UNIVERSITÀ CATTOLICA DEL SACRO CUORE
Sede di Milano
Dottorato di ricerca in Scienze della Persona e della Formazione
Ciclo XXXIV
S.S.D. M-PED/04

The Impact of Short-Term Study Abroad on Online Learners

Coordinatore:
Ch.mo Prof. Antonella Marchetti
(firma in originale del Coordinatore)

Tesi di Dottorato di:

Jennifer A. Malerich

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ABSTRACT

Very little is known about the impact of study abroad programs on online learners. Study abroad is a well-established internationalization strategy with a long history in traditional, in-person higher education. Given that online learners increasingly participate in higher education worldwide and in study abroad, it is necessary to understand this population more fully within the context of study abroad. In this study, online learners were students who took classes exclusively online prior to participating in an in-person study abroad experience. In-person immersion students in this study represented on-campus learners. Although a significant body of research exists on short-term study abroad for in-person students, there is little to no research on how study abroad impacts online students. This study is the first of its kind to investigate this traditional internationalization activity for this specific student audience.

This mixed-methods research documented the academic and demographic characteristics of a sample of online and in-person immersion students participating in short-term, faculty-led study abroad; their study abroad motivations and expectations; and how the experience changed their beliefs, attitudes, and values. Three sets of quantitative data were examined. Using descriptive statistics and ANOVA tests, 17 academic and demographic variables were analyzed to understand fully the characteristics of online and in-person learners participating in study abroad. Study abroad motivations and expectations were considered through pre-and post-program surveys based on the theory of planned behavior. The Mann-Whitney *U* test was used to understand differences in the survey data between groups across four constructs: personal growth, academic goals, career goals, and family expectations. To address the third research question, students' beliefs, attitudes, and values pre- and post-program were assessed using the Beliefs, Events, and Values Inventory (BEVI), a standardized psychometric assessment. Results were analyzed using descriptive statistics, *t*-

tests, and multiple regression analysis. Qualitative data from semistructured interviews of returned online study abroad students were collected concurrently with quantitative data. The qualitative data supported the quantitative data by personalizing the student experience, providing student voices to help expand upon and explain the quantitative results.

This study suggests both quantitative similarities and differences across academic and demographic characteristics of online and in-person study abroad students. Qualitative data documented online study abroad students' intersectional identities and identified real and perceived barriers to study abroad. Although online and in-person students reported similar motivations and expectations for study abroad going into the experience, the self-reported survey data suggest significant differences in personal growth, academic goals, and career goals constructs after study abroad for online students as a group. In the qualitative data, online study abroad students placed substantial importance on in-person interaction with students and faculty, the value of experiential learning, and the immediate career applicability of learnings. BEVI results identified significant differences in the prior and current lived experiences of online and in-person study abroad students that contributed to online students' abilities to cope with intercultural environments that challenged their beliefs and values.

This study clearly reveals study abroad is not only a viable internationalization strategy for online students; it is a unique transformative learning opportunity for many within this population. Study abroad has the potential to help online students experience personal growth and develop a changed worldview, discover an academic identity, cultivate academic relationships, and connect global learnings to career goals. Additionally, this study contributes to the understanding of online learning as a method to expand access to higher education to learners who bring diverse experiences, beliefs, and values to the educational community, thus contributing to learning for all students in new and exciting ways.

Keywords: study abroad; online education; blended learning; learning outcome; internationalization; self; change; values; assessment

ABSTRACT

L'impatto dei programmi di studio all'estero sugli studenti online è un ambito di ricerca ancora poco studiato. Lo studio all'estero è una strategia di internazionalizzazione ben consolidata, con alle spalle una lunga tradizione nell'istruzione superiore classica e in presenza. Dato che gli studenti online prendono parte sempre più spesso a programmi di istruzione superiore e di studi all'estero, è necessario comprendere meglio questa popolazione nel contesto degli studi all'estero.

Nel presente contributo, ci si riferisce a “studenti online” per indicare studenti che hanno frequentato lezioni esclusivamente online prima di partecipare a un'esperienza di studio all'estero di persona. Con “studenti in presenza” ci si riferisce invece a studenti che hanno frequentato fisicamente il campus universitario in prima persona. Sebbene esistano numerose ricerche sui soggiorni di studio all'estero di breve durata per gli studenti in presenza, l’impatto dello studio all’estero sugli studenti online è stato raramente oggetto di ricerca o non lo è affatto. Questo studio è il primo nel suo genere a indagare questa tradizionale attività di internazionalizzazione per questo specifico pubblico di studenti.

Questa ricerca a metodo misto ha documentato le caratteristiche accademiche e demografiche di un campione di studenti online e in presenza che hanno partecipato a un periodo di studio all'estero di breve durata guidato da una facoltà, le loro motivazioni e aspettative per lo studio all'estero, e come l'esperienza ha cambiato i loro valori, atteggiamenti e convinzioni.

Sono state esaminate tre serie di dati quantitativi. Utilizzando statistiche descrittive e test ANOVA, sono state analizzate 17 variabili accademiche e demografiche per comprendere appieno le caratteristiche degli studenti online e in presenza che partecipano a un soggiorno di studio all'estero. Le motivazioni e le aspettative per lo studio all'estero sono state prese in considerazione attraverso sondaggi pre e post programma basati sulla teoria del comportamento

pianificato. Il test U di Mann-Whitney è stato utilizzato per comprendere le differenze tra i dati del sondaggio e i quattro costrutti: crescita personale, obiettivi accademici, obiettivi di carriera e aspettative familiari. Per rispondere alla terza domanda di ricerca, le convinzioni, gli atteggiamenti e i valori degli studenti prima e dopo il programma sono stati valutati utilizzando il *Beliefs*, *Events*, *and Values Inventory* (BEVI), una valutazione psicometrica standardizzata. I risultati sono stati analizzati utilizzando statistiche descrittive, t-test e analisi di regressione multipla. I dati qualitativi, ricavati da interviste semistrutturate a studenti online rientrati dall'estero, sono stati raccolti in concomitanza con i dati quantitativi. I dati qualitativi hanno supportato quelli quantitativi grazie alla personalizzazione dell'esperienza degli studenti, dando loro voce così che aiutassero a precisare, approfondire e spiegare i risultati quantitativi.

Questo studio suggerisce sia somiglianze sia differenze quantitative tra le caratteristiche accademiche e demografiche degli studenti all'estero online e in presenza. I dati qualitativi hanno documentato le identità trasversali degli studenti online e hanno identificato le barriere reali e percepite rispetto allo studio all'estero.

Sebbene approcciandosi all'esperienza di studio all'estero gli studenti online e in presenza abbiano riferito motivazioni e aspettative simili, i dati del sondaggio auto-riferito suggeriscono differenze significative nella crescita personale, negli obiettivi accademici e nella costruzioni di obiettivi di carriera dopo il periodo di studio all'estero per gli studenti online considerati come gruppo.

Nei dati qualitativi, gli studenti online all'estero hanno attribuito una notevole importanza all'interazione personale con studenti e docenti, al valore dell'apprendimento esperienziale e all'applicabilità immediata nel mondo del lavoro di quanto appreso. I risultati del BEVI hanno identificato differenze significative nelle esperienze pregresse e attuali vissute all'estero dagli studenti online e in presenza: esperienze che hanno contribuito alla capacità

degli studenti online di affrontare ambienti interculturali mettendo in discussione le loro convinzioni e i loro valori.

Questa ricerca rivela chiaramente che lo studio all'estero non è solo una valida strategia di internazionalizzazione per gli studenti online, ma anche un'opportunità di apprendimento unica e trasformativa per molti di loro. Lo studio all'estero ha il potenziale di aiutare gli studenti online a sperimentare una crescita personale e a sviluppare una nuova visione del mondo, a scoprire un'identità accademica, a coltivare relazioni accademiche e a collegare le conoscenze globali agli obiettivi di carriera.

Inoltre, il presente lavoro contribuisce alla comprensione dell'apprendimento online come metodo per estendere l'accesso all'istruzione superiore a studenti che apportano diversi valori, esperienze e credenze alla comunità educativa, contribuendo così in modi nuovi ed entusiasmanti all’esperienza di formazione per tutti gli studenti.

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CHAPTER 1 – INTRODUCTION

Higher education is experiencing significant structural change worldwide. The global knowledge economy has forced higher education to focus on producing master learners who can apply concepts of inquiry, critical thinking skills, and disciplinary knowledge to solve problems known and yet unknown. Higher education internationalization activities, popularly accepted as responses to globalization, have created a global swirl of students, faculty, and ideas, the significance of which is now competing with increased xenophobia and rising nationalist and populist politics. Simultaneously, the value of the traditional undergraduate degree has come under attack due to rising costs and questions regarding its direct connection to employability.

The global COVID-19 health crisis has caused a worldwide revolution in teaching and learning in which the importance and effectiveness of in-person and online instruction has been questioned by students, faculty, and administrators. The consequences of this forced experiment in emergency remote learning and social isolation will not be known for many years. Results of several recent surveys, however, provide some clues as to how higher education institutions (HEIs) worldwide are responding.

