moving too fast from one spot to another without any immersion, late notice of program changes, and mismanagement of unexpected situations. These factors may hinder the progress of an enriching learning experience and even deter the students from participating in future study abroad programs. Another interesting finding is that study abroad students may have diverse priorities going into the short-term programs. For example, a couple of participants indicated that the most valuable thing about study abroad for them was to take the specific course offered as part of the program and get the credits, while another revealed that the most important part of study abroad was getting the chance to travel and immerse in the culture. Such differences in student priority can influence their attitudes and behaviors during the program and in turn affect the educational outcomes, thus should be taken into consideration in the stage of program planning and participant recruitment.

CHAPTER 5. DISCUSSIONS

To achieve the research objectives, this study utilized a mixed methods approach to examine whether undergraduate students' participation in short-term (i.e., less than eight weeks) study abroad programs can enhance their learning in the affective domain and how specific program characteristics are associated with such learning outcomes. Based on a systematic synthesis of previous literature that identified five prominent affective learning outcome variables in the context of short-term study abroad, pre-post survey questionnaire and follow-up focus group protocol were developed and administered among study abroad students from one large public university in the U.S. This chapter provides interpretations and discussions of the quantitative and qualitative results presented in the previous chapter, and specifies the theoretical/conceptual contributions and institutional/organizational implications of this study.

5.1 Overview

This section provides an overview of the research findings and lays out a foundation for the discussions that follow. A summary of the results as detailed in Chapter 4 was first presented, and triangulation through quantitative and qualitative data integration was then explained.

5.1.1 Summary of Findings

Short-term study abroad programs present myriad opportunities for participating students to gain affective learning outcomes. The one-way ANOVA results of this study indicate that, the post-program group means of two affective learning variables—*perspectives on global interdependence (Global)* and *intercultural attitudes (Intercultural)*—are significantly higher than those of the pre-departure group. Based on Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s taxonomy, these two constructs mostly concern the low- to mid-level affective learning outcomes represented by conscious awareness, controlled attention, and responses with positive emotions. In contrast, two other learning outcomes—*environmental attitudes (Environmental)* and *general self-efficacy (Self-Efficacy)*—are positioned towards the higher end of the affective learning hierarchy and did not show significant between-groups effect.

As to the non-significant pre-post difference in another lower-level outcome—*openness to diversity and challenge (Openness)*, a possible explanation is that the pre-departure baseline score was already quite high, leaving little room for further improvement in only a few weeks. In fact, previous literature has widely documented that education abroad participants tend to overestimate their relevant capabilities in the pre-test phase, resulting in inflated baseline scores (e.g., Gregersen-Hermans, 2015; Snodgrass, 2017). After the study abroad experience, the participants may conceive a more realistic view of their own abilities, leading to post-program scores that may not diverge much from the (inflated) pre-departure ones. Despite the insignificant quantitative results, the learning outcomes of enhanced openness, heightened awareness of pro-environmental behaviors, and elevated self-efficacy were demonstrated in the qualitative findings, as shown in Chapter 4.

Relatedly, this study seeks to answer the question of how specific study abroad features are correlated with post-program affective learning outcomes by deconstructing short-term study abroad into the formal education component and the travel component, and accordingly—a set of academic and trip characteristics. Quantitative results were derived from a series of multiple indicators multiple causes (MIMIC) SEM analyses and supplementary analyses of multiple regression. Further examinations of the qualitative results provide more insights—especially from the participating students’ perspectives—into why certain program characteristics can be influential in their affective learning. The integrated key findings are illustrated in the conceptual model of affective learning in short-term study abroad (Figure 12).

Overall, the model indicates that short-term study abroad students’ affective learning outcomes are positively impacted by such academic characteristics as their participation in experiential learning activities, frequency of interactions with local students/faculty or industry professionals, and engagement in foreign language learning; the learning outcomes are also positively influenced by such trip characteristics as their participation in tourism activities including organized group excursions, solo travel, and shopping, frequency of casual interactions with locals, and level of independence in travel logistics management. These program characteristics are not completely independent, but are integrated with each other in the entirety of short-term study abroad experience. Collectively, they can enhance the affective learning outcomes as represented by five interrelated constructs (from the construct with the most

variation explained by the program characteristics to the one with the least explained)—*Global, Environmental, Intercultural, Self-Efficacy, and Openness*.

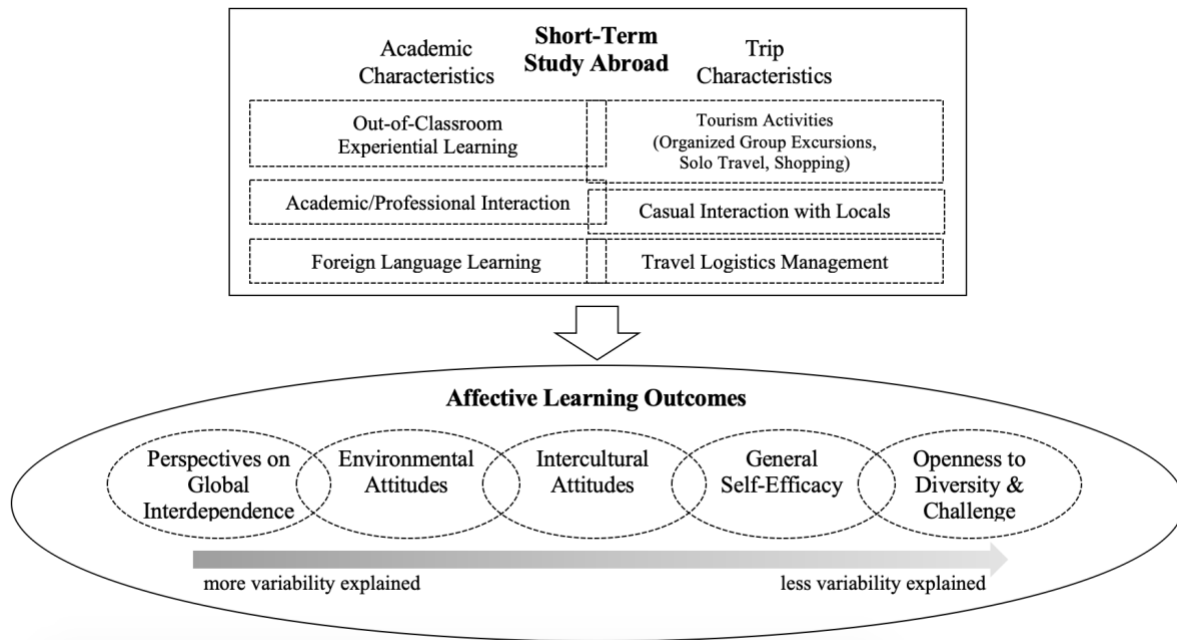


Figure 12. The conceptual model of affective learning in short-term study abroad.

The qualitative data from four follow-up focus groups offered more depth and nuance for understanding the why behind the focal relationships (Turner et al., 2017). The participants constantly recalled their group excursions, independent travel ventures (with friends or solo), and encounters with local people during the journey as the most memorable experiences abroad. In addition, the participants’ reflections on managing travel logistics by themselves (e.g., making trip itinerary, booking flight tickets, etc.) before and/or during study abroad—although only a peripheral experience—indicate how they were able to gain mindfulness of differences and details and learn to bounce back from mistakes and be more flexible. Furthermore, the participants highly appreciated the well-designed experiential learning activities and the opportunities to interact or even work closely with local students/faculty or industry professionals. Some participants talked about learning the host country language pre-trip or during the program and putting it into practice in real-life communications. Integrating the theoretical frameworks of experiential learning, transformative learning, and learning in the

affective domain, it is clear that the aforementioned study abroad experiences enable a higher degree of bodily and sensory involvement, immersion in different and unfamiliar environments, as well as positive social interactions in the host destination, which are significant factors promoting the achievement of affective learning objectives (Andresen et al., 2000; Krathwohl et al., 1964; Mitrovic et al., 2016).

Interestingly, another leisure/tourism activity—shopping, which is less examined in the context of study abroad, was also found to be positively correlated with students' affective learning outcomes (i.e., *Self-Efficacy*, *Environmental*). As revealed in the focus group discussions, shopping activities during study abroad cover a variety of encounters, from casual interactions with street vendors to explorations of the local grocery store trying to find daily necessities. Such authentic engagement with the local culture and first-hand experiences of different consumption habits and commercial practices may lead to enhanced appreciation and changed attitudes regarding relevant subjects (e.g., cultural conservation, environmental protection, etc.).

The quantitative results also indicate a positive correlation between students' participation in package tour and the learning outcome of *Global*. Digging into the focus group conversations, however, it is noted that the students might have mixed “package tour” with “organized group excursions” when responding to the survey. Although some participants complained about their group tours being “too structured” and making them feel like package tourists, the benefits gained from such group excursions—such as more comprehensive knowledge of the sites visited and peer reflections and exchange of opinions during or after the trip—outweigh the disadvantages of structure and may contribute to their affective learning. Meanwhile, the activity of sightseeing—a major component of typical package tours—was found to have a significant and negative effect on students' affective learning outcomes. As such, participation in package tour was not included in the conceptual model (Figure 12) as an impactful trip characteristic positively associated with affective learning.

5.1.2 Triangulation through Quantitative & Qualitative Data Integration

In the field of social science, triangulation refers to mixing data from different sources or using multiple methodologies to generate a better understanding of a given theory or phenomenon (Fielding, 2012; Turner et al., 2017). The mixed methods approach adopted in the

current study is a form of triangulation that aims to achieve convergence and complementarity through effective integration of quantitative (i.e., survey) and qualitative (i.e., focus group) data (Fielding, 2012; Morgan, 2019). Specifically, convergence in terms of consistent findings across quantitative and qualitative methods can indicate validation (Fielding, 2012; Turner et al., 2017). Moreover, as surveys can attain precision in the control and measurement of variables while focus groups are able to provide authenticity of context for the underlying phenomenon (Turner et al., 2017), such methods can each target a different aspect of the research topic and lead to complementary results (Morgan, 2019). This method-linking process reflects “convergent and holistic triangulation,” through which researchers can assess the validity of a theory or a set of results by examining the degree of agreement across research strategies and obtain a more enriched and complete understanding of the phenomenon from the unique perspectives or angles provided by one or more of the individual methods (Turner et al., 2017).

In this study, the collection and analysis of survey data was first conducted for the theoretical purpose of testing the hypothesis that participation in short-term study abroad has a positive impact on undergraduate students’ affective learning as represented by five salient outcome variables (i.e., *Global*, *Intercultural*, *Openness*, *Environmental*, and *Self-Efficacy*), as well as the proposition that the formal education component (i.e., academic characteristics) and the travel component (i.e., trip characteristics) of short-term study abroad have respective effects on the participants’ affective learning outcomes. Following the survey approach, focus group interviews were conducted and analyzed, seeking to develop theory to explain why study abroad participation can be impactful and certain program characteristics are influential factors in enhancing students’ affective learning. The quantitative and qualitative results were then integrated to develop a conceptual model of affective learning in short-term study abroad, as presented in Figure 12.

From the view of convergent triangulation, both the survey data and focus group data provided evidence that short-term study abroad participation positively impacted on the students’ lower-level affective learning (i.e., *Global*, *Intercultural*). Furthermore, the statistically significant correlations between certain academic/trip characteristics and students’ affective learning outcomes, as revealed in the quantitative analysis, were largely supported by the key themes emerged from the qualitative analysis. As such, the qualitative results indicated corroboration for the survey-based findings. In terms of holistic triangulation, the focus group

data complemented the survey data by demonstrating that higher-order affective learning (i.e., *Environmental, Self-Efficacy*) may also show improvement—or at least movement towards the positive direction—under certain circumstances of short-term study abroad. In addition, the focus group discussions presented students’ first-person narratives and rich details about their experiences during study abroad, which facilitated our understanding as to why some academic and trip characteristics were found to be positively or negatively related to affective learning outcomes. With such analytic density achieved from combining different methodologies and interpretive approaches (Fielding, 2012), the current study portrayed a deeper and clearer picture of how participation in short-term study abroad can benefit college students in the domain of affective learning.

Divergence of results is also a possibility in mixed methods studies when multiple approaches generate distinctly different outcomes, which can provide opportunities for further investigation and understanding of the research topic through holistic triangulation (Morgan, 2019; Turner et al., 2017). In the current study, a lower-degree divergence was shown in comparing the quantitative and qualitative results—no statistically significant difference was found between the pre-departure baseline scores and post-program outcome scores in three affective learning variables (i.e., *Openness, Environmental, and Self-Efficacy*), while the focus group data indicated enhanced learning in those dimensions. However, such a divergence was not so much a contradiction as a reflection of the strengths or weaknesses of different methods. As the qualitative method was able to capture the nuance from students’ described experiences and expressed feelings and perceptions, the quantitative method enabled more accurate measurement and possibility for generalization through a larger sample.

Meanwhile, the qualitative results did not provide explanations for certain correlations between the covariates and dependent variables revealed in the survey data, such as the negative impact of participation in nature-based tourism activities on *Global*, and the negative association between participation in intercultural learning activities and *Environmental*. Such a lack of information is understandable, since the focus group participants were only a small subsample of the survey respondents who participated in a variety of study abroad programs and activities, and the discussion topics were naturally flown from the semi-structured interview questions and the participants’ conversations instead of focusing on specific findings from the survey data. Further data collection and analysis in an attempt to shed light on such relationships between specific

study abroad activities and certain affective learning outcomes can be conducted in future research.