One of these surveys, a recent Association of American Colleges & Universities (2021) survey of HEIs in the United States found implementing online learning technologies; improving student retention and graduation rates; and improving campus diversity, equity, and inclusion are all top strategic priorities. Among the 4–year public institutions that responded, reported action strategies for achieving those priorities include supporting student success by scaling high-impact practices (e.g., study abroad and undergraduate research) and expanding global learning opportunities in which diverse perspectives collaboratively analyze complex problems. A separate survey of HEIs in 109 countries conducted by the International Association of Universities (IAU, 2020) found many HEIs are reporting an increased

capacity for online learning and exploration of hybrid or blended learning possibilities, mixing synchronous and asynchronous learning. Concerning global learning specifically, respondents reported increased virtual mobility or collaborative online learning since the onset of the pandemic (Marinoni et al., 2020). Another survey of 57 U.S. HEIs found two thirds had recently added online global learning programs, and just under half indicated online global learning would be central to their diversity, equity, and inclusion efforts moving forward (Ogden et al., 2021).

Even before the pandemic, students were turning to online learning for a variety of reasons, including convenience and access, in countries such as the United States, the United Kingdom, South Africa, China, and India. As increasing numbers of students enroll in online classes, there are many questions about how to support, generally, their learning and development, and specifically, their global learning. Partially due to circumstances outside our control, higher education is being forced to take a hard look at the value of online education and how it can be mobilized to educate all members of society effectively. During this critical moment, higher education must be intentional about bringing global learning into online classrooms and the lives of online students. It is the intersection of traditional international education and the fluidity of online learning and online learners that this study seeks to investigate.

Problem and Purpose of Study

Given that online learners represent a growing number of students within higher education worldwide, questions remain as to how to translate internationalization concepts into specific and actionable strategies for this student population. Study abroad is one such accepted internationalization strategy with a long history in the context of traditional, in-person higher education. At my institution, Arizona State University (ASU), I have observed increasing numbers of online students participating in in-person study abroad over the last

decade. Although a significant body of research exists on short-term study abroad for in-person students, to my knowledge, there is little to no research on how study abroad impacts online students. This study is the first of its kind to investigate this traditional internationalization activity for this specific nontraditional student audience.

This research aimed to explore characteristics of online students more fully in the United States choosing to participate in short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs; why they choose to study abroad; and how studying abroad might impact them in distinct ways. To this end, this study investigated how online and in-person immersion study abroad students compared across multiple academic and demographic variables; study abroad motivations and expectations; and how the experience changed their beliefs, attitudes, and values. This study also considered short-term study abroad program design to identify specific features online students need and want. I systematically analyzed quantitative and qualitative data for 221 online and 1,133 in-person immersion students participating in 77 short-term, faculty-led ASU study abroad programs during the Spring and Summer 2019 terms. These programs ranged from 1–8 weeks in length throughout locations in Europe, Asia, the Middle East, and South and Central America.

This research is important and timely for practice and policy. With the understanding advanced by this research, I intend to contribute to the discussion on how to support online students' academic and personal growth and develop specific international education and higher education design strategies for online student success. As online teaching and learning become increasingly recognized as important, necessary, and beneficial in the global educational discussion, this research highlights the importance of diverse perspectives and experiences in increasing the depth and quality of our learning communities.

Dissertation Structure

This dissertation is organized into seven chapters. Following this introductory chapter, the second chapter reviews existing literature on the internationalization of higher education, online education and online students, short-term study abroad structure student participation, student motivations for study abroad, and study abroad outcomes. The third chapter is dedicated to the methodology used to conduct this convergent mixed-methods approach, where quantitative and qualitative data collected in a single phase were used to confirm and corroborate findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A separate results and analysis chapter follows for each of the three research questions, presenting and discussing the significance of quantitative and qualitative findings for the particular research question. Chapter 4 assesses 17 quantitative academic and demographic variables to explore differences and similarities across online and in-person immersion study abroad cohorts. Chapter 5 uses survey data to consider study abroad motivations and expectations of both cohorts through the theoretical lens of the theory of planned behavior. Chapter 6 examines student beliefs and values using a standardized assessment at the pre- and post-program stages. Qualitative data from online student interviews are woven throughout the three results and analysis chapters to add color and context to the quantitative findings. Finally, Chapter 7 discusses the study's overall findings, implications, and contributions to scholarship within the context of international education and higher education more broadly. In this final chapter, ideas for future research are also considered.

CHAPTER 2 – LITERATURE REVIEW

This study was framed by several bodies of knowledge that informed my research questions about online students participating in short-term study abroad experiences; who they are; and their motivations, expectations, and outcomes. This section begins with the contextual setting of the problem and is followed by a discussion of the historical context of the internationalization of higher education, online education, and short-term study abroad as internationalization tools. Then, the role of social selectivity in study abroad participation and study abroad intent is discussed. This is followed by a review of study abroad outcomes. As over 175 different sources are cited in this chapter, a table of resources organized by topic can be found in Appendix A.

The Problem Setting

Higher education internationalization has been popularly accepted in many national contexts. Within higher education worldwide, discussions have centered on the need to develop global-ready graduates prepared to be successful in a workforce that is increasingly global, interdependent, and reliant on technology (Carey, 2018; Roksa et al., 2016). In Europe, the ERASMUS scheme and the Bologna Process demonstrate pan-European commitment to internationalization at the national level (de Wit et al., 2015). Australia has drafted a national-level internationalization strategy focused on inclusion and social and cultural diversity (Engel & Siczek, 2018). In Asia, several supranational initiatives have been developed to promote regional student exchange and cooperation among universities (de Wit et al., 2015).

In the United States, the setting of this research, higher education institutional mission statements and strategic plans call for global citizenship and intercultural competencies (American Council on Education [ACE], 2017; J. Jackson, 2008). At the same time, internationalization confronts populist politics, concerns surrounding immigration, loss of

cultural and economic competitiveness (Rhoades, 2017), and xenophobic fears and competition for resources to address equity and diversity within national populations (Hudzik et al., 2016). For example, a recent survey conducted by the ACE found although most of the U.S. public feels international students make a meaningful contribution to higher education, they also fear replacing domestic students in the classrooms (Fischer, 2021). The Association of American Colleges & Universities has even questioned whether higher education's efforts to advance global citizenship are un-American (Doscher & Landorf, 2018). It is within this complex cultural environment within the United States that this study is situated.

Study abroad traditionally has been one strategy higher education in the United States has employed to provide students with intercultural competencies and global experiences. Before the global COVID-19 pandemic, student mobility through study abroad was receiving increased attention by U.S. higher education institutions (HEIs) as a primary method of internationalization (ACE, 2017). The Institute of International Education's (IIE) 2020 Open Doors report found over 347,099 American students studied abroad in the 2018–2019 academic year. However, study abroad has been criticized as a highly selective activity and a vehicle for exacerbating horizontal inequalities in higher education and transferring them to the labor market (Netz et al., 2020). This criticism has remained constant even as numerous initiatives support study abroad growth and diversification, such as intentional program design, diversity programming, and scholarships targeting traditionally underrepresented students (Metzger, 2006). A growing body of research demonstrates study abroad has a long way to go to become normative outside specific socioeconomic and professional strata (Petzold & Peter, 2015) and has even been criticized as being "committed to the symbolic production of elite status" (Altun, 2021, p. 24).

Internationalization of Higher Education

Higher education historically has been an international activity with students and scholars moving across borders. During the formative period of higher education in Europe, the use of Latin as the lingua franca and consistent curricula and examinations allowed academic credentials and qualifications to be recognized across the continent (Blight et al., 2003). Today, modern travel and the internet facilitate the instantaneous flow of people and ideas across physical and virtual borders (Hudzik, 2011). This growing mobility also gives students a greater choice when considering their options for higher education (Knight et al., 2020), driving global competition for the best minds while presenting tension between institutions' international and local missions. The reconfiguration of education supply and diversification of demand shifts the paradigm of higher education internationalization agendas and economies (Coates, 2020).

Although similar, internationalization is distinct and different from globalization. Altbach and Knight (2007) defined globalization as "economic, political and societal forces pushing twenty-first century higher education toward greater international involvement" (p. 290). This merging and interaction of multiple cultures is "driven by desires for economic and political gain, a zeal for spreading faith, ideology and culture, and a quest for new knowledge" (Gürüz, 2011, p. 1). Others defined globalization as a homogenization of culture (Blight et al., 2003) brought on specifically by the dominance of Western culture at the expense of others (Maringe et al., 2013).

On the other hand, internationalization is a process of change integrating international dimensions and perspectives (de Wit, 2002) into all an institution's activities, culture, and organizational structures (Blight et al., 2003). Internationalization is often seen as the choices an institution makes in response to the pressures of globalization (Altbach & Knight, 2007; Maringe et al., 2013). Although rationales vary by stakeholder, four primary rationales are

cited for pursuing internationalization: political, economic, academic, and cultural/social (de Wit, 2002). Hudzik (2014) further defined rationales for 21st century internationalization as a series of four drivers: customer service, social responsibility, core mission, and globalization. Additional inclusive rationales for internationalization include humanistic, which considers higher education a public good aligned with civil and human rights and social justice; and societal, which aligns higher education and international activities with social responsibilities such as religious extremism, poverty, and food insecurity (DeLaquil, 2019). Examples of internationalization strategies and activities include student and faculty mobility, internationalization of the curriculum, international and global initiatives, global networking at conferences, research and scholarship in languages and area studies (Maringe et al., 2013), offshore and distance education, international technical assistance and training, and providing international student support services (Blight et al., 2003).

Institutions have different missions, starting points, rationales, and goals that influence the internationalization strategies chosen. As the competition for relevancy within higher education institutions has shifted to a global stage, so must internationalization activities shift from singular activities to comprehensive integration into all the key areas of the institution. Comprehensive internationalization is a conceptional and operational organizing framework in which internationalization strategies are pervasively embedded throughout all levels of an institution (Hudzik, 2011). Successful comprehensive internationalization strategies include clear and consistent leadership from the highest levels, widespread faculty engagement, and well-defined and measurable goals and intended outcomes (Hudzik, 2011). Rather than a means to an end, comprehensive internationalization strategies are aspirational goals related to mainstreaming, integrating, expanding, and interconnecting internationalization activities across all realms of the institution (Hudzik, 2014). Again, there is no uniform path to comprehensive internationalization; it is individual

to the goals of the institution. However, comprehensive internationalization represents a fundamental change to how and why an institution conducts the functions at its very core: teaching, research, and service (Blight et al., 2003). The recent addition of the internationalization for society rationale believes comprehensive internationalization should be driven beyond the campus borders to benefit stakeholders in both the global and local communities by focusing higher education's core activities to contributing to society at large (Brandenberg et al., 2019). This conceptual move toward more inclusive comprehensive internationalization rationales and strategies recognizes internationalization activities may be unintentionally reproducing social inequalities and disparities and therefore should be carefully considered (Janebova & Johnstone, 2021). To remain relevant, the future of internationalization activities must impact global and local communities intentionally and purposefully in enacting meaningful and beneficial change (Brandenberg et al., 2019).

Online Education and Online Students

At the same time, U.S. HEIs are seeking to address the intercultural competencies of their graduates, the profile of U.S. higher education students is changing. After years of increasing enrollment, the U.S. higher education system experienced a drop in enrollment of over 1 million students, or 6.4%, between 2012 and 2016 (Seaman et al., 2018). This directly contrasts with the 2.7% in annual growth in the decade leading up to 2012 (Allen & Seaman, 2017). Since then, there have been modest increases in enrollment, much of which has been driven by populations previously underrepresented in higher education. The total number of undergraduate students enrolled full-time in 2018 was approximately 10.3 million, with an additional 6.3 million students enrolled part-time (Renn & Reason, 2021). Multiple projections, however, suggest undergraduate enrollment in the United States will decline or at least plateau starting in 2025 due to a national population decrease in university-age cohorts (Renn & Reason, 2021).

Not only are overall enrollments decreasing, but also fewer students are choosing to attend classes on campus, sit in a classroom, and interact with their instructor face to face. In the United States alone, higher education students taking at least one online course grew from 9.6% of total enrollments in 2002 (Allen & Seaman, 2017) to 31.6% of total enrollments in 2016 (Seaman et al., 2018). A more recent report placed the figure of students taking at least one online course prior to the pandemic closer to 44% (Renn & Reason, 2021). Although the percentage of U.S. HEIs offering fully online degrees has increased to over 60% (Ortagus, 2017), graduation rates in fully online degrees is only approximately 6% at U.S. public HEIs and 33% at private, for-profit institutions (Renn & Reason, 2021). This suggests more students are choosing to blend online and in-person learning rather than pursue all their classes online, even as more HEIs offer fully online degree programs, or this suggests lower student success and graduation rates in degree programs taken completely online.

Online education in the context of this research comprises courses in which most or all the content is delivered through internet-based technologies; there are no in-person interactions with other students or instructors. Before the global pandemic, critics argued HEIs pursued global online education only to improve their revenue stream and bottom line as financial support for higher education decreased (Rovai & Downey, 2010). Fears about misplaced educational values led to concerns that online learning may serve as a replacement for the physical campus, creating a bifurcated system of "brick universities" and "click universities" (Gürüz, 2011). In 2022, with the almost ubiquitous use of video conferencing technologies and the integration of digital tools in all aspects of teaching and learning, the importance of online learning, in providing educational access and opportunities to both local and global populations, has been recognized. As increasing numbers of students participate in higher education solely through online learning, this growing population must not be left out of the benefits of internationalization. To achieve comprehensive internationalization, as

Hudzik (2011) envisaged, all students and all courses, whether in-person or online, must be included in the internationalization strategies of HEIs.

Online students are a more heterogeneous population regarding age, work experience, family status, and educational motivations (Angelino et al., 2007; Ke & Kwak, 2013; Ortagus, 2017) than the typical 18- to 22-year-old in-person immersion student historically studied in higher education (Tinto, 1975, 1993). Past studies have focused on online students' intrinsic motivations for learning, independence, and autonomy compared to in-person immersion students (Cupitt & Golshan, 2015; Wighting et al., 2008). Often, online education provides low-barrier access to higher education for disadvantaged students (Cupitt & Golshan, 2015; Jaggers, 2014). The convenience, flexibility, and self-paced workload of online education can make this delivery modality convenient and accessible for older, working, postsecondary students who may also be parents or in the military (Dutton et al., 2002; Ortagus, 2017). Certainly, caution should be used when generalizing behavior patterns between the two groups due to differences in characteristics (Beck & Milligan, 2014; Ortagus, 2017). Arguments have been made that because online students operate in a diverse community of students with different educational and cultural backgrounds, the online learning environment may help students more readily develop global competencies centered around flexibility, considering other points of view and perspectives, and collaborating in multicultural teams (Gunawardena, 2014; Khan et al., 2017). Conflicting studies have argued online classrooms are not so ethnically diverse, finding non-White students are less likely to enroll in online education than White students (Jaggers, 2014; Ortagus, 2017). Even with all the emphasis placed on global enrollment, fewer than 10 higher education institutions in the United States enroll more than 1,000 online students from outside the country, and most online students live in the same state as their institution (Seaman et al., 2018).

Regardless of the physical distance, online students do not come to a physical campus where they can be influenced by more traditional internationalization strategies, such as interacting in-person with a community of diverse international students and faculty. In fact, one study found online students rank face-to-face contact with the instructor or students of low importance in choosing online courses (Dutton et al., 2002). Development of and interaction within a community has been consistently valued in higher education as "essential to support [the] collaborative learning and discourse associated with higher levels of learning" (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007, p. 158). It is becoming increasingly popular to discuss the efficacy of online learning through the community of inquiry (COI) framework (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007; Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Shea et al., 2015). The COI framework states higher levels of learning through critical discourse and reflective thinking are enhanced through the simultaneous existence of three elements—social, teaching, and cognitive presence. Foundations of the COI framework can be found in the work of Dewey and are consistent with constructivist approaches to learning in higher education (Dziuban et al., 2016; Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007; Shea et al., 2015). Critics still maintain that, even if online courses do provide the flexibility students need, the online COI is insufficient to replace the face-to-face interaction of an on-campus community (Jaggers, 2014); therefore, online students may feel less invested in their education (McMurtie, 2017).

In addition to drawing on the diversity in online classrooms, online programs could turn to such curriculum internationalization techniques as online international learning. Coventry University defines online international learning as a virtual mobility experience involving internet-based dialogue between students and peers at international partner universities (Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2016). Other terms popularized for similar techniques are "online intercultural exchange," "globally networked learning," "virtual mobility," and "virtual internationalization," and, in the United States, "collaborative online international

learning" (de Wit, 2013; Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal, 2016). Online international learning can be a strategic part of an institution's comprehensive internationalization strategy for online and in-person immersion students alike, as it "combines the four essential dimensions of real virtual mobility: it is a collaborative exercise of teachers and students; it makes use of online technology and interaction; it has potential international dimensions; and it is integrated into the learning process" (de Wit, 2013, para. 9). No matter the name, these online techniques for internationalizing the curriculum are important, not only because they require students and faculty from both institutions to work together in a way that is not required with physical exchange (de Wit, 2013), but also because they provide opportunities for those students who are place-bound to have an international experience.

The demand for online learning is not just a U.S. phenomenon. Online learning, and its predecessor, distance education, have long been strategies for increasing the scale and scope of higher education worldwide (Blight et al., 2003; Gürüz, 2011). HEIs in areas such Africa (African Virtual University, n.d.; M. Anderson, 2015; Habib et al., 2020; University of South Africa, 2018), the Caribbean (The St. Kitts Nevis Observer Story Editor, 2020), China (Docebo, 2017; Li, 2021), India (Niazi, 2021), and the United Kingdom (Coleman, 2014; Gürüz, 2011; Open University, n.d.) have also embraced online education.

Whatever the delivery modality, higher education continues to play a crucial role worldwide in developing the human capital necessary to participate in the global knowledge economy. There is excess capacity in higher education in universities in the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand and unmet demand in areas in Asia and Africa for training and education (Blight et al., 2003; IIE, 2017; Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, 2017). In this period of rapid growth in global higher education, much of the growth will be concentrated in online education. Given that online students represent a growing number of students in higher education worldwide,

questions remain about translating internationalization concepts into practical and effective actions for this specific student population. This study contributes to this discussion.