5.2 Theoretical and Conceptual Contributions

The current study provides theoretical and conceptual contributions in three dimensions—enriching the extant literature on learning theories, advancing the study abroad research by deconstructing the study abroad experience and identifying its two distinct components, and providing insights into the conceptual linkage between study abroad and tourism in general. The following subsections discuss these theoretical/conceptual contributions in detail.

5.2.1 Contributions to Learning Theories

The conceptualization and implementation of this study were guided by the theoretical frameworks of experiential learning, transformative learning, and learning in the affective domain. In turn, the findings of this study contribute to such learning theories by articulating the connections among the three and providing empirical evidence for understanding the travel-learning linkage in the context of short-term study abroad. Specifically, the results of this study demonstrate that experiential and transformative learning approaches can lead to enhanced affective learning outcomes. The influential study abroad program characteristics highlight the key elements of experiential and transformative learning, including engagement in complicated, real-life situations, active physical and psychological involvement, and critical and continued self-reflection and peer-sharing (Andresen et al., 2000; D’Amato & Krasny, 2011; Mitrovic et al., 2016). The affective learning outcomes derived from such experiences further reflect the product of transformative learning in terms of revised meaning structures or reformed frames of reference (Mezirow, 1997; Taylor, 1994). Particularly, the current study enriches the transformative learning research by extending its application to the learning of short-term study abroad participants and in the broader domain of affective learning.

In a related matter, this research experiments with a more coordinated classification scheme of study abroad learning outcomes. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the decades’ of study abroad evaluation efforts have produced inconsistent and sometimes arbitrary ways of

categorizing the diverse educational benefits accrued from program participation. Such obscurity may hinder the effective planning of learning experiences and the preparation/implementation of appropriate assessment tools. The current study redirects the attention towards the classic three-domain categorization of educational objectives developed by Bloom et al. (1956) and focuses on learning outcomes in the affective domain.

Affective learning outcomes represent a major benefit of study abroad programs and can be evaluated relatively more effectively with self-assessment methods (e.g., self-reported surveys) that are widely adopted and easily facilitated in study abroad research (Sitzmann et al., 2010). In this study, Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s hierarchical classification framework of affective learning outcomes (i.e., the affective taxonomy) was employed, for the first time, in the context of study abroad to organize the educational gains and elucidate the measurement and stimulation of affective learning through education abroad experiences. The findings confirm the theoretical proposition that lower-order affective attributes can be developed or attained relatively easily and in a shorter timeframe, while higher-order affective outcomes are less likely to show notable changes in the short term (Buissink-Smith et al., 2011; Krathwohl et al., 1964). The affective taxonomy proved to be a promising framework to guide future endeavors in study abroad outcome assessment.

Learning in the affective domain is critical to college students' personal growth and all-round development as global citizens. Such learning is a widely acknowledged benefit of experiences to which travel is key (Falk et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2015). In particular, short-term study abroad provides a unique venue to understand the travel-learning linkage, given its organic unity of formal education and leisure travel activities in a relatively brief time frame that better parallels a tourist experience (Roberson Jr., 2018; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Yet, a thorough investigation of how student participation in short-term study abroad impacts on their affective learning outcomes is missing from the extant literature. The current study addresses this research gap by first identifying and refining a series of salient affective learning variables from the existing outcome assessment literature, and then empirically examining such outcomes among a sample of undergraduate, short-term study abroad participants. The mixed methods study presented in this dissertation offers empirical evidence for the often anecdotal argument that tourism experience, which enables "concentrated, 'first-person' engagement with the culturally

unfamiliar,” can produce learning benefits that “years of classroom instruction rarely approach” (Werry, 2008, p. 18).

An especially insightful finding of this study, which connects the key dimensions of travel and the three learning theories, is the critical role of social contact in facilitating study abroad students’ affective learning outcomes. As specified in the experiential and transformative learning theory, intense collaboration and interaction in the learning environment are crucial to the learners for spurring reflections and fostering changes (Coghlan & Gooch, 2011; Doering, 2006; Intolubbe-Chmil et al., 2012). In addition, Cohen (1972) points out that how and how much tourists and the host society impact on each other depends largely on the extent and variety of social contacts the tourist has during the trip. Results of the current study provide empirical support for such arguments by confirming the positive impact of students’ frequent interactions with local students, faculty/staff members, industry professionals, and the general public during study abroad on their affective learning, especially on *intercultural attitudes* and *openness to diversity/challenge*. Moreover, other academic and trip characteristics that positively influence affective learning as revealed in the study—i.e., experiential learning activities, foreign language learning, group excursions, solo travel, shopping, and managing travel logistics—also reflect the significance of social contact to varying degrees.

In particular, these impactful experiences show that not only are intergroup contacts important in facilitating positive effects on attitudes and perceptions (e.g., Fan et al., 2017; Pettigrew, 1998), but ingroup contacts—i.e., peer interactions within the study abroad group—are also rich sources of affective learning. As the focus group discussions indicate, the U.S. college students do not often initiate interactions on campus with people outside of their social circles. Participating in short-term study abroad allows them—or, as a student put it, “forces” them—to spend an extended period of time with a group of diverse peers, including both domestic and international students with different academic and sociocultural backgrounds. Through such ingroup contacts as working on experiential learning projects, sharing reflections on daily experiences, and figuring out how to accommodate everyone’s needs when planning a weekend trip together, the students gain abundant peer learning opportunities and are provided a psychological buffer against the shock and stress from intergroup communications and other challenging situations encountered during study abroad. Upon their return to campus, the

established connections are likely to continue and further influence their college life and ongoing personal development.

5.2.2 Advancing Study Abroad Research—A Two-Component Structure of Study Abroad Experience

Previous research indicates that study abroad entails a variety of experiences ranging from in-classroom studies to structured or unstructured cultural interactions in the host destination (e.g., Engle & Engle, 2003; Streitwieser & Light, 2018). However, when investigating the impact of study abroad, few researchers have attempted to attribute the occurred benefits to specific study abroad activities or features. Stone and Petrick (2013) emphasized this lack of knowledge in their extensive review of study abroad and educational travel literature and called for more scholarly efforts to segregate the study abroad experience in order to determine how learning is influenced by its various components. To exemplify study abroad as an umbrella experience, they listed four components of study abroad—travel and touristic activities, class/formal education, exposure to another culture, and interpersonal contact (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Although such a specification covers the primary experiences of study abroad, it is not entirely clear as the components are largely overlapping with each other (e.g., travel, cultural exposure, and interpersonal contact). The current study responds to the call for research raised by Stone and Petrick (2013) and redefines the study abroad experience with a two-component structure—the formal education component and the travel component.

In the proposed structure, each *component* is represented by a series of program features or designs—referred to as *characteristics*—that enable student participation in certain experiences or activities to varying degrees. Specifically, the formal education component and the corresponding academic characteristics reflect the school/institution-involved, subject-oriented portion of study abroad, including both in-classroom and outside-of-classroom activities guided by intentional pedagogical approaches. The extant literature on study abroad experience predominantly focuses on such program characteristics as language learning curriculum, intercultural interventions and guided reflections, and experiential learning activities, as mentioned in Chapter 2. The inclusion of and emphasis on such study abroad experiences reflect the increasingly embraced idea that students can indeed learn through study abroad and learn in ways that may not be accessible on home campus (Vande Berg, 2007). As study abroad becomes

part of an integrated curriculum of the U.S. undergraduate education, both intellectual and attitudinal learning benefits are expected to be gained by the participating students (Bolen, 2007; Steinberg, 2007; Sutton et al., 2007).

The travel component and the corresponding trip characteristics describe the parts of study abroad that most resemble tourism. Fundamental features of tourism, such as location of the destination, trip duration, and accommodation type, are also critical to a study abroad program, which have been widely acknowledged as comparable, objective criteria for effective program design (Engle & Engle, 2003). Moreover, the trip characteristics highlight the travel/tourism-related experiences and activities pre-departure and during the program, which can be more or less structured, with or without a deliberate educational purpose, but can nonetheless bring about learning benefits for the participating students. Such program characteristics are rarely examined in depth in the extant study abroad literature, even though tourism experiences in the form of group excursions or field trips are a major element of many short-term programs, and students in long-term programs often engage in independent travel and leisure activities such as shopping and sightseeing (Stone & Petrick, 2013). Depending on the level of engagement and authenticity, participating in such tourism activities during study abroad has the potential to enhance students' personal growth and generic skills, which is worth investigating in study abroad research.

The vast body of study abroad outcome assessment literature documents the years of research efforts in identifying and measuring relevant learning outcomes; yet, researchers and educators are still searching for answers to such questions as what types of study abroad programs or experiences are the most effective, and under what conditions will students learn the most (Terzuolo, 2016; Vande Berg, 2007). This study identifies the formal education component (i.e., academic characteristics) and travel component (i.e., trip characteristics) of study abroad based on the previous literature. Establishing such a structure is an important first step in understanding how the learning effects of program participation occur.

Compared to the existing classification models of study abroad experience, which mostly concentrate on the intercultural dimension of program features (e.g., Engle & Engle, 2003; Streitwieser & Light, 2018), the current two-component structure enables a more holistic understanding of the study abroad experience and relates to a broader set of educational benefits, including—but not limited to—intercultural learning outcomes. In the context of this study, the

academic and trip characteristics were empirically tested as influential factors of students' affective learning outcomes after short-term program participation. As the results in Chapter 4 demonstrate, in promoting affective outcomes manifested as desirable attitudes, dispositions, and senses of value, the tourism portion of short-term study abroad is as powerful as the formal education part—if not more so. The two-component structure lends a new perspective to program design and outcome assessment for not only study abroad programs but also other institution-led experiences that integrate travel and formal education in various ways.

5.2.3 Linking Study Abroad and Tourism in General

Despite the self-evident association between study abroad and tourism, educational scholars and practitioners have been hesitant to explicitly connect the two, largely because of the (once) dominant conceptualization of tourism as an act of consumerism or “a commercialized and eventually industrialized form of hospitality” (Cohen, 1984, p. 375; Freestone & Geldens, 2008). Indeed, for a long time, tourism experiences and the personal benefits accrued from travel focused on hedonistic escapism and relaxation; it was not until the end of the 20th Century that emerging models of tourism and leisure gained popularity to fulfill tourists' growing appetite for intellectual engagement and even personal transformation through travel (Falk et al., 2012; Liang et al., 2015). For example, volunteer tourism is one of the most prominent forms of “alternative” tourism, as researchers find that through authentic interactions and immersive engagement with the local community, volunteer tourists experience a change or reinforcement of self-identity that potentially leads to transformation (Coghlan, 2015; Francis & Yasué, 2019; Magrizos et al., 2020).

Meanwhile, study abroad, as a unique combination of formal education and travel experiences and a major platform for demonstrating learning through travel, has rarely been investigated through the theoretical lens of tourism. One pertinent work was by Freestone and Geldens (2008), in which they raised a sociological discussion of student exchange as a mode of tourism with qualitative data (i.e., in-depth interviews) collected from seven Australian undergraduates who participated in overseas exchange programs for one or two semesters. Adopting Cohen (1979)'s phenomenological typology of tourism as a theoretical foundation, the researchers find that the exchange experience resonates particularly with the experiential, experimental, and existential modes of tourism—referred to as the “non-institutionalized tourist

roles” as they are only very loosely attached to the tourist establishment (Cohen, 1972). The fundamental variable distinguishing the non-institutionalized tourist from the mass tourist is the desire to experience authenticity of the host culture and seek direct contact with new and different people (Cohen, 1972; Fan et al., 2017; Freestone & Geldens, 2008). In Freestone and Geldens (2008)’s study, the exchange students identified a “quest for authenticity” driving their experience abroad and perceived themselves moving beyond tourists in the commercial or mainstream sense. The current study echoes this finding and extends the discussion to the context of short-term study abroad lasting no more than eight weeks.

Both the quantitative and qualitative results of this study reflect the presence of the desire for authenticity and social contact in short-term study abroad students. Based on its varying degrees of intensity and the consequent travel behaviors, the short-term study abroad experiences investigated in this research range from the experiential mode to the experimental mode of tourism. Specifically, the experiential participants are content with observing the authentic life of others while remaining conscious of their own “otherness” (Cohen, 1979); they prefer to explore the host destination with a peer group to maintain a familiar “environmental bubble” and do not proactively seek profound interactions with the locals. These students also tend to experience more frustration or anxiety when facing drastic cultural differences and challenging situations. The experimental participants, on the other hand, engage in the authentic life of the host society—although without fully committing to it as the existential tourist would do (Cohen, 1979). These students passionately pursue an immersion in the local daily life and prefer traveling solo or with only a few others rather than as a large group. They highly appreciate the opportunities to interact socially and in-depth with the local people and even develop personal relationships with them. Such opportunities would be less accessible had they been only passing through the host destination as a mass tourist instead of participating in the study abroad program.

Although it may be argued that most trips are somewhat educational (Liang et al., 2015), for travel to truly “broadens the mind” as the conventional wisdom suggests, certain boundary conditions need to be satisfied. As the results of this study along with a set of findings in previous research consistently demonstrate, such conditions include a higher degree of authenticity and immersion in the host environment, experience of dissonance and contact with new people and practices, constant reflection and sharing, as well as a strong motivation to learn

or change (Liang et al., 2015; Magrizos et al., 2020; Minnaert, 2012). Such features are undoubtedly more evident and intense in non-institutionalized tourism formats such as backpacking and study abroad, thus may not be typical of contemporary tourism in general (Noy, 2004). However, investigating how travel can be deeply educational and why transformative experiences only materialize for some travelers on the platform of such alternative tourism (e.g., Liang et al., 2015; Magrizos et al., 2020) can contribute to the exploration of personal transformation through tourism in general, as researchers are supplied with “a lucid showcase for a phenomenon that might otherwise, among tourists in general, be overlooked” (Noy, 2004, p. 79).

More recently, Soulard et al. (2021) developed a measurement scale to assess the process and outcomes of transformative travel experience in four dimensions—the travelers’ abilities to understand and interact with local residents and culture, feelings of self-assurance and empowerment, experiences of disorienting dilemma (especially when manifested as reverse culture shock upon their return home), and positive emotions felt at the destination such as joy. The findings of the current study indicate a high level of convergence with these dimensions, showing that the learning experiences and outcomes of study abroad students have the potential to be generalized to other tourism contexts where tourist transformation may happen. Meanwhile, such a transformative travel experience scale may also be applied to the study abroad context to evaluate the program participants’ transformation. Especially, a comparative study with the administration of this scale among a group of study abroad students and another group of independent tourists may provide more insights into the connections between study abroad, tourism in general, and transformative learning.

5.3 Institutional and Organizational Implications

Short-term programs comprise a major part of study abroad opportunities offered by HE institutions in the U.S. In light of the findings and discussions of the current research, a series of implications and recommendations are provided in this section to guide the practices of program design, student advising, outcome assessment, and policymaking for more effective resource allocation and student learning in the affective domain.

5.3.1 Program Design and Development—Implications for Organizers and Partners

Short-term study abroad incorporates various types of programs, such as exchange, co-sponsored, and faculty-led programs. Accordingly, the detailed aspects of a program may be determined by two partner institutions through an exchange agreement, by a third-party study abroad provider, or by program leaders (usually in collaboration with relevant campus offices) (The Forum on Education Abroad, 2017b). Among such types, exchange programs have relatively fixed models, although the university administration (e.g., the education abroad office) may have some negotiation power regarding certain aspects of the program (e.g., credit transfer, student accommodation). Co-sponsored and faculty-led programs, on the other hand, generally allow the faculty leaders and/or the education abroad office at the home university and third-party service providers in the host destination to design and adjust the specifics of a program and optimize its educational effect. The current section provides recommendations for such program organizers (i.e., administrators, faculty/staff members) and partners (i.e., third-party service providers) who are involved in the decision-making about short-term program planning and development.

First, it is highlighted that a balanced program structure in terms of the components of formal education and travel is the most conducive to students' affective learning. Contrary to the common understanding of short-term study abroad as a glorified vacation, this research indicates that such programs can also be academically intense. In fact, nearly 80% (110/139) of the post-program survey respondents reported having in-classroom studies during the program. Yet, more coursework packed into a program may not ensure more benefits gained by the students. The focus group participants expressed complaints about the tight course schedule or heavy academic workload of some programs, which prohibited their experiential learning and cultural immersion. Meanwhile, regarding the travel component, this study finds that group excursions overloaded with package-tour-like activities, such as fast-paced and superficial sightseeing in the host destination, are unconstructive to student learning.

Therefore, when designing short-term programs, educational leaders should allow for a more flexible structure while incorporating a reasonable amount of coursework (e.g., in-classroom study, written homework), so that the students can retain a routine of formal education but also have the chance to experience “living like a local” by arranging their own daily schedule or handling the logistics of independent travel during the program. Faculty leaders may ask the

local partners to recommend routes of immersive tours that students can independently make plans for and take part in. Following the trips, presentations or casual show-and-tell can be organized within the study abroad group to encourage students to reflect on and share their own travel stories and also learn from others' experiences.

In host destinations where such arrangement is difficult to achieve because of factors like inconvenient public transportation or safety concerns, faculty leaders and/or service providers should place emphasis on designing experiential learning activities and group tours that are engaging and reflective, particularly enabling academic- and social-oriented contacts between students and the local people as well as peer interactions within the study abroad group. A series of experiential learning methods and techniques can be adopted depending on the subject of the program and size of the group, such as outdoor leadership activities, games, and service learning (Montrose, 2002). Especially, program organizers and partners may learn from or collaborate with organizations that arrange alternative tourism experiences such as volunteer tourism and ecotourism in the host destination. Through activities like volunteering at a local school or visiting the elderly in a nursing home, students are provided opportunities to bring meaningful services to the host community and engage intensively with the local people and their study abroad peers. To materialize the learning effect, faculty leaders need to pair such experiences with precursory orientation to instruct and motivate the participants, as well as follow-up intentional reflection—either in the form of group conversations or individually written journals—to allow the participants to contemplate the interactions and encounters of the day and place them in the context of their own life experiences and value systems. Affective learning outcomes are likely to be internalized through such a process of consciously engaging in and reflecting on a powerful experience (Krathwohl et al., 1964; Magrizos et al., 2020).

In addition, learning the host country language (if non-English) is found to be positively associated with *intercultural attitudes*. Moreover, overcoming the language barrier is a critical component in initiating and developing interactions with locals, which will in turn lead to more affective learning benefits. The post-program survey in this study shows that less than 20% (24/139) of the respondents were in programs with non-English as the main language of instruction, and less than 30% (39/139) took a language course or workshop before or during the program. Taking into account that English is a widely spoken language (or the official language)

in some program destinations in the sample, such a rate of host language learning/instruction is quite low.

Admittedly, the duration of short-term programs restricts the feasibility and necessity of intensive language learning (except for language-based programs). Nonetheless, previous research demonstrates that participating in short-term study abroad facilitates students' understanding of the significance of language study and enhances their motivation to learn and their willingness to speak a foreign language (Bretag & van der Veen, 2017; Dekaney, 2008). Such affective learning outcomes can be reinforced by some basic language training or familiarization activities pre-trip or embedded in the program. Therefore, study abroad organizers should request the home institution to allocate more resources for providing at least introductory language lessons before and/or during the program. Furthermore, faculty leaders may ask the local partners to help connect with college students or host families in the community to arrange casual learning activities like mutual language exchange (i.e., teach English and learn/practice the host language) and one-day language immersion. Such activities may help students relieve the apprehension towards verbal communication in a foreign language and stimulate their participation in more enriching study abroad experiences, such as independent travel, immersion in local life, and engagement in extensive social contacts.

5.3.2 Student Advising and Learning Outcome Assessment

As increasingly diverse program offerings are available to college students who are interested in studying abroad for a short term, relevant faculty and staff members (e.g., academic advisor, study abroad advisor) are responsible for assisting the students to make the right choice of program. Especially when students don't have a preference regarding location or program type, they need to rely on other criteria to narrow down their options. Leveraging the findings of the current research, advisors may categorize short-term programs as formal-education-focused or travel-focused based on the relative weight of such activities as in-classroom studies, subject-related experiential learning, cultural exploration, and tourism experiences in a program. Students should be encouraged to think about what is high on their list of priorities and what personal goals they want to achieve from participating in study abroad. For example, the focus group discussions in this study indicate that some students choose short-term study abroad to take intensive courses on a specific subject matter and earn academic credits, while others

consider travel and cultural immersion as the most valuable experiences abroad. Advisors may recommend programs of a particular focus according to the student's reported priority and personal goals. A better matching of programs and participants can lead to more fruitful learning experiences and more fulfilled students who may become advocates of education abroad and consider studying abroad again in the future.

Another important issue in student advising is to prepare the participants for the disorienting dilemma and the consequent negative emotions likely to be experienced during the program. As previous studies indicate, departure from one's comfort zone is essential to a transformative learning experience; however, a delicate balance has to be achieved, as too much disorientation would overwhelm the students and move them from the learning zone to the panic zone (Liang et al., 2015; Magrizos et al., 2020). Moreover, students have varying levels of tolerance for unfamiliarity and frustration, diverse personalities (e.g., venturesomeness) that impact on their travel behaviors and learning method preferences, as well as different triggers in moving between the comfort, learning, and panic zones (Liang et al., 2015; Mody et al., 2017). As such, it could be difficult to customize the program offerings based on each student's needs and characteristics. Nonetheless, faculty leaders should be aware of individual participant's situation through pre-departure survey or one-on-one meetings and be ready to provide necessary support and intervention during and/or after the program.

In general, program organizers should arrange pre-trip workshops and assign homework to familiarize the students with the host culture and people and raise their awareness of potential challenges and learning opportunities. While on-site, sufficient time should be allocated for guided reflections and peer sharing, and certain amount of alone time should also be set aside for students to engage in self-contemplation or simply relax and revitalize oneself. Upon returning to campus, faculty leaders may keep in touch with the program participants for an extended period of time (e.g., throughout the following semester) and conduct debriefing sessions focusing on students' perceived learning outcomes and encountered difficulties reintegrating into their previous life. Although the current study did not examine such post-program experiences, prior research has shown that the "reverse culture shock" that travelers are confronted with when they are back home can be an even more powerful disorienting dilemma (Kirillova et al., 2017; Soulard et al., 2021); thus, intentional guidance or counseling should be available to returned study abroad students on home campus.

Relatedly, this research offers new insights into setting and evaluating the purpose of short-term study abroad and student outcomes in terms of affective learning. As Nguyen (2017) points out, short-term study abroad design should have a clear vision of learning outcomes supported by intentional programmatic structures in order to deliver the most benefits to students. In addition to establishing appropriate goals and objectives, student learning from study abroad has to be rigorously and continuously assessed—a task that should be considered not only at a programmatic level, but also as part of the institutional commitment (Nguyen, 2017; Terzuolo, 2016). The current study focuses on learning outcomes in the affective domain and empirically evaluates five constructs with adapted survey scales that are available in the literature. The findings confirm that short-term study abroad is the most effective in facilitating changes in lower-order affective learning outcomes (i.e., to receive, to respond), such as global awareness and intercultural sensitivity (Buissink-Smith et al., 2011; Krathwohl et al., 1964). Meanwhile, well-designed programs with academic and trip characteristics that emphasize experiential learning, authentic immersion, and positive social contacts have the potential to influence higher-order affective learning outcomes (i.e., to value, to organize, and to internalize), such as the formation or change of environmental values and development of general self-efficacy.

Thus, it is suggested that educational leaders of short-term study abroad clarify the program objectives in the affective domain by specifying lower-order learning outcomes as immediate impacts of program participation and higher-order ones as long-term impacts, and focus the outcome assessment on determining the measurable gains in lower-order affective learning. Setting more realistic learning goals and managing participants' expectations for a life-transforming experience to a reasonable level can help short-term study abroad students adjust their mindset entering the program and lead to optimal performance and better learning results (Magrizos et al., 2020; Minnaert, 2012). In the meantime, long-term impacts may be evaluated through institution-wide longitudinal assessments of educational effectiveness, with “short-term study abroad participation” included as an influential factor. Especially, higher-order affective learning outcomes are likely to be revealed in self-reflections or conversations reflecting on past experiences; thus, qualitative data such as student journals, in-depth interviews, and focus groups can be collected for the purpose of long-term assessment. Although exact “cause and effect” would be difficult to verify using such data over long time periods (Buissink-Smith et al., 2011),

valuable insights can be obtained as to what a role short-term study abroad plays in students' lifelong learning and personal development.

5.3.3 Transformative Learning through Study Abroad—Implications for HE Policymakers

A transformative approach to global education—where “citizens have an understanding of a common humanity, a shared planet and a shared future”—is gaining more significance in the era of globalization (Shultz, 2007, p. 255). HE institutions have been taking on the role to nurture such transformative learners who realize how their own culture and experiences shape and limit their ways of thinking/living and are empowered to become agents of change in themselves and in the society (Clifford & Montgomery, 2015; Mezirow, 1991). Promoting undergraduate participation in study abroad has been one of the major institutional efforts of U.S. colleges and universities to achieve this goal. The current study presents empirical evidence on the effectiveness of short-term study abroad programs in enhancing students' transformative learning manifested as salient affective learning outcomes. Based on such evidence, implications and recommendations for HE administrative leaders and policymakers are provided.

First, the findings of this research confirm that students' awareness of global interdependence and intercultural attitudes can be developed through participating in study abroad programs shorter than eight weeks, and such programs have the potential to further impact on more complicated, higher-level learning outcomes (e.g., self-efficacy, pro-environmental values) when they incorporate academic and travel characteristics that enable active involvement, authentic cultural immersion, and intensive social interactions. Therefore, administrative leaders should consider short-term study abroad as a viable approach to transformative learning and commit more institutional input (e.g., human resources, financial resources) to developing such highly impactful and more accessible study abroad options. For example, more program offerings in the form of immersive two-to-three-week experiences can be provided in diverse international locations and through partnerships with various host institutions. Shorter-term exchange (e.g., one to two months) can be initiated to provide opportunities of in-depth academic interactions for students who cannot participate in semester/year-long exchange programs. In addition, scholarships and other financial aid resources should be increased for short-term study abroad to remove the financial barriers for

those without means and encourage more students to step outside their comfort zone and experience different cultures and the changing world first-hand.