Short-Term Study Abroad

Study abroad has historically provided undergraduate students an overseas academic or cultural experience (Altbach & Knight, 2007). Study abroad is also an individual student-level example of internationalization activities supported by institutions (Hudzik, 2014). Initial growth in study abroad in the United States occurred during the first 20 years of the 20th century, driven by a rationale for peace and mutual understanding and supported by the development of institutional exchanges and private foundations such as the IIE (de Wit, 2002). Targeted outcomes for students at this time were linguistic and cross-cultural development primarily, as study abroad was intended to enrich and diversify the undergraduate experience (Hoffa, 2007). In the first part of the 20th century, U.S. study abroad programs took three general forms: (a) the junior year abroad, (b) the extended faculty-led study tour, or (c) theme- or discipline-specific summer study (Hoffa, 2007). For many decades, study abroad remained an opportunity primarily for White women studying in their 3rd year at private liberal arts colleges (Hoffa & DePaul, 2010). However, partially in response to the attacks of September 11, 2001, the U.S. Congress established the Abraham Lincoln Study Abroad Commission to develop goals for democratizing study abroad by 2017, including sending at least 1 million undergraduate students abroad yearly (Durbin, 2006). In 2014, after reporting the number of U.S. students studying abroad had increased to only 283,332 students in the 2011–2011 academic year (IIE, 2013), IIE (2015) created the Generation Study Abroad movement to double and diversify the number of U.S. undergraduates studying abroad. Even supported by policy and public relations initiatives

such as these and others, only 347,099 American students studied abroad in the 2018–2019 academic year (IIE, 2020b).

Faced with continual pressure to increase the numbers of students studying abroad, and address persistent social selectivity issues related to study abroad participation, U.S. higher education institutions have continually sought to remove barriers and increase study abroad participation. Many turned to short-term programming to meet those goals. Short-term programs are popular, appealing to students who cannot commit to longer term programs due to professional or personal commitments, those who need more affordable options, or fear longer term programs would cause them to fall behind academically (P. H. Anderson et al., 2006; Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004, 2009; Donnelly-Smith, 2009; Gaia, 2015; Goldstein, 2022). Before the 1993–1994 academic year, IIE's Open Doors report did not report participation in study abroad programs shorter than 8 weeks in length, an outward representation of the bias among international educators for the preference for study abroad programs at least a semester in length. By 1995–1996, participation in short-term study abroad (programs 2–8 weeks in length) was measured at 3.5% of total study abroad participation (T. M. Davis, 1996). By 2018–2019, that figure had jumped to 64% of overall study abroad participation by students in the United States (IIE, 2020a). Indeed, academic year or calendar year travel during that same period only represented 2.3% of the overall study abroad students, clearly illustrating students' preference for the short-term model.

Increasingly standardized in operation, many models for short-term programs exist across the field (Donnelly-Smith, 2009) and can be categorized by combining length with intended academic and competency-based outcomes (Engle & Engle, 2003). Models for short-term programs include the embedded model, involving longer term exposure to the academic content such as a semester-length academic course followed by a short-term onsite experience, or the self-contained model, where the entirety of the academic content is

contained within the onsite experience (Donnelly-Smith, 2009; Gaia, 2015; Niehaus & Wegener, 2018). Programs may be designed to allow students to gain in-depth information and knowledge about a single course topic, host site, language, or culture, or as a program that travels between multiple locations, providing less in-depth time and content per site but with the added benefit of potentially increasing student interest in course topics, locations, and cultures (Engle & Engle, 2003; Sachau et al., 2010). Short-term programs are offered over the summer, between semesters, or during semester breaks (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2009; Donnelly-Smith, 2009). Whatever the model, like the programs included in this study, many short-term programs are led by faculty from the student's home institution, giving that institution the benefit of exercising control of the program's academic content, aligning study abroad with faculty's research interests, and integrating experiential learning activities (Donnelly-Smith, 2009; Gaia, 2015; Goldstein, 2022; Hoffa & DePaul, 2010).

Historically, short-term programs have been intended to appeal to the broadest demographic of students by requiring relatively little in the way of prior linguistic and cultural knowledge (Engle & Engle, 2003). Once a criticism, this broad appeal is an essential benefit of the model. Shorter term study abroad may entice 1st- or 2nd-year students to a more extended program later in their academic career, give nonlanguage majors basic language competency, increase overall global awareness, or provide disciplinary content from a trusted faculty member (Gaia, 2015). Short-term programs have been characterized as a method to democratize the study abroad experience and diversify the student body that participates in demographics and academic disciplines (Goldstein, 2022; Hoffa & DePaul, 2010). Indeed, the rise in popularity of short-term programs corresponds with the increased participation by students historically underrepresented in study abroad populations (Goldstein, 2022; Niehaus & Wegener, 2018). This study contributes to the literature on

short-term study abroad programs by assessing the characteristics of student participants, their motivations for participating, and the learning outcomes.

Selectivity and Study Abroad

To get beyond the rhetoric of diversity in study abroad, there is great value in considering social selectivity in study abroad and how it may reinforce and contribute to horizontal inequality. Inequitable access to and participation in higher education has long been identified as vertical inequality or the circumstances in which people of specific characteristics or backgrounds have less opportunity (Naylor & Mifsud, 2019). Alternatively, horizontal inequity considers inequities among culturally defined groups, such as races, ethnic groups, and individuals with specific behavioral patterns. As an important part of identity, and specifically intersectional identity (Crenshaw, 1991), group membership is fluid and can be defined either internally or externally. Group membership in this context matters, as an individual's well-being often is affected by how society organizes around and behaves toward groups (Stewart, 2009).

As vertical inequality in access to higher education has been reduced (Lörz et al., 2016), albeit nowhere near eradicated, there is evidence to suggest students with higher socioeconomic status have turned to study abroad and other international education activities to differentiate themselves from the masses within the labor market (Di Pietro, 2020). Although some research suggested study abroad participation was less influenced by this need for distinction than whole-degree mobility (Brooks & Waters, 2021), many students and their families consider study abroad a vehicle to increase employability by investing in valuable skill-building activities, thus giving new graduates a competitive advantage in the labor market (Predovic et al., 2021; Van Mol et al., 2021). As such, study abroad could help strengthen the labor market position of advantaged students compared to disadvantaged students, thus transferring inequity from the educational systems to the workplace (Di Pietro,

2020; Netz & Finger, 2016). Alternatively, increasing access to study abroad could improve the employment prospects of especially disadvantaged students by helping them to develop skills and competencies they otherwise would not have had the opportunity to develop (Di Pietro, 2020). Although horizontal inequalities within greater society have declined, with great regional variation, over the last approximately 50 years, due to government policies and intervention (Canelas & Gisselquist, 2018), research has shown no decline in social inequalities in study abroad participation and every indication of a growing gap (Di Pietro, 2020; Netz et al., 2021; Netz & Finger, 2016).

To understand the true nature of social selectivity in study abroad, consider participation in light of various social and academic characteristics. Past research has considered such variables as gender (Cordua & Netz, 2021; Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Lingo, 2019; Netz, 2021; Salisbury et al., 2010; Van Mol, 2021), age (Di Pietro, 2020; Di Pietro & Page, 2008; Netz et al., 2021), and socioeconomic status (Di Pietro, 2020; Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Lingo, 2019; Lörz et al., 2016; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015a; Pascarella et al., 2004; Pungas et al., 2015; Rausch, 2017; Van Mol, 2021).

International educators have long recognized the imbalance between genders in study abroad participation. Women are generally overrepresented in study abroad populations in Australia, the United States, and many European countries (Netz et al., 2021). Indeed, historical data on U.S. study abroad students over the last 2 decades demonstrated a greater than 60:40 ratio comparing female to male participants (IIE, 2022). Although many studies have referenced the historical origins of study abroad in The Grand Tour for women when considering the reasons behind this phenomenon (Hoffa, 2007), several have considered other factors. Using a comprehensive theoretical framework based on social role theory of sex differences, cognitive development theory, new home economics, and statistical discrimination theory, Corduna and Netz (2021) identified women as more likely than men to

intend to study abroad due to gender-specific interest profiles, educational performance, and labor market orientation. This study found the gender gap in study abroad intent was greater in high socioeconomic profiles compared to women from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. The authors concluded women from higher socioeconomic backgrounds felt their behavior was less constrained by traditional gender roles compared to women from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. In this study, women were more likely to choose fields related to study abroad or where skills obtained on study abroad, such as language skills and intercultural skills, are valued more highly. This view was also supported by Kim and Lawrence (2021) and Salisbury et al. (2010) who found men were less likely to have strong study abroad intentions and be enrolled in academic majors less friendly to study abroad. Using Dutch Student Monitor data, Van Mol (2021) confirmed women were more likely to study abroad, even when controlling for the overrepresentation of women in disciplines associated with study abroad participation. Lingo (2019) also suggested women experience the benefits of study abroad more often than men, which is correlated with greater study abroad intentions.