Second, incentives and rewards should be provided at the departmental level and the individual level to motivate academic departments and faculty/staff members to involve in the design and implementation of high-quality short-term study abroad programs. At the departmental level, innovative program designs by one department alone or through cross-departmental collaborations can bid for funds from the university to develop targeted study abroad opportunities. At the individual level, faculty/staff members should be rewarded for taking the initiative to lead study abroad programs and/or integrating the component of international experience into their curriculum design. Moreover, although it is acknowledged that transformative learning may not be taught, educators play a crucial role of organizing the environment, situations, procedures, and content, and facilitating the internal process of learning to optimize the probability of students' personal transformation (Illeris, 2015). This organizing and facilitating role is even more important in the context of study abroad, where learning outcomes are unlikely to materialize unless students are led to engage, reflect, and exchange perspectives in a safe and judgment-free environment (Liang et al., 2015; Magrizos et al., 2020). As such, institutional training should be provided for faculty/staff members to support their own professional growth and transformative learning as well as to help them fulfill their role as effective study abroad program leaders.

In addition, as previous research indicates, for transformative learning through HE internationalization to happen, cultural and structural changes are necessary at the institutional level where ideological decisions about the curriculum and graduate attributes are made (Clifford & Montgomery, 2015). The current study highlights the importance of affective learning in undergraduate education and the value of short-term study abroad in helping students acquire such learning outcomes. Relatedly, senior management at the institutional level should cultivate an open and empowering culture that is conducive to students' attitudinal and emotional development and facilitate their personal transformation through various curricular and cocurricular activities.

CHAPTER 6. CONCLUSIONS

Against the backdrop of HE internationalization, study abroad research and practices have continuously been a focus of attention. Especially, whether and how participation in study abroad can benefit students personally, academically, and professionally is of particular interest to researchers and practitioners in the field. The current study examines the impact of short-term study abroad on participating undergraduates' affective learning outcomes manifested as desirable attitudes, beliefs, and values. Specifically, five salient outcome variables have been identified from the extant literature and categorized according to the affective taxonomy developed by Krathwohl et al. (1964). To further determine the effects of specific study abroad components, I deconstructed the short-term study abroad experience into the formal education component consisting of a series of academic characteristics and the travel component incorporating a set of trip characteristics. Based on the key findings of this study, a conceptual model of affective learning in short-term study abroad has been proposed. The model highlights the significant roles played by experiential learning and language learning curricula, travel planning and tourism activities that enable active engagement and authentic immersion, as well as inter- and intra-group interactions for academic and social purposes. Short-term study abroad programs that emphasize such characteristics are likely to lead to students' enhanced affective learning outcomes, such as *perspectives on global interdependence* and *environmental attitudes*.

This research contributes to the understanding of the travel-learning linkage by empirically investigating short-term study abroad as a combination of formal education and tourism activities. Focusing on learning in the affective domain where such short-term, mixed-educational experiences have greater potential in making a change, this study confirms that the most influential program characteristics are those that require students' proactive adaptation to a dynamic environment. In contrast, experiences or activities that allow the students to keep their autopilot on, such as regular in-classroom studies (regardless of the subject or academic context) and mass tourism activities (regardless of the destination), are less likely to result in transformative learning benefits. This finding resonates with the sociological discussions of study abroad participants as non-institutionalized tourists. Therefore, in designing impactful short-term study abroad programs, greater weight should be attached to creating learning opportunities that can hardly be found in the home campus environment or obtained through the

“institutionalized” tourism mode. The proposed conceptual model offers a preliminary structure for both tourism and education researchers and practitioners to develop more comprehensive future studies and effective short-term programs that connect travel and affective learning.

6.1 Three Areas of Significance

Looking beyond the immediate implications derived from the results of this study, there are three areas of significance worth highlighting as study abroad research and practices continue to move forward. Specifically, this section aims to provide preliminary answers to the following questions: 1) From a geopolitical point of view, why is study abroad important now more than ever for U.S. undergraduates? 2) How to understand and address the societal impact of study abroad, especially in terms of the potential consequence of social inequality? 3) How can participation in educational travel help develop intercultural competence?

6.1.1 Geopolitical Significance of U.S. Study Abroad

Geopolitics refers to the study of geographical factors in world politics and inter-state relations, emphasizing such factors as location, resources, and accessibility (Castree et al., 2013). Global development has been continuously impacted by geopolitical trends and events (Igoe, 2019). Although for decades after the World War II—especially from the end of the Cold War to the beginning of the 21st Century, the influence of world geopolitics seemed imperceptible, as the United States emerged as the only global superpower post-war and held a singularly dominant position in the world (Done, 2012; Weidokai, 2019). With its centrality in geopolitics, the U.S. “crafted the institutions and norms that define the international order” and later “became the de facto enforcer of that order and served, if somewhat unwillingly, as the ‘global policeman’” (Cohen et al., 2020, p. 5-6). In terms of domestic development, the U.S. was able to focus on advancing the crucial areas such as education, sciences, and economics under the privileged geopolitical conditions (Wendover Productions, 2017). The pivotal role of the U.S. on the global stage and its outstanding national development have undoubtedly generated great senses of superiority among the American people.

As the 21st Century progresses, geopolitical power shifts are taking place with the rise of several rapidly developing economies including Brazil, Russia, India, China, and South Korea

(i.e., the “BRICK” countries) (Done, 2012). Losing its unipolar moment, the U.S. has entered a new era of great power competition—which largely frames U.S. foreign policy (Farley, 2021; Weidokai, 2019). Especially, xenophobic policies were enacted by the Trump administration, elevating nationalist values domestically and diminishing the confidence in America internationally (Licker, 2020; Nietzel, 2019). Such backward trends can indeed be harmful, as the human history has witnessed that when people’s perspectives of the rest of the world are constructed behind borders—whether political or mental borders of ideology and cultural differences, they tend to give rise to fear, distrust, and the potential for destructive conflict (D’Amore, 1988).

Meanwhile, now and into the future, international cooperation is required for pursuing the Sustainable Development Goals and tackling a series of global problems such as nuclear proliferation, terrorism, and climate change (Farley, 2021; Igoe, 2019). Taken together, it is important now more than ever for young Americans—the upcoming generation of U.S. leaders—to acquire firsthand knowledge of the larger world, constantly revise and expand their understanding, and nurture a shared vision of global development (D’Amore, 1988; Nietzel, 2019). Through participating in study abroad programs, American college students are able to gain such a learning opportunity that will benefit both individual students and the country as a whole, because the U.S. cannot remain globally competitive with a citizenry occupied with xenophobia and narrow-mindedness (NAFSA, 2020b). As Senator Paul Simon—who was a strong advocate for international education—astutely pointed out: “America’s incompetence in foreign languages and cultural awareness jeopardizes our nation’s future in global affairs. This lack of global perspective damages America’s ability to compete in world markets. The more competent our country becomes in foreign languages and cultures, the more enhanced our foreign policy decisions will become” (as cited in Nietzel, 2019).

Despite the changing geopolitics and the resulting time of greater instability and uncertainty in which we currently live (Weidokai, 2019), it was recently found that the American millennial generation sees the world as less threatening (Cohen et al., 2020). Study abroad can reinforce such an attitude and add on another layer of sentiments. As Jones (2014) revealed in her research, the unique cross-border contact of study abroad fosters a form of “enlightened nationalism.” The semester-long study abroad returnees reported to be more proud of being American, more appreciative of American culture, and more strongly attached to the national

identity. At the same time, the students did not show a heightened belief in America's superiority; rather, they were less likely to view their host countries (and "other countries" at large) as threatening (Jones, 2014).

Integrating these results with the findings of the current study that returned short-term study abroad students gained increased sense of global interdependence and connection with the international community, it is safe to say that study abroad may serve as a force for national development and world peace by encouraging "a sharper sense of national difference, and pride in that difference, tempered by tolerance and the realization that such differences need not be threatening" (Jones, 2015). In the present context of uncertainty and shifts in power distribution, study abroad represents a much-needed experience for American undergraduates to mitigate perceptions of foreign threat and promote expectations of peaceful change and cooperation (Jones, 2014, 2015). The globalized world will in turn benefit from a younger generation possessing ethnorelative worldviews coupled with confidence in one's own country and culture.

6.1.2 Study Abroad and Social Inequality

Although access to study abroad opportunities for U.S. college students is expanding in recent years, participating in study abroad is far from being the norm of HE experience. Previous research and data reports have consistently revealed the inequity in study abroad participation and the underrepresentation of certain demographic groups, including low-income, immigrant, and first-generation college students, students of color, students with disabilities, and students from rural areas (Johnstone et al., 2020; Kommers, 2020). Barriers to study abroad were also discussed in the extant literature. In addition to limited financial means, other social and cultural factors may result in students' decisions to not study abroad, such as lack of familial support, family responsibilities that prevent them from being away, feelings of being out of place or "not for people like me," and fear of encountering prejudice or stereotype threat while abroad (Johnstone et al., 2020; Kommers, 2020; Sweeney, 2013). Furthermore, Kommers (2020) indicates that students' first-generation status, rural background, and being a student of color are more defining predictors of study abroad intention than having lower income. Such results are in line with previous findings that even when financial resources have increased, students of certain groups still hesitate to study abroad, as they are concerned about being marginalized or

discriminated against, or because going to college is already a significant cultural transition for them (Brux & Fry, 2010; Kommers, 2020; Salisbury et al., 2011).

Considering such issues of inclusion and equity related to study abroad participation, it is not surprising that study abroad may be playing a role in reproducing social inequality in the U.S. Such a global learning experience is most accessible to students who are already better-off, and these students further gain competitive advantages in their future education attainment (e.g., enroll in graduate school) and career development from studying abroad (Kommers, 2020). Moreover, the study abroad experience of students from historically underrepresented populations could be a reproduction of inequities on the home campus, especially in those group-based programs where the intra-group dynamics and norms are always defined by the privileged majority (Johnstone et al., 2020). Therefore, researchers suggest that HE institutions equip their study abroad programs with adequate guidance and faculty mentoring to prevent students' stereotyping and culturally disrespectful behaviors while abroad—either intra- or inter-group—and mitigate the risks of “reinforcing prevailing social hierarchies and exacerbating inequitable distributions of power and privilege” (Johnstone et al., 2020; Kommers, 2020, p. 106).

More importantly, increased efforts should be devoted to creating more equalized opportunities for all U.S. undergraduates to engage in international and intercultural learning experiences. In terms of legislation, the bill of *Senator Paul Simon Study Abroad Program Act* addresses the problem of marginal study abroad participation by proposing a competitive grant program to help HE institutions eliminate the institutional, cultural, and curricular barriers to study abroad and improve access and equity in international education (NAFSA, 2020b). Meanwhile, HE institutions are primarily responsible for two tasks: 1) providing effective promotion and communications to motivate more students to pursue study abroad experiences, and 2) developing more accessible and attractive global learning programs and activities—either abroad or on the home campus—to fulfill the institutional goal of preparing college graduates for a globalized and multicultural working and living environment.

As to the first task, it is especially important for educational leaders to collect information from students of underrepresented groups regarding their reasons for choosing to or not to study abroad as well as the challenges they encountered or lessons learned during the process of searching and applying for preferable programs (Sweeney, 2013). Based on such information, faculty and staff members in the relevant academic department and education abroad office can

design targeted messages to address the prospective participants' questions and concerns and recommend specific programs that would appeal to them.

In terms of the second task, one viable approach is to develop more high-impact, low-cost short-term study abroad programs. The current study provides empirical evidence for the effectiveness of programs as short as one week in enhancing students' lower-level affective learning outcomes. Higher-order affective learning may also be positively influenced by programs emphasizing active engagement, authentic immersion, and profound social interactions. Furthermore, as short-term study abroad provides an opportunity for students from diverse groups to interact intensively and cultivate close personal relationships, these students may become change agents back on the home campus to promote inter-group bonding and defy on-campus social inequality. On the other hand, it is acknowledged that going abroad for educational experiences—even just for a short term—may not be an option for some students, so HE institutions are further responsible for developing alternatives to study abroad that offer similarly rewarding learning experiences to all students. Section 6.2.2 will discuss such alternatives to study abroad in detail.

6.1.3 Educational Travel and Intercultural Competence

Educational travel is defined as a formalized travel product and school-based curriculum, in which learning is supposed to occur through planned and organized traveling (Li & Liang, 2020; Stone & Petrick, 2013). Students can opt for a variety of domestic and international educational travel experiences, such as field trips, exchanges, research-based learning projects, and internships (van't Klooster et al., 2008). Study abroad, as investigated in the current research, is also a typical form of educational travel. Extending the classroom to the natural environment, historic and cultural sites, and real-life scenarios, educational travel is beneficial to students' experiential learning and provides a holistic framework for school education (Li & Liang, 2020). Furthermore, depending on the specific context, educational travel has the potential to enhance participants' intercultural (or cultural, cross-cultural) learning outcomes (Stone & Petrick, 2013).

Intercultural learning is a process to develop cultural awareness further into cultural sensitivity—a complex of perceptions of cultural difference—and cultural competence—a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately in another cultural context

(Bennett, 2009; Fantini & Tirmizi, 2006). Bennett (1993) proposed the developmental model of intercultural sensitivity to explain how individuals respond to cultural differences and how their responses evolve over time. Such a continuum of increasing sensitivity to cultural differences consists of six stages—denial, defense, minimization, acceptance, adaptation, and integration (Bennett, 1993). In the first three stages, individuals experience and interpret their culture from their own perspectives (ethnocentrism); while in the next three stages, they view both their own culture and other cultures as “relative to context” (ethnorelativism) (Bennett, 1993, 2014). As this model indicates, building intercultural competence is an ongoing, lengthy, and even lifelong process (Fantini, 2000). Thus, an individual is always on the way of becoming more interculturally competent, but may never completely achieve intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2006; Fantini, 2000).