Few studies have considered study abroad access from the perspective of the relationship between age and study abroad participation. In one such study on study abroad participation among students in Italy and France, Di Peitro and Page (2008) found age to be a factor in France but not in Italy. This may have been associated with a greater social culture of mobility among older students or greater access to the finances to fund the experience. However, using student data between the 2000s and mid-2010s from Italy, France, and Germany, Di Pietro (2020) did not find age to be a factor in study abroad participation. Netz et al. (2021) posited the dearth of studies considering age and study abroad participation may be due to the narrow age range associated with the traditional undergraduate student who typically studies abroad. They concluded age is more applicable in contexts considering

students not enrolling in higher education immediately after completion of secondary school or countries with a strong lifelong learning tradition. This point is particularly salient within the context of this study, as online students are implicitly nontraditional in their pathway to higher education, including the gap between secondary and higher education and therefore their age.

The academic history of the family and the student's own academic performance are important factors in study abroad participation. There is a strong association between parental academic level and study abroad. In the United States, there has been a particular focus on access to study abroad for first-generation or first-in-family students as way of curbing horizontal inequity in higher education and promoting global skill building activities (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Pascarella et al., 2004; Rausch, 2017). Van Mol (2021) highlighted the importance of maternal education level on educational outcomes for children, indicating the higher the education level of the mother, the more likely the study abroad participation of the children. Pungas et al. (2015) referred to this as "cross-generational transmission of aspirations" (p. 2385), a particular form of social and mobility capital. Even when study abroad intent at the start of college was held constant, students whose parents held advanced degrees were more likely to study abroad (Lingo, 2019). Lörz et al. (2016) posited the strong association may be due to the differing academic pathways ultimately chosen by students from different social backgrounds. These pathways may manifest in the choice between a vocational or traditional higher education institution (Di Pietro, 2020), the student's choice of major or academic discipline (Di Pietro, 2020; Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Lörz et al., 2016), language of instruction (Pungas et al., 2015), and intentions toward obtaining a graduate degree (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015).

Another salient socioeconomic factor correlated with access to study abroad is ethnicity. Although some studies have identified no impact of ethnicity on intent to study

abroad (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Salisbury et al., 2009), minority students have reported concerns connected to encountering racism and discrimination abroad (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Quan, 2018; J. Simon & Ainsworth, 2012). African American students in J. Simon and Ainsworth's (2012) study even characterized study abroad as a White thing to do. This may be due to a lack of exposure to study abroad by minority students through marketing materials and conversations with faculty and academic advising staff (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021) or other significant barriers to participation overriding study abroad intent and desire (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015). Considering minority students, Estonia Pungas et al. (2015) identified a positive correlation between international mobility and minority student status, citing an increased openness to difference and recognition of the benefits to study abroad outcomes. In contrast, Salisbury et al. (2011) found openness to diversity was not correlated with study abroad intent for Asian American and African American students. The authors posited this may have been because minority students were navigating difference in their everyday lives to a greater extent than White students.

Questions surrounding financial costs have been explored in connection to study abroad access. In a 2016 study of Australian students, Jones et al. (2016) found costs were the primary reason students did not study abroad. L. C. Wang et al. (2016) cited the importance of scholarships and financial aid, finding students more likely to participate if they felt less concerned about finances and more confident with the program's career benefits. Whatley (2017) supported the concept that study abroad is affordable only by some, finding a positive effect on study abroad participation associated with grant funding and a negative effect associated with loans, expected family contribution, and overall financial need. The type of financial assistance available to students is as important as the amount when considering the social selectivity of study abroad. Students with higher socioeconomic status were found to have more access to merit-based funding in the form of exclusive, academic scholarships in

Netz and Finger's (2016) study of German students. This often leaves students with lower, but not the lowest, financial resources to find alternate ways to fund their experiences such as personal fundraising, loans, or using credit, and students with higher socioeconomic status turn to family for financial help (J. Simon & Ainsworth, 2012).

Both financial and social costs are like factors in the increased popularity of short-term programs (Janda, 2016). Students have reported specific concerns about taking time off work to study abroad and the lost wages time off would represent (Vernon, 2017). In Kim and Lawrence's study (2021), the need to work while in college was associated negatively with intent to study abroad, as was family income. Stroud (2010) encouraged future research on the interplay between work intensity, familial financial responsibilities, and motivation to study abroad, citing many students may be working to pay for their education and support and care for a family.

To address concerns about social selectivity and the role of study abroad in perpetuating or exacerbating horizontal inequalities, it is essential to develop equitable, not equal, access to study abroad opportunities for diverse students. Accessibility, a systems-based approach to changing systems to be more responsive to the needs of diverse populations, is in direct contrast to accommodation, which addresses programmatic changes for individuals in response to their specific needs (Janebova & Johnstone, 2021). None of the studies reviewed for this literature review considered the aspect of access to study abroad for online students. As online education is one way to increase access to higher education, study abroad could have an important role in decreasing horizontal inequalities within this specific population, or it could have the opposite effect and instead contribute to widening the gap between traditional in-person student populations and this nontraditional population.

Student Motivations for Study Abroad

Predicting intention to participate in study abroad was found to be a critical factor for administrators involved in planning and marketing study abroad programs (Schnusenberg et al., 2012). Understanding and tying student motivations and expectations to the deliberate planning of short-term study abroad programs to ensure intended outcomes are possible is perhaps even more critical due to their compressed time frame (Ramakrishna et al., 2016). As higher education student populations become more diverse, specific student contexts in understanding study abroad motivations and expectations become increasingly salient (Salisbury et al., 2009). A variety of rational choice theories (H. A. Simon, 1955) have been applied to research higher education to understand student decision making. Specifically, regarding study abroad, rational choice theories can be conceptualized as decisions related to associated costs and benefits of study abroad participation (Lörz et al., 2016). Two such rational choice theories that appear frequently in the literature on intent to study abroad are the theory of planned behavior (Goel et al., 2010; Nguyet, 2021; Petzold & Peter, 2015; Presley et al., 2010; Ramakrishna et al., 2016; Schnusenberg et al., 2012; Zhuang et al., 2015) and the integrated student choice model (Lingo, 2019; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Salisbury et al., 2009, 2010). Rational choice theories demonstrate decision making is not done in a vacuum but rather is informed and influenced by "pre-existing societal structures underpinned by fundamental inequalities" (Brooks & Waters, 2021, p. 16), such as those discussed in the previous section entitled "Who Studies Abroad."

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior (TPB) has been used in several previous studies to understand student decision-making processes related to participation in short-term study abroad in the United States, Germany, and Vietnam (Goel et al., 2010; Petzold & Peter, 2015; Presley et al., 2010; Ramakrishna et al., 2016; Schnusenberg et al., 2012; Zhuang et al.,

2015). The theory lays out three specific types of beliefs: behavioral, subjective, and control. Behavioral beliefs relate to a person's evaluation of the value of an experience in producing an expected and desired outcome and are closely linked to personal objectives (Ajzen, 1991). In the context of study abroad, behavioral beliefs are situated within students' perceptions of the experience's value toward meeting future goals. Examples of those goals may include personal growth or development and career readiness or future job prospects (Schnusenberg et al., 2012). Normative beliefs have to do with an individual's perception of the value significant others place on an experience. Significant others may include family, teachers, or others in leadership roles (Ajzen, 1991). Students may consider the value their nuclear and extended families place on the study abroad experience (Schnusenberg et al., 2012). Finally, control beliefs relate to the ease an individual perceives in performing a behavior (Ajzen, 1991). Support structures in the academic setting (Schnusenberg et al., 2012) or how study abroad fits into a student's degree program's academic requirements are examples of control beliefs related to study abroad. TPB suggests a student's intent to study abroad is stronger if they believe the experience is valuable for reasons of personal growth, career applicability or meeting academic goals; is valued by friends and family; and is an easy activity in which to participate and succeed.

There is strong evidence that study abroad intention is linked directly to study abroad participation. Goel et al. (2010) linked personality traits to beliefs and attitudes about study abroad, finding control factors play role in decision making for conscientious people, but subjective and behavioral factors do not; extraversion was important for behavior and control beliefs. Zhuang et al. (2015) found behavioral beliefs, or the perceived social pressure or value of study abroad to students' family and friends, but not subjective or control beliefs, were related to students' perceived value of study abroad. The influence of the perceived value of study abroad was found to be stronger in first-generation students compared to

second-generation students once those benefits were outlined explicitly. In a study of economics and engineering students in Germany, Petzold and Peter (2015) confirmed that students' perception that study abroad is normative is impacted by their academic and social contexts, which then contributes to study abroad intent. In other words, if everyone around students is telling them it is expected or normal to study abroad, students intend to comply, albeit with varying strength behind the intent. TPB was also used to consider study abroad intent in Vietnamese students (Nguyet, 2021), confirming positive and significant impact of intent to study abroad on participation. Results of this study emphasized the importance of subjective beliefs and control beliefs, indicating Vietnamese students' behavior in the context of study abroad was most affected by their perception of the value of study abroad within their family and their ability to succeed in the behavior.

Integrated Student Choice Model

The integrated student choice model (ISC) posits student intent to study abroad guided by social, human, cultural, and financial capital present both at students' entrance to higher education and acquired throughout their educational experiences (Salisbury, 2011; Salisbury et al., 2009, 2010). This model situates student college-related decisions as capital investments during which students make a series of cost-benefit analyses that guide intentions (Perna, 2006). Students with well-educated parents and social circles, higher incomes, and access to high-quality high schools have greater capital at the time they enter higher education. This model also assumes involvement in on-campus activities (e.g., clubs and organizations) can change capital and affect intent to study abroad; therefore, the intent to study abroad can ebb and flow throughout the college experience, either leading students with higher capital at the outset to have lower study abroad intentions or leading those with lower capital at the start of higher education to increase their intentions after exposure to wider social networks and academic experiences (Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Salisbury et al., 2009).

Using the Wabash National Study of Liberal Arts Education (WNSLAE), a longitudinal data set from U.S. liberal arts colleges, researchers used this model to identify differences in intent to study abroad across gender, as mediated by ethnicity, parental education level, and connectivity to on-campus activities (Salisbury et al., 2010) and in intent to study abroad of students of different ethnicities as mediated by financial need, parental education level, and openness to diversity (Salisbury et al., 2011). Luo and Jamieson-Drake (2015) used survey data from a single institution to confirm students with stronger intentions to study were more likely to study abroad compared to those with weaker study abroad intentions. In this study, involvement in on-campus activities reduced participation by those with strong intent. For those with weak intentions, parental income and participation in on-campus activities also further weakened study abroad intentions. Lingo (2019), grounded in earlier work by Salisbury et al. (2009), found intention was the single greatest predictor of participation in study abroad, even after controlling for a variety of background characteristics and college experiences.

Cost Considerations

Major barriers to study abroad include financial costs in the form of the tuition, fees, and costs related to travel abroad (e.g., airline tickets and additional housing) as well as social costs in the form of separation from family and friends or the potential to delay degree completion or job seeking (Lörz et al., 2016). Various studies have considered the type of financial assistance students received for their education and the impact of grant funding, loans, and family financial support on access to study abroad (Whatley, 2017; Whatley et al., 2020). Opportunity costs, in terms of taking time away from employment and lost wages, (Stroud, 2010; Vernon et al., 2017) are significant concerns for students who may be working to support their own academic endeavors or their family's finances. The value of the return

on investment in terms of the benefits and outcomes of study abroad is an important consideration when students are forming study abroad intentions.

Benefit Considerations

Personal Growth

Studying abroad often is promoted as an opportunity for students in higher education to step away from the everyday context of their personal lives and have new experiences that will stretch and grow them as individuals. Personal growth and development of new interpersonal relationships are key benefit considerations for students considering study abroad. Previous studies have identified such personal growth-related outcomes because of study abroad, such as flexibility/openness (Fong, 2020), personal autonomy, emotional resilience (Mapp, 2012), self-confidence and increased maturity (Cardwell, 2020), and intercultural sensitivity (P. H. Anderson et al., 2006; Edmunds & Shore, 2020; J. Jackson, 2008; Nam, 2011).

Many studies have considered how both new and existing relationships shape students' motivations to study abroad. Some students were motivated to study abroad by the opportunity to meet new people and develop new relationships (Nyaupane et al., 2011). Socially interactive students participating in on-campus activities were found to be more likely to express an interest in study abroad compared to less social students (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015). Other populations of students, perhaps those less social, perceived the prospect of traveling alone as a barrier to study abroad (Vernon et al., 2017). Study abroad destination choice was influenced by a student's personal relationships with a particular country or region and reflected a student's social sphere (Nyaupane et al., 2011). Students were most likely to be influenced by those whose opinions they valued and the importance those people placed on study abroad. L. C. Wang et al. (2016) found students were most influenced by their family and then their friends. This supports Stroud's (2010)

study, which found students living in the family home were less likely to express interest in studying abroad compared to those residing on campus. In contrast, home distance and living with family members were not correlated with intent to study abroad in Luo and Jamieson-Drake's (2015) study. Family influence was found to be especially strong in Vietnam, where families play a strong role in shaping students' professional development (Nguyet, 2021).

Career Growth

Employers continue to recognize the value of global skills and competencies in an increasingly global workforce. In part due to the massification of education and the prevalence of earned degrees, employers recruiting recent graduates have shifted to favoring those with demonstrated evidence of global and transferable career-related skills (Netz & Finger, 2016; Predovic et al., 2021). Although there is some evidence from Europe that employers favor international internships over study abroad (Predovic et al., 2021), research showed study abroad was associated positively with better career prospects, higher wages, and steeper wage growth (Lörz et al., 2016), although those benefits and how they are recognized and rewarded by employers may vary according to the type, length, and prestigious nature of the study abroad experience (Van Mol et al., 2021). The benefit assessment of study abroad as related to career relies on students' potential to realize the associated benefits; thus, the positive association between career and study abroad may be impacted by students' social and academic backgrounds (Netz & Finger, 2016). In a study of German students, Lörz et al. (2016) found students from underprivileged backgrounds were less likely to view study abroad as beneficial to their career prospects, partly due to their educational background and current academic pathways. In contrast, Ramakrishna et al.'s (2016) study of U.S undergraduates found first-generation students indicated the importance of study abroad to their careers and the value it would bring to their professional future. In an analysis of Chinese student international education motivations, Mankowska (2018)

identified better employment and overall human capital growth to be the primary motivating factor for study abroad participation. Using national data from Australia, Nerlich (2021) found study abroad only gave recent graduates a slight edge over other recent graduates in the job market, although this impact may have varied based on discipline. Adult learning theories posit adult learners with career experience are better able to connect learnings to immediate use in career-related settings in contrast to students without work-related experience, making the career benefits of study abroad perhaps more apparent to older students (Halx, 2010). Future financial impacts, such as the effect of study abroad on potential future earnings and employability benefits, are important considerations influencing students' motivation to study abroad.

Academics

When explicitly considering students participating in short-term programs, Janda (2016) found academic motivating factors to include subject matter covered and the faculty leading the program. In other studies, students were concerned with the effect of study abroad on degree progression and the degree applicability and transferability of credits earned abroad (Lörz et al., 2016; Trower & Lehmann, 2017) and showed a preference for programs led by their home institution's faculty (Curtis & Ledgerwood, 2018; Janda, 2016; Salisbury et al., 2009; Stroud, 2010). Students in structured academic programs (e.g., engineering or STEM) were more likely to consider the cost of taking time out to study abroad to be significantly higher than students in more flexibly liberal arts or humanities based academic programs (Kim & Lawrence, 2021). Earning academic credit associated with study abroad was particularly important to students with lower socioeconomic status in terms of justifying the time and resources invested in the activity (Trower & Lehmann, 2017). Previous studies have identified specific curriculum-related benefits in fields such as business, nursing, and engineering, which extend beyond more general academic benefits such as developing global

awareness or competencies (Nerlich, 2021). This is in direct contrast to motives reported by study abroad alumni on full-year programs, citing their primary motivations to be language acquisition and cultural exposure (Murphy et al., 2014). These differences further support that, in many cases, short-term programs are intended to support knowledge transfer, where learning takes place primarily in a specific discipline rather than the distinct and separate goals of culture-based study abroad programs (Engle & Engle, 2003). However, to identify learning outcomes associated with short-term study abroad programs, Kamdar and Lewis (2015) posited true academic integration requires extensive preparation and reflection to connect the international experience to the disciplinary knowledge.

Meeting Student Expectations

In terms of meeting student expectations, Saylers et al. (2015) asserted it is critical to ensure those expectations are realistic and grounded. They argued predeparture activities, during which students are guided to reflect on their personal and academic expectations for the experience and process and discuss them with their fellow students (Salyers et al., 2015), are essential, as is addressing any fears of traveling alone by developing relationships in the cohort (Vernon et al., 2017). Facilitated predeparture discussions in which students consider what challenges they may face abroad and how those challenges can translate into skill-building opportunities can help students not only process those experiences but articulate them (Hubbard, 2019). Further, program leadership should provide students sufficient time during and after the experience to process their experiences, feelings of alignment with expectations, and the program's resulting personal and academic benefits. This guided reflection and critical analysis may better support the transferability and applicability of skills gained in their regular lives (Salyers et al., 2015) and lead to increased fluency in communicating those skills (Hubbard, 2019).

Despite methodological differences, studies have identified a similar range of considerations surrounding the intent to study abroad, including cost, a desire to broaden horizons, personal growth, language acquisition, career benefits, developing relationships in countries outside the home country, and exploring academic content not available in the United States. Although both long- and short-term study abroad programs were examined, to my knowledge, none of these studies considered online students distinctly from in-person immersion students. This study contributes new knowledge to online students' study abroad intentions.