Intercultural competence has long been considered as a complicated construct that is difficult to conceptualize or clearly define (Wolff & Borzikowsky, 2018). Nonetheless, the core components of intercultural competence can be specified based on Bloom et al. (1956)’s three domains of learning outcomes—knowledge (cognitive), attitude (affective), and skills (behavioral) (Meyer-Lee & Evans, 2007; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009). Specifically, attitudes are the foundation of intercultural competence. In particular, an attitude in terms of willingness to “decenter” is crucial, which is to not assume that one’s own values, beliefs, and behaviors are the only possible and naturally correct ones and be able to see with the perspective of an outsider who may have a different set of values, beliefs and behaviors (Byram et al., 2001). Knowledge is another crucial factor of intercultural competence, especially the knowledge of how social groups and social identities function in both the other culture and one’s own (Byram et al., 2001). In terms of skills, three sets of skills are identified as critical to developing intercultural competence: comparing, interpreting, and relating; discovering/obtaining new knowledge, integrating it with existing knowledge, and operating it in real-time interactions; and becoming aware of and critically evaluating the perspectives, values, and practices in one’s own culture and those in other cultures (Byram et al., 2001).

In the context of travel and tourism, significant intercultural learning can take place when tourists experience the shock of crossing cultural borders and engage in in-depth interactions with local people (van’t Klooster et al., 2008). Previous research has especially demonstrated that intergroup contact—such as host-tourist interactions—is one of the most influential

approaches for fostering social tolerance and promoting mutual acceptance of cultural differences under certain conditions (i.e., equal status, cooperation toward common goal, interdependence, and sanctioning by an institution or authority) (Allport, 1956; as cited in Livert, 2016). For example, Livert (2016) investigates a three-week “cook’s tour abroad” in Vietnam participated by a group of U.S. culinary professionals. During the trip, the participants engaged in intensive interactions with the locals—including host families, individual vendors, and small family businesses—through daily acquisition and consumption of food. A strong norm of intergroup engagement was established from the commencement of the program through such key activities as collaborating with Vietnamese chefs and planning formal dinners, which met many (if not all) of Allport’s optimal conditions for effective host-tourist interactions (Livert, 2016).

Although the current study investigates the effect of short-term study abroad on a broader set of learning outcomes in the affective domain, the findings may be extended to a more focused context of intercultural learning through international educational travel. As prior studies suggest, for educational travel to positively impact on intercultural competence, the organizers or facilitators should encourage the participants to step out of the comfortable in-group bubble and engage with the host culture and people encountered during the trip (Livert, 2016; Ng et al., 2009). Specifically, program organizers should emphasize the value of such experiences and set high-level involvement and personal development as important objectives; design and structure assignments to facilitate interactions with the locals as well as among the group members; and reward the participants who show an initiative to engage and learn (Ng et al., 2009).

In addition, participation in special experiences such as community services during educational travel is also a substantial factor influencing participants’ intercultural learning outcomes; however, researchers have found that such learning only occurs when the learners want to learn and believe that the community service is the right thing to do (McGladdery & Lubbe, 2017). As such, it is important for educational travel programs to debrief the participants and introduce them to important intercultural issues and concepts and relevant learning activities through pre-departure orientation sessions. To realize the largest effect on intercultural competence development, both pre-departure and on-site orientations may be conducted; immersive experiences, intercultural and interpersonal interactions, and critical reflections

should be incorporated into the overall design of the program (Lutterman-Aguilar & Gingerich, 2002; Ng et al., 2009).

6.2 Addressing the Assumptions regarding Study Abroad

For the purpose of the current study, some assumptions about study abroad have been made. The most prominent ones are the following two: 1) study abroad is an institutional practice that will remain in existence; and 2) study abroad is a viable approach to transformative learning. As to the first assumption, the current situation with the ongoing global pandemic (i.e., COVID-19) has again shown that study abroad, as an international-travel-bound behavior, is highly dependent on the broad sociocultural and environmental conditions and can be brought to a halt unexpectedly and indefinitely. Thus, alternatives to study abroad should be established to provide equally beneficial learning experiences for college students. Relatedly, the assumption that participating in study abroad promotes transformative learning needs to be addressed. Based on the results and discussions in previous literature, this section specifies the role of study abroad in the context of transformative learning and alternative approaches to achieving such learning outcomes in higher education settings.

6.2.1 Is Study Abroad Overestimated in the Context of Transformative Learning?

By nature, study abroad involves international travel and experiencing unfamiliar environments and cross-cultural encounters, which could lead to disorienting dilemmas as described by Mezirow (1997) and induce transformative learning outcomes (Strange & Gibson, 2017). However, as mentioned earlier in this dissertation, researchers and educators have realized that students do not automatically gain new perspectives and worldviews in a foreign environment; thus, study abroad is only potentially transformative. As Engle and Engle (2012) point out in their study, a large majority of study abroad participants never fully open themselves to experiencing the new places and people in the culturally different environment; rather, they retreat to their familiar cultural bubbles and rarely take risks to discover the fertile but possibly disconcerting learning space. Therefore, much more intentionality needs to be devoted to the programming of study abroad to purposefully engage the learners and effectively foster a holistic process of transformative learning (Kasworm & Bowles, 2012).

Previous research on study abroad and transformative learning has provided empirical evidence that students attending such programs can engage in critical reflection and examination of one's own and others' assumptions through disruptive experiential events, and eventually achieve new and more inclusive worldviews (Kasworm & Bowles, 2012; Strange & Gibson, 2017). Meanwhile, such learning outcomes are not restricted to a study abroad context. Brock et al. (2012) find that transformative learning can occur in a traditional classroom setting for undergraduate students, especially when the educational techniques encourage five of the 10 transformative learning precursor steps specified by Mezirow (1997)—critical reflection, experiencing disorienting dilemma, trying out new roles, acquiring knowledge/skills to make a change, and building confidence. Brock et al. (2012)'s research also supports the discussions in the educational literature that transformative learning is related to personal maturation and can be fostered as an incremental process. As such, educators should not just “celebrate the sudden ‘a-ha’ type of learning but continue to stimulate the more gradual change of framework that occurs over time” (Brock et al., 2012, p. 4).

Overall, it seems evident that study abroad has the potential to facilitate transformative learning when program components can give rise to students' experience of those precursor phases (the more, the better) as described by Mezirow (1997). Such learning opportunities may be richer and more intense in an international setting, but they are by no means exclusive to study abroad participants. Thus, the dominant role of study abroad in fostering college students' transformative learning may be overestimated to some extent. Domestic travel and intentional curricular/co-curricular approaches in or outside of the classroom are all promising strategies for promoting transformative learning outcomes. The following section discusses these alternatives to study abroad for transformative learning in detail.

6.2.2 Alternative Methods for Transformative Learning

As the COVID-19 pandemic continues to exert an adverse effect on the certainty and safety of international travel and study abroad, educational leaders are provided an opportunity to think about other transformative learning initiatives as alternatives to study abroad experiences. Based on the findings of the present study regarding effective characteristics of short-term study abroad in enhancing students' affective learning outcomes, several alternative methods of

transformative learning are discussed, which can be equally beneficial and more accessible to a larger population of college students.

First, the current study provides implications for developing domestic “study away” programs. The concept of study away is similar to that of study abroad, only that students would travel to and study in a U.S. location different from their place of residence and/or place of home institution (Snodgrass, 2017). The proposed conceptual model of affective learning in short-term study abroad (as shown in Figure 12) can easily be applied to the domestic context and advise educational leaders on the design and implementation of impactful study away programs. Especially, without the language barrier and the need for foreign language learning, the programs can focus on developing experiential learning curricula and enabling cultural immersion and profound social interactions in the host destination through group tours or self-planned trips. The listed five affective learning constructs in the model are by no means exhaustive. Participation in domestic study away may facilitate improvement in some of these outcomes and may also generate gains in other dimensions of affective learning and transformative learning in general, such as increased awareness of social issues and changed beliefs or values regarding civic engagement and social activism.

In addition, activities related to internationalization at home—such as intercultural or global learning extracurricular activities and on-campus interactions between domestic and international students—also provide accessible transformative learning opportunities for more students (Kommers, 2020; Soria & Troisi, 2014). Of particular significance is the integration of international students into the U.S. campus and the facilitation of positive interactions between them and their domestic peers (Lehto et al., 2014). The presence of large and diverse groups of international students should be considered as valuable cultural assets on campus, and HE institutions need to provide systematic interventions to foster intercultural conversations and collaborations among the student body (Lehto et al., 2014). Such efforts of internationalization at home can complement study abroad programs in presenting more equitable access to international learning experiences and helping U.S. undergraduates acquire the attitude, knowledge, and skills needed to compete in today’s global economy.

Another potentially viable approach to transformative learning moves the activities to an online scenario, taking advantage of the immersive environment and instant communications made possible by today’s ubiquitous Internet and novel technologies. For instance, the Erasmus

program of the European Union has developed *Virtual Exchange*, which refers to a set of “sustained, technology-enabled, people-to-people education programs or activities in which constructive communication and interaction takes place between individuals or groups who are geographically separated and/or from different cultural backgrounds, with the support of educators or facilitators” (Erasmus, n.d.). Combining such interpersonal and intercultural dialogues with strategies for critical reflection (e.g., reflective journals, powerful narratives and discussions, action research and collaborative writing projects) (Kasworm & Bowles, 2012), virtual study abroad can afford participants more accessible, flexible, and unique experiences that foster transformative learning. Undoubtedly, it is very important for the educators to facilitate an engaging, safe, and trusting social environment and virtual learning community (Kasworm & Bowles, 2012). Targeted training would be needed to equip educators with the required knowledge and skills to serve as effective virtual study abroad leaders.

6.3 Travel in the Post-Pandemic Era

During the composition of this dissertation, tourism continues to be one of the sectors struck the hardest by the COVID-19 pandemic (Babii & Nadeem, 2021). As the vaccination rate increases and countries start to relax their travel bans and restrictions, post-pandemic travel decisions and tourism behaviors are increasingly discussed with the purpose of guiding the tourism industry toward recovery. Meanwhile, considering the current high-level perceived health threat and fear of travel among the public, another related topic is again raised—can technology-enabled, virtual travel replace tourism? Moreover, in terms of the travel-learning linkage as investigated in this research, will such virtual travel experiences promote similar learning outcomes for tourists as actual travel does? This section discusses these topics in detail.

6.3.1 Can Tourism be Replaced by Virtual Travel?

As early as in the 1990s, scholars have been debating about the possibility that technologies such as virtual reality (VR) can eventually replace actual travel to provide more accessible, cheaper, risk-free, and equally joyful tourism and leisure experiences for people (Cheong, 1995; Musil & Pigel, 1994). VR refers to “a computer-mediated, multisensory experience that serves to facilitate access into dimensions that differ from our own” and attempts

“to replace much or all of the user’s experience of the physical world with synthesized 3D material such as graphics and sound” (Cheong, 1995, p. 418). Utilized for tourism purposes, VR can be advantageous in many ways compared to real travel. For example, VR can simulate any destination/site and modify all variables (e.g., weather conditions) to create a perfect travel experience; people can thus easily visit places that are normally not affordable, less accessible, or simply non-existent in the current reality (e.g., fantasy world, city during an ancient dynasty) (Cheong, 1995; Musil & Pigel, 1994). For tourists, such virtual travel reduces or even eliminates the risks and hassles associated with actually going to a destination or taking part in adventure activities, which can be especially beneficial for those who are unable to travel physically (Cheong, 1995). For tourism destinations and the broader environment, virtual travel can effectively alleviate the negative impacts of tourism on the host society and the natural environment (Cheong, 1995), which is particularly important as natural/cultural preservation and approaches to fight climate change are imperative in today’s global agenda.

Although it seems that travel through VR opens up a promising new landscape, many researchers argue that virtual travel will never be able to completely replace tourism. For instance, Musil and Pigel (1994) point out that VR cannot accurately imitate all the senses and feelings of actually being in nature or a particular destination. As technologies have been advancing since then, there are now commercial VR devices available that can simulate senses other than sight and sound (e.g., touch, smell); however, the technology for a truly immersive, interactive, and multisensory VR experience is at least decades away (Kolitz, 2021). Furthermore, the social nature of tourism would be lost in the form of virtual travel, as spontaneous social interactions and communications with the local people and culture are most likely not possible when traveling through VR (Cheong, 1995; Musil & Pigel, 1994). Thus, the experience of virtual travel would only be a passive observing process instead of a holistic engagement and whole-body involvement—which are the essence of tourism.

Until today, VR and other mixed reality technologies (e.g., augmented reality) have mostly been adopted by destination marketing organizations to assist potential tourists in evaluating and selecting destinations in a more informed manner (e.g., Vishwakarma et al., 2020); to enrich and enhance tourist experience in a destination, especially in cultural heritage sites, museums, and smart cities (Loureiro et al., 2020); and to facilitate meaningful visitor engagement and offer a “second chance” to deteriorating or inherently fragile destinations/sites

(Bec et al., 2021). The risks (or opportunities) of VR becoming a substitute for travel still seem to be inconsiderable in the near future. Especially, as virtual travel requires many wearable devices (which would be shared facilities in a commercial setting) and presents few social benefits, its adoption might be more challenging in the post-pandemic era with tourists' demand for higher hygiene standards and yearning for social interactions and the human touch.

6.3.2 Revisiting the Travel-Learning Linkage

As the results of the current study along with those of previous research consistently indicate, meaningful or deep learning through travel occurs when tourists experience a highly authentic and immersive host environment (including landscape, culture, and people), are constantly exposed to challenging situations and new information, and actively engage in critical reflections and inter-/intra-group interactions. In the context of virtual travel, such conditions have to be intentionally designed and incorporated into the experience for tourists to gain learning outcomes, since the basic form of destination simulation through sight-and-sound VR would render very limited learning opportunities. In other words, virtual travelers need to become active participants rather than passive observers in order to learn anything from the travel experience.

Researchers and educators have explored the opportunities and challenges of learning in a virtual setting. For example, Penfold (2009) describes the adoption of *Second Life*—a virtual world platform—as an innovative teaching and learning tool for college students majoring in hospitality and tourism management. Through carefully designed learning activities (e.g., role play as hotel staff and guests) and real-world simulations (e.g., virtual field trips), the students enjoyed an interactive and fun learning experience (Penfold, 2009). In another context that is similar to the virtual study abroad program as mentioned earlier, Durko and Martens (2021) demonstrate the value of virtual face-to-face interactions and other online collaborative projects for students from different countries in providing organic learning of cultures and destinations and helping students develop higher-level cultural competence. In both studies, the importance of continuous and integrated reflection and communications—either between students from different groups or between students and teachers (i.e., facilitators)—was highlighted as key to learning from virtual immersion (Durko & Martens, 2021; Penfold, 2009).

Virtual museums and exhibitions are another setting where learning through virtual travel can be investigated. It has been a trend for museums worldwide to digitize and archive their collections in electronic databases for public retrieval through the Internet (Jang & Lien, 2014). A common and efficient approach for combining such virtual museum-going with education is game-based learning (or serious gaming), which, by utilizing contemporary visualization and simulation technologies, can enhance user engagement, promote concentration in the problem-solving and learning activities, and contribute to knowledge acquisition and self-development (Kiourt et al., 2016).

Technological applications as mentioned above undoubtedly show potential in promoting virtual travel and learning; however, they also pose many issues and challenges for both educators and learners, such as higher costs in terms of technical infrastructure and IT support, intellectual property issues, data security, as well as personal safety and mental health of learners (Musil & Pigel, 1994; Penfold, 2009). As such, there is still a long way to go before learning through virtual travel can become a viable alternative to actually traveling to gain knowledge/skills and broaden the mind.

6.4 Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations that warrant attention. First, the population of the study was limited to the students from one Midwestern university who self-selected to participate in a short-term study abroad program offered by the university. Although the target population was considered as representative of the U.S. undergraduate study abroad participants at large, the results should be interpreted and generalized with caution when considering HE institutions with vastly different student populations and study abroad offerings. Moreover, the study sample consists of only those students who volunteered to participate in this research, which may indicate a mindset or attitudinal disposition different from those who chose to not participate in the study, and can thus lead to biased results. This potential issue may be solved by seeking the support of educational institutions or study abroad providers to conduct comprehensive outcome assessments on all the study abroad participants in a certain term (Terzuolo, 2016).

In addition, this study was designed without a non-study abroad comparison group. Although the absence of a control group does not inhibit the achievement of the research objectives of this study, future studies can examine the differences in affective learning outcomes

between a group of short-term study abroad students and another group of students who participate only in tourism activities during the same term. Such a design may further shed light on the connections between study abroad and tourism as well as between travel and learning.

The data collection and analysis of this study also bear some limitations. As mentioned in Chapter 3, it was not feasible to maintain a uniform time gap between the program end date and post-program survey administration for all the participants. Since differences in the time gap may result in students' different responses and influence the final results and conclusions, future research of multiple study abroad programs should strive to administer the survey questionnaire with the same timing or to record and include the different time gaps in the data analysis and clarify the potential impact of such differences.

Furthermore, this study was not able to obtain sufficient pre-post matching data at the individual level for using paired t-tests to determine if there is a significant difference in students' affective learning before and after study abroad participation. Although conducting one-way ANOVA (equivalent to independent-sample t-tests) in this study served the purpose as well, paired observations should be collected in future research as they can more accurately detect differences in which a researcher is interested (Zimmerman, 1997). Additionally, the current data analysis did not account for the impact of students' demographic variables on their affective learning outcomes. While the main purpose of this study is not to specify how study abroad participants' personal characteristics are associated with their affective learning, certain demographic variables (e.g., gender, ethnicity/race, household income, academic major) can be influential and warrant further investigations in future research.

In regard to the results, some fundamental program characteristics examined in this study did not demonstrate statistically significant correlations with participants' affective learning, such as the subject area of program (Art/Social/Humanities vs. other), host destination (representing the cultural distance to the U.S.), and accommodation type. This does not mean that such characteristics are irrelevant, though. Future studies may obtain larger samples to increase the statistical power of the tests, and may also consider alternative ways of defining and operationalizing these program characteristic variables (Terzuolo, 2016).

Moreover, some negative correlations revealed in the results call for further examination in future research, as no straightforward explanations can be provided within the scope of the current study. Specifically, the learning outcome of *environmental attitudes* was negatively

impacted by program duration and participation in intercultural learning activities, and *perspectives on global interdependence* was negatively associated with participation in nature-based tourism activities during study abroad. Assuming that such results are meaningful and reflect real effects (rather than merely being statistically significant), it is valuable to investigate these correlations in more focused contexts. For example, future research may assess students' environmental attitudes after attending a short-term study abroad program that focuses on subjects and issues related to the natural environment. Researchers may examine how certain program characteristics influence this affective learning outcome and investigate whether/how other outcomes (e.g., global/intercultural perspectives and attitudes) are impacted by participation in such a themed program.

To summarize, the current study is largely explanatory in that it investigates the correlations between short-term study abroad components and participating students' affective learning outcomes. Meanwhile, the study also has an exploratory facet, as the segregation of the formal education component and the travel component of study abroad as well as their respective impacts on student learning have never been examined in the extant study abroad research. Moreover, identifying, categorizing, and assembling survey scales to measure the major affective learning outcomes based on Krathwohl et al. (1964)'s affective taxonomy may also be considered as of an exploratory nature. As such, myriad research opportunities can be pursued along these lines to further understand affective learning in the study abroad context. In addition to the five salient affective learning outcomes examined in this study, researchers may also look into the impact of short-term study abroad and intercultural experiences alike on other dimensions of participants' learning, such as enhancing creativity and facilitating an innovative mindset. Further advancement of theoretical conceptualization and empirical verification of learning outcomes in the affective domain can be derived from these lines of research.

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APPENDIX A. PRE-DEPARTURE SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Dear Students,

We are pleased to invite you to participate in a study that aims to better understand the benefits of short-term study abroad programs and help improve program design and student experience. The study includes a two-stage online survey questionnaire. We are looking for undergraduate students who are at least 18 years of age, and are participating in a Summer 2019 study abroad program (approved by the Study Abroad Office).

If you are interested, please click on the link below to read a consent form and decide if you would like to participate in the study. This is the first part of the survey, which takes about 10 minutes to complete and should be done before (or shortly after) your study abroad program starts.

https://purdue.ca1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_cSAy7rCiEi6RXCJ

Thank you very much for your time and consideration. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to email me.

Best regards,

Xueting (Katherine) Dou | PhD Student
School of Hospitality & Tourism Management
College of Health and Human Sciences
Graduate Assistant | Office of Study Abroad

Dr. Alei Fan | Assistant Professor
School of Hospitality & Tourism Management
College of Health and Human Sciences

1. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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I think of myself, not only as a citizen of my country, but also as a citizen of the world.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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One's own and others' specific local actions can impact on global systems.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I feel a strong sense of connection with the worldwide human family.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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2. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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I enjoy when my friends from other cultures teach me about our cultural differences.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I reserve judgement during interactions with people who are culturally different from me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I enjoy trying to understand people's behavior in the context of their culture.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Please select "Disagree" for this question.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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3. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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4. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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I enjoy having discussions with people whose ideas and values are different from my own.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I enjoy taking courses that challenge my beliefs and values.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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I consider it important to have contacts with individuals whose background (e.g., race, national origin, sexual orientation) is different from my own.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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The courses I enjoy the most are those that make me think about things from a different perspective.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Please select "Strongly disagree" for this question.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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5. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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The so-called "ecological crisis" facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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6. What is your gender?

☐ Male
 ☐ Female
 ☐ Prefer not to say

7. What is your age? (in years, e.g., 24) _____

8. What is your ethnicity?

☐ Caucasian – Non-Hispanic
 ☐ African American
 ☐ Hispanic/Latino
☐ Asian
 ☐ American Indian, Alaskan, Hawaiian, or Pacific Islander
 ☐ Others

9. What is your current class level?

- ☐ Freshmen
- ☐ Sophomore
- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Senior
- ☐ Recent college graduate/graduate student

10. What is the subject area of your major?

- ☐ Agriculture and Natural Resources
- ☐ Art and Humanities
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Communications or Journalism
- ☐ Education or Social Work
- ☐ Engineering
- ☐ Health and Medical Professions
- ☐ Sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Computer Science, Mathematics, Physics, Statistics, etc.)
- ☐ Social Science
- ☐ Technology ☐ Other Field

11. Are you considered an international student in the U.S.?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

12. What is your email address? (for the purpose of matching pre- and post-program survey responses)

APPENDIX B. POST-PROGRAM SURVEY INSTRUMENT

Dear Students,

You may remember that we invited you to participate in a study that aims to better understand the benefits of short-term study abroad programs and help improve program design and student experience. This is the second stage of the online survey questionnaire. We are looking for undergraduate students who are at least 18 years of age, and have participated in a Summer 2019 study abroad program (approved by the Study Abroad Office).

If you are interested, please click on the link below to read a consent form and decide if you would like to participate in the study. This survey will takes about 13 minutes to complete.

https://purdue.ca1.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_elYAvp0q77jnObb

Thank you very much for your time and consideration. If you have any questions or concerns, please feel free to email me.

Best regards,

Xueting (Katherine) Dou | PhD Student
School of Hospitality & Tourism Management
College of Health and Human Sciences
Graduate Assistant | Office of Study Abroad

Dr. Alei Fan | Assistant Professor
School of Hospitality & Tourism Management
College of Health and Human Sciences

1. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
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We are approaching the limit of the number of people the earth can support.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Humans have the right to modify the natural environment to suit their needs.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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When humans interfere with nature, it often produces disastrous consequences.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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The earth has plenty of natural resources if we just learn how to develop them.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Despite our special abilities, humans are still subject to the laws of nature.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

The so-called “ecological crisis” facing humankind has been greatly exaggerated.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

The balance of nature is very delicate and easily upset.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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Humans will eventually learn enough about how nature works to be able to control it.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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2. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
-------------------	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	-------	----------------

I enjoy having discussions with people whose ideas and values are different from my own.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I enjoy taking courses that challenge my beliefs and values.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I consider it important to have contacts with individuals whose background (e.g., race, national origin, sexual orientation) is different from my own.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

The courses I enjoy the most are those that make me think about things from a different perspective.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

Please select "Strongly disagree" for this question.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

3. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
-------------------	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	-------	----------------

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

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I often think about the kind of world we are creating for future generations.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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One's own and others' specific local actions can impact on global systems.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I feel a strong sense of connection with the worldwide human family.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

4. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
-------------------	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	-------	----------------

I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

Please select "Disagree" for this question.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

5. Please indicate to what extent you agree with the following statements:

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
-------------------	----------	-------------------	----------------------------	----------------	-------	----------------

I enjoy when my friends from other cultures teach me about our cultural differences.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I reserve judgement during interactions with people who are culturally different from me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

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

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------

I generally find it stimulating to spend an evening talking with people from another culture.

<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
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[Attention Page]

Please reflect on the short-term study abroad program you recently participated in, and answer the following questions.

6. What was the main subject area of the courses (or other academic activities) taken during your study abroad?

- ☐ Agriculture and Natural Resources
- ☐ Art and Humanities
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Communications or Journalism
- ☐ Education or Social Work
- ☐ Engineering
- ☐ Health and Medical Professions
- ☐ Sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Computer Science, Mathematics, Physics, Statistics, etc.)
- ☐ Social Science
- ☐ Technology
- ☐ Other Field

7. What was the main language of instruction (except for language courses) during your study abroad?

- ☐ English
- ☐ Non-English

8. Did you take a course (including language workshops) to learn the host country language before/during your study abroad? (please answer NO if the host country language is also English)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

9. What was the academic context of *in-classroom studies* during your study abroad?

- ☐ I took classes with other students in my study abroad program ONLY

- ☐ I took classes with other study abroad students (including those from other programs) ONLY
- ☐ I took classes with host university students
- ☐ Not applicable (no in-classroom studies during my study abroad)

10. How often did you participate in ANY of the following *major/course-related, outside-of-classroom activities* during your study abroad?

- Internship, Field work/expedition (course-related, NOT for leisure/tourism), Practical training, Community work/volunteering, Industry visits, etc.
- ☐ Always (It's the focus of my study abroad program)
 - ☐ Sometimes (It's part of my study abroad program)
 - ☐ Never (The major/course-related part of my study abroad program is mainly in-classroom learning activities)

11. How often did you participate in ANY of the following *courses or activities explicitly intended to develop intercultural competence or help with your cultural adaptation* during your study abroad?