Study Abroad Outcomes

The close relationship between study abroad, social selectivity, and study abroad intent having been established, study abroad's transformational value in students' educational and economic trajectory must be assessed (Brooks & Waters, 2020). This is especially true for short-term study abroad, which has faced a historical yet "tacit assumption that limited duration is synonymous with superficiality" (Chiocca, 2021, p. 36). Used to assess outcomes in high-impact practices, such as global learning (Kuh, 2008), transformative learning theory (TL) evaluates the value an educational experience has in effecting change in a worldview or a structure of assumptions through which individuals understand their experiences (Mezirow, 1997). For learning to be genuinely transformative, Hoggan (2016) posited the process must result in "significant and irreversible changes in the way that a person experiences, conceptualizes and interacts with the world" (p. 71). An important aspect of adult learning theory, which frames students as seeking to become autonomous, responsible thinkers, TL requires students to incorporate new information into an already well-established worldview through critical reflection and active discourse (Mezirow, 1997). TL provides educators with pedagogy for understanding how intentionally designed educational experiences can provide a structure in which a worldview change can occur in a supportive environment (Wiley,

2018). Only by understanding whether philosophical and behavior change occurs because of a transformational experience can the value of an experience in producing the desired changes be assessed (Hudzik & Wakeley, 1980).

Many institutions rely on output-related data (e.g., number of students participating in study abroad or work activity conducted to support internationalization) to measure the impact of study abroad on students (Chiocca, 2021; Hudzik & Stohl, 2009). However, studies documenting study abroad learning outcomes have become an increasingly relevant and systematic way to improve quality and justify program continuation as study abroad becomes further embedded in the undergraduate degree (Chieffo & Spaeth, 2017). Alongside their increasing popularity, short-term study abroad programs, the focus of this study, have been under pressure to justify their learning outcomes (Chiocca, 2021; Goldstein, 2022). The learning activities, depth of the reflection, and critical analysis are more important than the length of the study abroad program in producing transformational learning (Chiocca, 2021). Previous studies have identified outcomes of short-term study abroad programs such as intercultural competence, personal development, career-related outcomes, and academic development. For a comprehensive list of over 70 instruments available to the field of international education to assess outcomes, see Ullom (2020) and Roy et al. (2014).

Intercultural Competence

One of the most touted outcomes of international education activities, such as study abroad, is the development of intercultural competence. Although there are a variety of perspectives on the definition of intercultural competence, most research coalesces around a set of "cognitive, affective and behavioral skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interactions in a variety of cultural contexts" (Bennett, 2008, p. 97). In their systemic literature review on intercultural competence outcomes of short-term study abroad programs, Goldstein (2022) identified over 900 studies, grouping outcomes into "cognitive

(e.g., intercultural interest, knowledge, and awareness; global mindedness), affective (e.g., intercultural sensitivity), and behavioral components (e.g., cross-cultural adaptability; intercultural communication)" (p. 28). I will highlight a few such studies here.

In specifically looking at the gains of students participating in short-term, faculty-led programs, Gaia (2015) found participants developed increased understanding and awareness of other cultures and languages, and their own identities, after the program. Reiter and Embry (2016) found students participating in a 2-week study abroad program in Guatemala demonstrated increased international perspectives and global citizenship competencies, providing support that measurable change can occur in a short-term program. P. H. Anderson et al. (2006) found statistical support for the claim that participants in a short-term, non-language-based study abroad program both lessened in their tendency to see other cultures as better than their own and improved their ability to accept and adapt to cultural differences. P. H. Anderson and Lawton (2011) identified clear support for the claim that study abroad students improved global learning competencies at a greater rate compared to those who did not study abroad over the same time frame. Edmunds and Shore (2020) also found students participating on short-term, faculty-led study experienced gains in intercultural sensitivity compared to a control group of non-study-abroad participants. Nam (2011) found 56% of participants on short-term study abroad programs in Asia and Europe showed enhanced intercultural sensitivity post-program. When combining quantitative assessment data with interview data, Nam concluded the short-term program design was more significant than the length of the program in affecting effective transformative learning outcomes. Whatley et al. (2020) also considered short-term, faculty-led study abroad program growth, finding change across the global learning scales was correlated strongly to program design features such as living arrangements, language requirements, and interaction with faculty.

Goldstein (2022) cited challenges with the existing research to include an overabundance of literature focused on small sample sizes of primarily western, White women, the use of self-reported measures and nonequivalent control groups. One study identified outside this context is that of J. Jackson (2008), who examined the intercultural competence change of Cantonese-speaking students from Hong Kong studying in England during a 5-week program. This research assessed students upon acceptance to the program, after a 3-month predeparture preparation period, and immediately after the program in England concluded. J. Jackson found all students experienced change either within or across the intercultural competence continuum stages at each stage of the assessment. Further, J. Jackson found that linguistic competence was not tied to cultural competence and that it is possible to be proficient linguistically while only superficially aware of cultural subtleties, leading J. Jackson to caution educators to develop deliberate programming to address intercultural competencies. In another study of over 900 students from 46 different countries, Holtbrügge and Engelhard (2016) found students' desire to seek and engage in intercultural interactions was correlated positively with activities such as study abroad that span cultural boundaries.

Several studies have considered the question of regression in intercultural competence. Grant et al. (2021) found, although meaningful differences between pre- and post-program assessment in intercultural learning were identified at the post-program juncture when groups were broken down by gender and ethnicity, not all change was in the positive direction. In some cases, the researchers identified regression, indicating students felt significantly challenged by their learning environment. Similar results indicating regression in intercultural learning were identified by Iseminger et al. (2020) and Wandschneider et al. (2015) when considering subgroups of students within categories often associated with horizontal inequalities in higher education. J. Jackson (2008) also found not all change in

intercultural competence observed was in a positive direction; several students in this study experienced backward movement, exhibiting more ethnocentric tendencies after study abroad. In a study of Australian students, Iskhakova et al. (2021) found greater positive change was detected in students studying in countries where the cultural distance between home and host culture was deemed to be low (i.e., in the United States for Australian students), suggesting students may experience greater cultural growth in environments where they can address challenges adequately rather than becoming overwhelmed and retreating. The concept of students feeling overwhelmed by the cultural differences between their home and host culture is also found in academic development (see Academic Development) and is an important consideration when considering study abroad for diverse student populations.

Personal Growth and Development

Growth in constructs associated with personal development, such as emotional resilience, flexibility, openness, and personal autonomy, have also been associated with short-term study abroad. I highlight a few studies related to personal growth in this section. Mapp (2012) found 87 students participating in programs in Ireland, Latin America, and Asia made gains in emotional resilience, or the extent to which a person can mediate their feelings while experience emotional turmoil associated with exposure to other cultures. Mapp's results indicated programs as short as 9 days in length produced significant changes in students, without a substantial difference in whether the host location was in the same language or the student's previous travel experience. Ramakrishna et al. (2016) identified personal autonomy as a construct with the greatest rate of change for business students who were short-term program participants. The authors believed this could have been due to the deliberate design of the program in facilitating significant interaction with the host country nationals or because their students were the weakest in this area. Fong (2020) found changes in flexibility and openness but no growth in emotional resilience and personal autonomy in

studying students participating in short-term internships. Fong's results demonstrated some adaptive changes can occur in short-term programs; however, deeper level internal transformations may take much longer, underscoring the importance of program design and intended outcomes for a specific experience. P. H. Anderson et al. (2016) found students gained confidence and self-awareness, which manifested in the belief that they could conquer challenges unrelated to study abroad. Cardwell (2020) also identified personal growth in the form of feelings of increased confidence, positivity, ability to effectively react to stress, and maturity after study abroad.

Career-Related Outcomes

Career-related expectations associated with study abroad motivations and social selectivity are discussed in the Student Motivations for Study Abroad and Selectivity and Study Abroad sections of this Literature Review. In addition to these research areas, there are connections in the literature between study abroad and career-related outcomes or employability. Broadly defined, employability is a recent graduate's skills and abilities used to find and remain employed (Van Mol, 2017). Employability, and higher education's role in enhancing the employability of recent graduates, is an increasingly important outcome of higher education (Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020).

Although there is a positive correlation between the study abroad and the transition to employment in the minds of students (Potts, 2015), various studies using objective labor market data from Hungary, Australia, and the European Union have not supported this claim (Waibel et al., 2017). A separate comparative study of ERASMUS students found mobile students had a lower risk of unemployment in Southern and Eastern European states. This lower risk was not apparent in Northern European states, supporting the claim that there is regional variability in how employers view study abroad and its value (Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020).

Study abroad has been associated with better labor market prospects in the form of higher wages and steeper wage growth in various European countries (Lörz et al., 2016; Van Mol et al., 2021). Australian students also have reported positive impacts to wages because of study abroad (Potts, 2015). However, study abroad alumni in the United States reported little to no difference in starting wages for those who studied abroad compared to their peers (Waibel et al., 2017). More objective-based measures of labor market data have suggested there are minor positive effects on salaries for study abroad alumni, with wage increases of between just under 2% to 8% (Van Mol, 2017; Waibel et al., 2017). There is some evidence to suggest wage differences are more likely attributed to selection effects, frequent changes, and access to multinational companies than the study abroad experience (Van Mol et al., 2021).