- Cultural courses/workshops, Orientations, Mentoring by on-site faculty/staff, Paired with a host country or host university "buddy," etc.
- ☐ Always (Throughout my study abroad program)
 - ☐ Sometimes (Pre-program, and/or occasionally during my study abroad program)
 - ☐ Never (I did not attend, or my study abroad program did not offer any of these cultural courses/activities)

12. How often did you interact with host country/university students, faculty, staff, or professionals during your study abroad?

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Very often
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Rarely

☐ Never

13. How often did you reflect upon your study abroad experiences through writing or journaling (on paper or online; as required by the program or voluntarily) during your study abroad?

☐ Always

☐ Very often

☐ Sometimes

☐ Rarely

☐ Never

14. In which region did your study abroad program take place?

☐ Africa

☐ Asia

☐ Australia/New Zealand

☐ Europe

☐ Latin America

☐ Middle East

☐ North America and the Caribbean

15. How long was the duration of your study abroad program?

☐ Less than 14 days

☐ More than 14 days but less than 6 weeks

☐ More than 6 weeks

16. What was the major type of housing you chose during your study abroad?

☐ Homestay/host family

☐ Dormitory/apartment shared with host country/university students

- ☐ Dormitory/apartment shared with other study abroad students
- ☐ I lived alone (i.e., no shared space; no interaction with other people)

17. How were the travel-related logistics (e.g., booking flight tickets, preparing travel documents, etc.) managed before/during your study abroad?

- ☐ Mostly by the program leader/study abroad staff
- ☐ Mostly by my parents/other family members
- ☐ Mostly done with other study abroad students
- ☐ Mostly by myself

18. What type of travel did you do for leisure/tourism (i.e., for non-academic purposes) during your study abroad? Please choose all that apply.

- ☐ Program-organized group excursions
- ☐ Package tour
- ☐ Independent travel with other people
- ☐ Independent travel by myself (i.e., solo travel)
- ☐ Visit family/friends
- ☐ I didn't travel for leisure/tourism during the program

19. What were the major tourism activities you engaged in during your study abroad? Please choose all that apply.

- ☐ Sightseeing/city tour
- ☐ Visit cultural/historical sites, go to museums/art galleries, or attend cultural events
- ☐ Go to the beach/resort/theme park/night club, etc.
- ☐ Visit nature-based tourism destinations (e.g., national park, wildlife sanctuary, etc.)
- ☐ Engage in outdoor activities (e.g., hiking, bicycling, skiing, sailing, etc.)

- ☐ Shopping
- ☐ I didn't travel for leisure/tourism during the program

20. How often did you interact with *local people* (e.g., residents, service providers, etc.) during your study abroad?

- ☐ Always
- ☐ Very often
- ☐ Sometimes
- ☐ Rarely
- ☐ Never

21. What is your gender?

- ☐ Male ☐ Female ☐ Prefer not to say

22. What is your age? (in years, e.g., 24) _____

23. What is your ethnicity?

- ☐ Caucasian – Non-Hispanic ☐ African American ☐ Hispanic/Latino
- ☐ Asian ☐ American Indian, Alaskan, Hawaiian, or Pacific Islander ☐ Others

24. What is your current class level?

- ☐ Freshmen
- ☐ Sophomore
- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Senior
- ☐ Recent college graduate/graduate student

25. What is the subject area of your major?

- ☐ Agriculture and Natural Resources
- ☐ Art and Humanities
- ☐ Business
- ☐ Communications or Journalism
- ☐ Education or Social Work
- ☐ Engineering
- ☐ Health and Medical Professions
- ☐ Sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Computer Science, Mathematics, Physics, Statistics, etc.)
- ☐ Social Science
- ☐ Technology ☐ Other Field

26. Are you considered an international student in the U.S.?

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

27. What is your email address? (for the purpose of matching pre- and post-program survey responses)

28. Would you like to participate in a focus group to talk more about your study abroad experience? If answered YES, you will be contacted later via email.

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

APPENDIX C. MIMIC MODELS TESTED

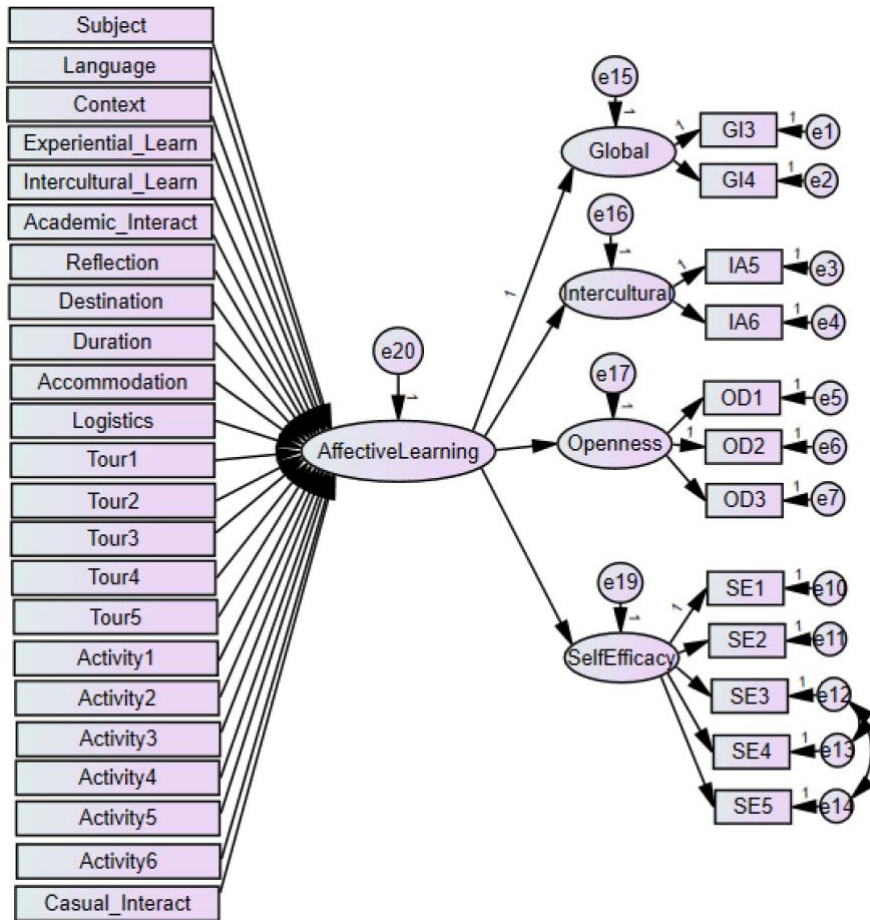


Figure C.1. MIMIC model 1.

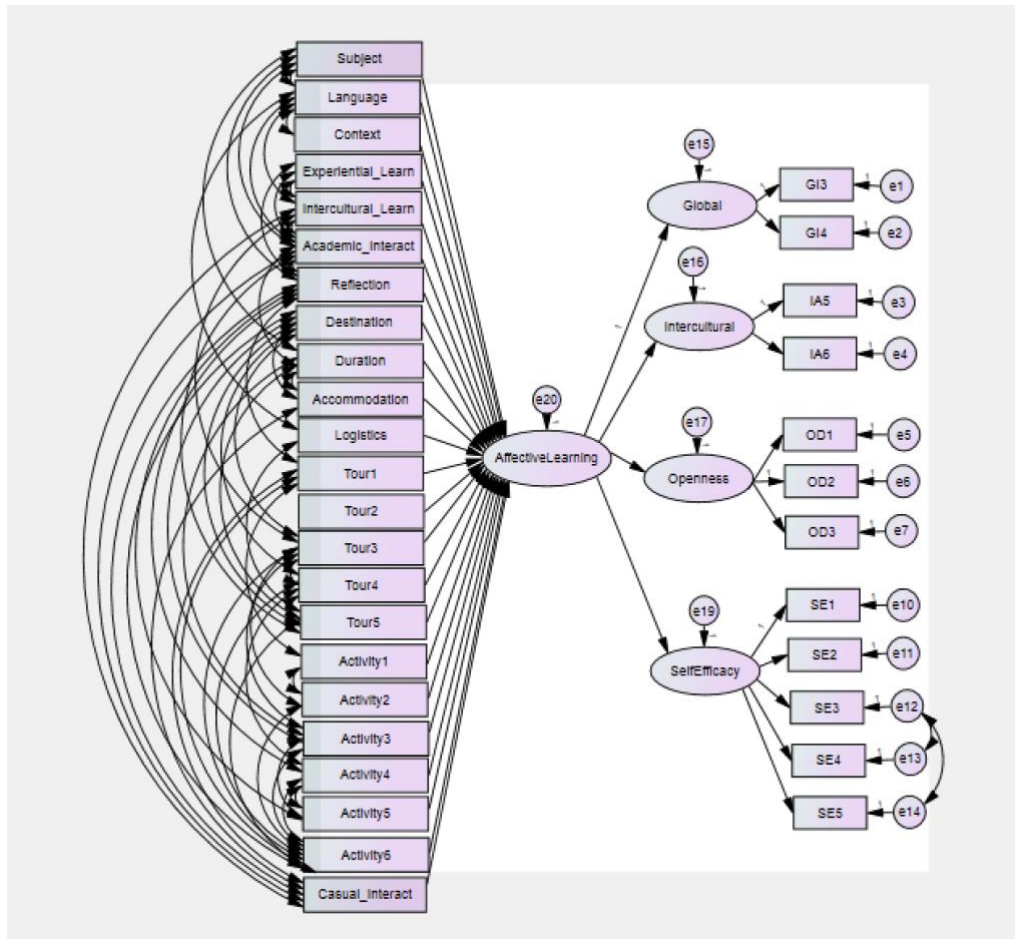


Figure C.2. MIMIC model 2.

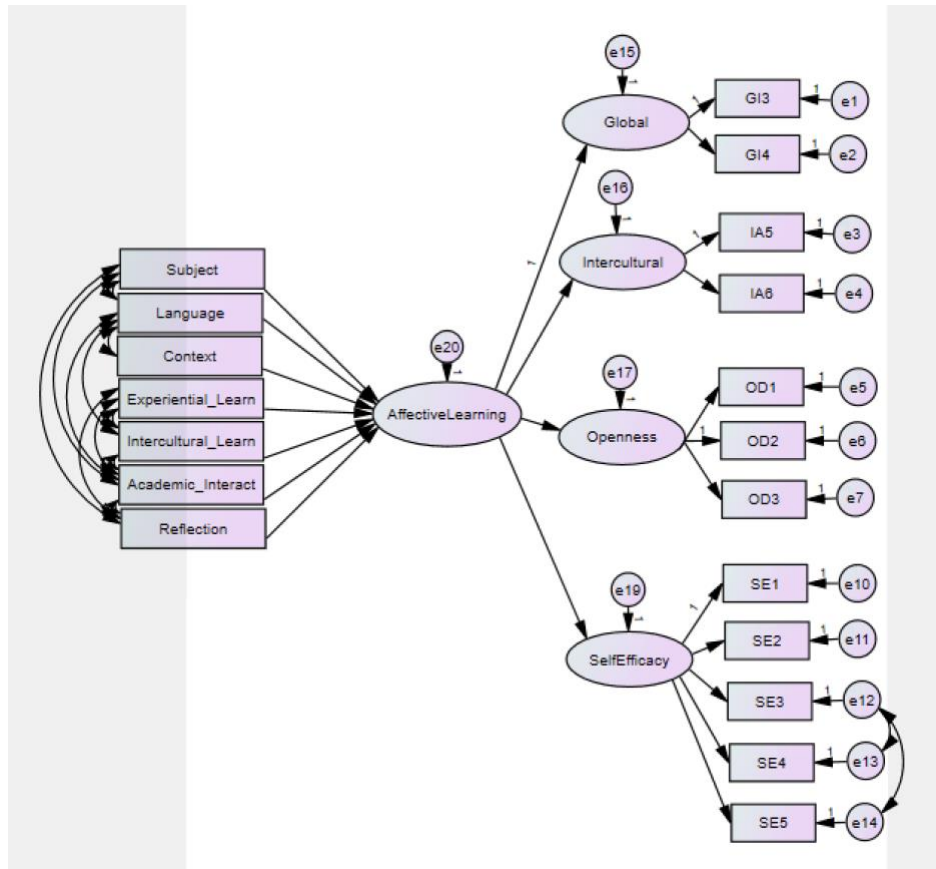


Figure C.3. MIMIC model 3.

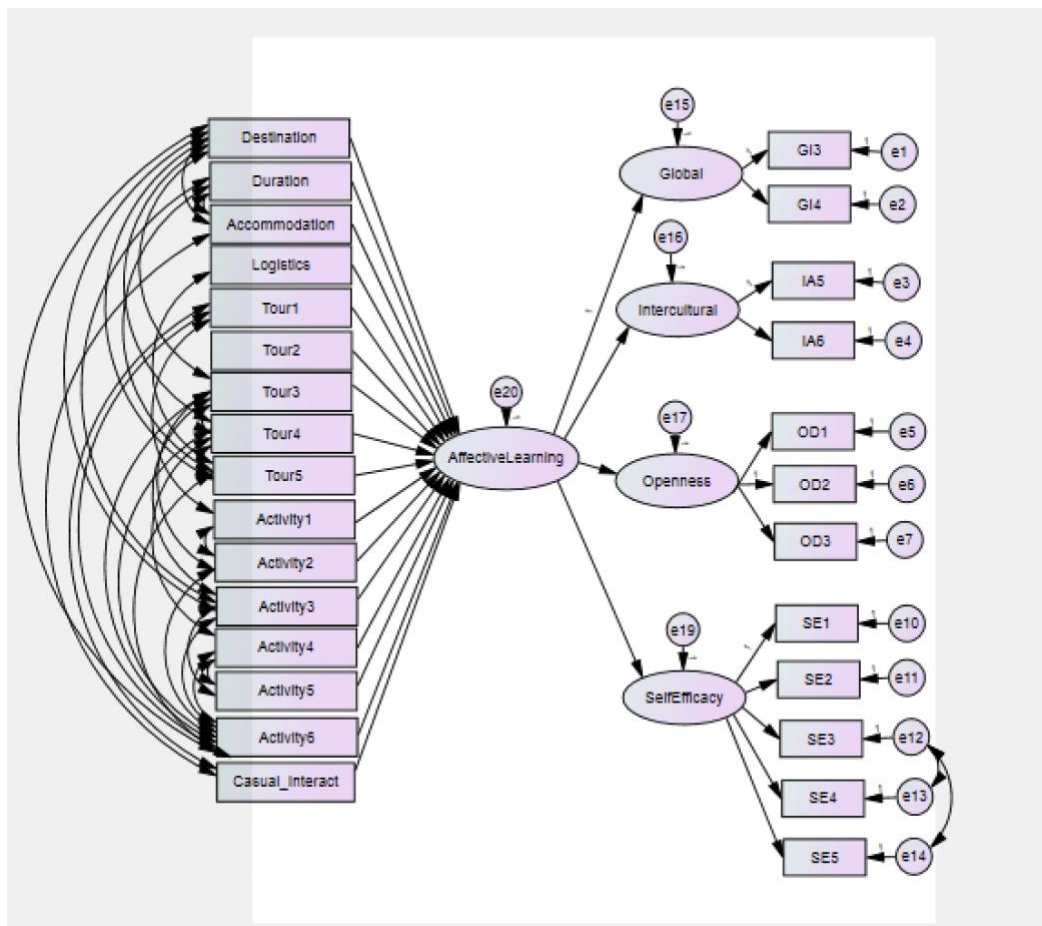


Figure C.4. MIMIC model 4.

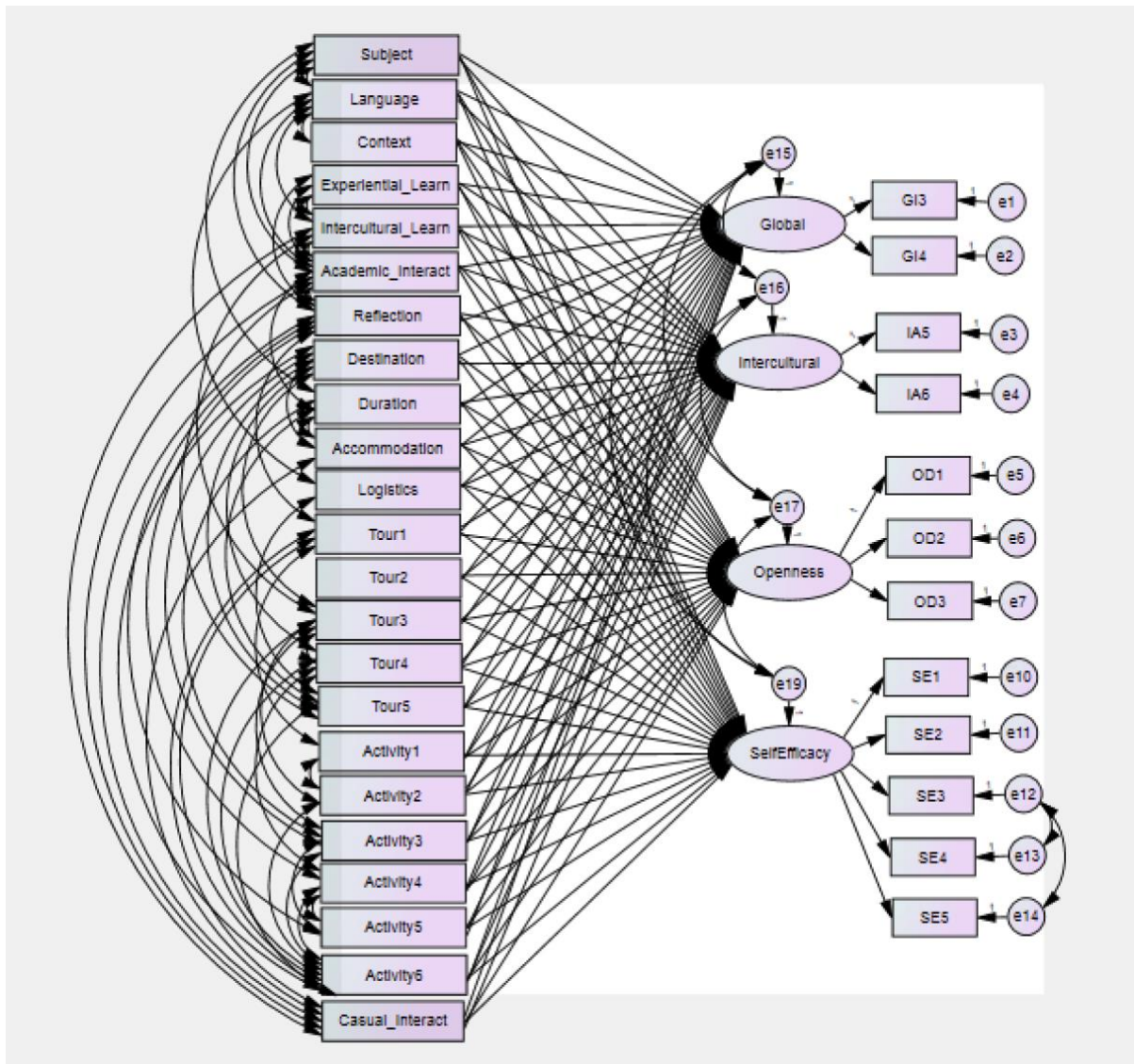


Figure C.5. MIMIC model 5.

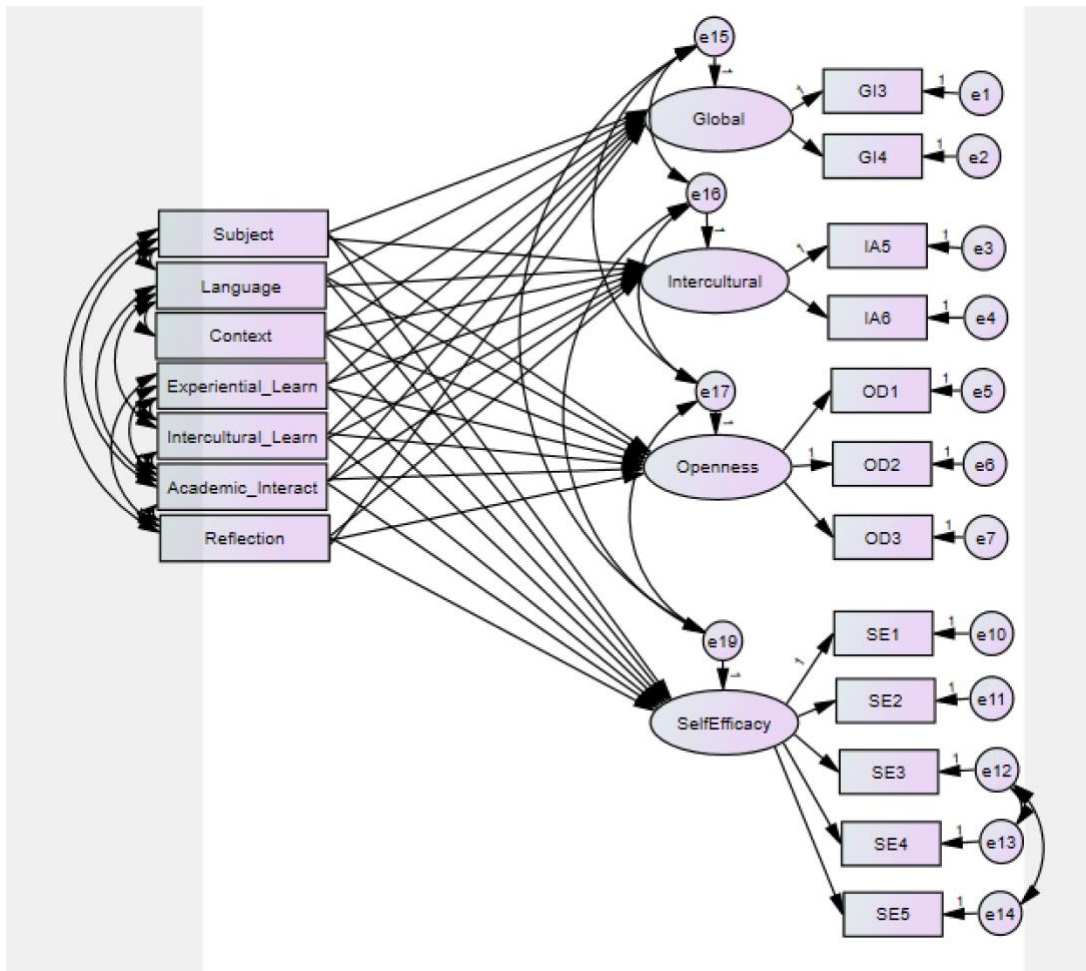


Figure C.6. MIMIC model 6.

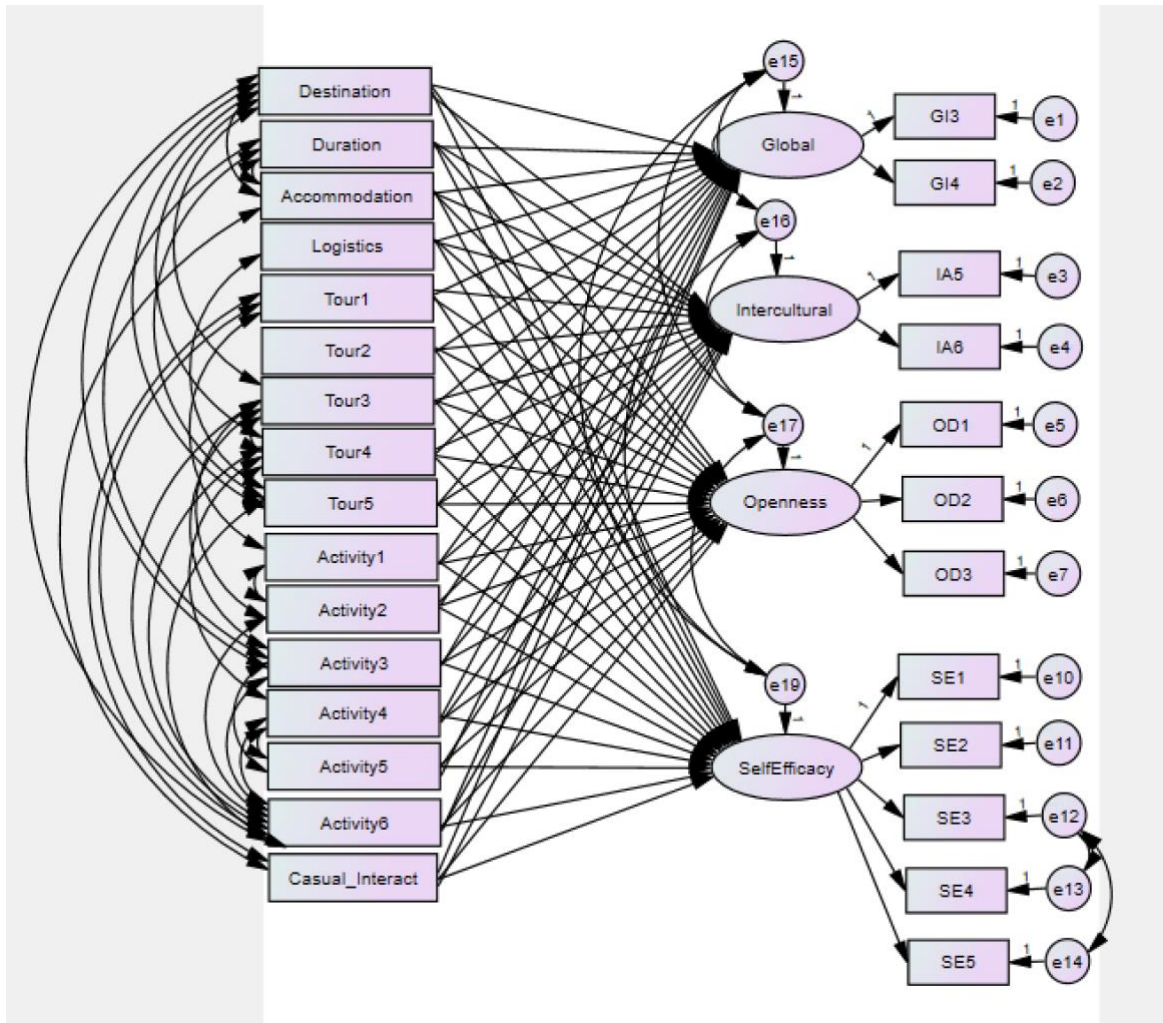


Figure C.7. MIMIC model 7.