Regarding career skills, employers have shifted from recruiting recent graduates with specific disciplinary or academic skills to those with the ability to demonstrate transferable skills in the workplace (Predovic et al., 2021). Study abroad can provide students with a wide variety of skill-building experiences centered on intercultural competence, global awareness, and foreign language skills (Di Pietro, 2020; Potts & Kim, 2021; Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020). Some languages are more valued in specific labor market contexts than others. For example, fluency in Spanish is valued highly by U.S. employers, and German language skills are valued more highly than English, French, or Spanish by Italian employers (Di Pietro, 2019). Considering views on study abroad by employers in over 30 countries, including the European Union, Croatia, Iceland, Norway, and Turkey, Van Mol (2017) found only a small fraction valued student mobility. Not all recent graduates can translate their learning experiences effectively into skills employers value. Much has been written on the importance of training study abroad participants to articulate the connections between study abroad and employability more clearly and in ways that draw value for the employer (Di Pietro, 2019;

Malerich, 2009; Potts & Kim, 2021; Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020). In many cases, international internships were valued more highly by employers than study abroad programs, with an emphasis on their practical application of career-readiness skills (Van Mol, 2017; Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020). Other research was more critical of the connection between study abroad, career-readiness skills, and employability, attributing the differences between mobile and nonmobile groups to unobservable characteristics that led students to consider study abroad in the first place (Di Pietro, 2019). An alternate criticism suggested differences in career outcomes after study abroad to be associated more closely with the personal maturation process that occurs during the experience rather than the specific skills and competencies learned (Waibel et al., 2017).

One study considered the relationship career outcomes and study abroad duration by examining of students who participated in short-term study abroad compared to mid or longer length study abroad as well as differences in groups of students who participated in a single short-term study abroad and those who participated in multiple short-term study abroad programs. Potts and Kim (2021) found significant differences between the groups. Mid-/long-term program participants were more likely to be employed full time and to consider study abroad to have impacted their transition to employment, skill sets, and long-term career prospects positively than those who participated in short-term programs. Further, students who participated in multiple short-term programs were more likely to perceive study abroad as beneficial to their career and employability in terms of transition to employment, skills, long-term career prospects, and wages compared to those who completed a single short-term experience. This research harkens back to the historical discussion on the effect of program duration on study abroad outcomes, suggesting more research is needed on how to contribute intentionally to positive career outcomes through increasingly popular short-term programs.

Academic Development

Academic outcomes from short-term study abroad programs may include increased global awareness or intercultural skills, language competency, or knowledge transfer within a specific discipline (P. H. Anderson et al., 2006; Chieffo & Spaeth, 2017; Engle & Engle, 2003; Gaia, 2015). However, development of study abroad students outside the traditional academic boundaries of discipline-specific knowledge or language training is becoming increasingly recognized in higher education (McKeown et al., 2020). Returned study abroad students have a stronger ability to apply knowledge to diverse disciplines and focus on the broader concepts of education (McKeown et al., 2020). Study abroad and the associated challenges in operating in different cultural and academic environments can lead to higher independence in decision making, open mindedness, and global mindedness. Hadis (2005) associated these skills with greater academic focus upon return from study abroad, tying success with an intrinsic belief in the benefit and value of education for learning apart from grades. This view was supported by P. H. Anderson et al. (2016) who found returned study abroad students developed an academic confidence that came from pride in rising to the challenges of their study abroad program. In this study, academic confidence was often tied to change of major or addition of a minor. In the United Kingdom, Cardwell (2020) also found a positive association between study abroad and higher earned grades upon return and overall degree completion. Research including Chinese students studying in the United States and the United Kingdom suggests when there is a great degree of difference between the home academic culture and the host culture, students may exhibit greater academic development after an initial period of shock (McKeown et al., 2020).

Study abroad also has been linked to more traditional measures of student success in higher education, such as retention, reduced time to degree, and overall graduation rates (Di Maggio, 2016; Hamir, 2011; Haupt & Castiello-Gutierrez, 2020). Study abroad students in

the Georgia University System GLOSSARI Project were more likely to complete an undergraduate degree, with a higher GPA and in less time, compared to non-study-abroad participants (McKeown et al., 2020). The Consortium for Analysis of Student Success (CASSIE), a partnership between the University System of Georgia and the Institute for International Education (IIE), as funded by the U.S. Department of Education's International and Foreign Language Office, is building a multi-institution data set in the United States to examine the impact of international education activities on academic achievement, time to degree, and graduation rates (Robinson, 2021). Preliminary results suggested study abroad students are 10% more likely to graduate compared to those who do not participate in study abroad (Haupt & Castiello-Gutierrez, 2020).

Connected interactions with faculty have been found to contribute directly to academic outcomes. While abroad, the role of faculty is to support the reflective process necessary for students to evaluate their worldview and create new connections between a new organized value, set of beliefs, or core needs (Wiley, 2018). Due to the depth of relationship developed during these critical periods of self-reflection and analysis, they often persist after students return and may contribute to increased academic performance at the home institution (Houser et al., 2014). These relationships also contribute to feelings of belonging and fit between students and the values of their institution, which often influences student decisions and outcomes (Deil-Amen, 2011). The feeling of fit or commitment to an institution directly impacts the success of the institution. Students with strong feelings of commitment to their college or university typically persist to degree completion at high rates and have higher grades (Beck & Milligan, 2014). These feelings of commitment often persist beyond graduation and lead to alumni affinity tied to institutional support, making them important from an institutional impact perspective (Haupt & Castiello-Gutierrez, 2020).

Variations in Student Participants

International education practitioners often focus on aspects of program design and curricula as though learning outcomes are assured by design alone, without taking into consideration variations in the students (F. Wang, 2017). Ignoring such variation obscures possible explanations behind uneven outcomes. Equilintegration (EI) theory helps explain the psychological readiness perspectives with which students enter or approach an educational learning experience and why the same interventions may have different outcomes for different students (Shealy, 2016; Wiley, 2018). EI theory explains how individuals develop beliefs and values unconsciously through environmental conditions shaping who they are and how their needs are met (Shealy, 2016). More simply, who we are affects how and what we learn (Wandschneider et al., 2015).

A derivative of EI theory, the EI self is a developmental model seeking to represent "processes by which beliefs and values are acquired, maintained, and modified across the life span" (Shealy, 2016, p. 96). As infants, we develop a set of beliefs influenced by our external conditions or the primary cultures or contexts in which we develop and live. Beliefs held over time develop into values and include additional layers and complexity as we grow into adult selves and interact with external stimuli. Beliefs and values about what is "good" or "right" provide an individual's worldview (Shealy, 2016), which in turn acts as a "lens or filter through which self, others, and the world at large are experienced and interpreted" (Shealy et al., 2012, as cited in Shealy, 2016, p. 5). By existing only within a context where an individual's same worldview is shared, an individual's worldview is constantly validated and reinforced, leaving individuals unlikely to experience change. Only through novel experiences in which one's worldview is challenged do individuals become aware of it, reflect upon it, and evaluate it. When an individual's worldview is challenged, tension between beliefs can surface, which is called disequilintegration, a very uncomfortable status

that must be worked through in a reflective process (Shealy, 2016). Still, without the "substantial and sudden contradiction – or a prolonged process of self-exploration" (Shealy, 2016, p. 141), there are unlikely to be both quantitative and qualitative changes in an individual's worldview. For actual change to occur, some sort of catalyst may be necessary to stimulate a process of reflection and self-awareness (Wiley, 2018). A study abroad experience, in which an individual is thrown into a new cultural context, or interacts with individuals holding different worldviews, is a substantive example of a cataclysmic experience through which disequilintegration may occur.

Beliefs and values evolve through our lives and experiences. Wandschenider et al. (2015) maintained the primary purpose of education is to facilitate reflection upon one's beliefs and values about the self, others, and the world when that tension is realized. Tools that assess TL, within the context that who we are affects how and what we learn, are ideal for identifying outcomes related to study abroad as an educational experience. Given that online students are a diverse population of learners regarding age, work experience, family status, and educational motivations (Angelino et al., 2007; Ke & Kwak, 2013; Ortagus, 2017), a fuller understanding of their beliefs and values as they enter study abroad is essential. Only a single article identified in this literature review considered online studens particpating in study abroad; the authors characterized the literature on "the nexus between online learning and study abroad [as] embryonic" (Slotkin et al., 2012, p. 164). Therefore, a primary contribution of this study was to illustrate differences across online and in-person students before and after a transformational learning experience. Only by assessing differences among and between learners can we understand how these differences interact with "what we do" to produce any observable degree of change (F. Wang, 2017). This study attempted to identify these differences using the outcomes assessment tool, the Beliefs,

Events, and Values Inventory (BEVI). More information on the BEVI is provided in Chapter 3: Methodology – Research Question 3.

Conclusion

This literature review covered a variety of topics needed to identify the relevancy of the proposed research in higher education. The discussion began with internationalization and distance education and global online learning as internationalization strategies. Short-term study abroad and its role in affecting growth and change in students across various factors were reviewed. Finally, theories for understanding students' motivations and expectations as they consider and participate in study abroad were considered. Although there is a significant body of literature on the in-person immersion student and study abroad, very little is known about the growing population of online learners participating is such experiences, highlighting the relevancy of this research.

CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY

Chapter 1 provided some insight into issues surrounding the context and motivation for this study. Chapter 2 included a comprehensive literature review focused on international education and internationalization, online education and online students, and social selectivity in study abroad. Additionally, study abroad student motivations and expectations are discussed, as are potential changes in beliefs and values related to international education programming. This chapter presents the problem considered, the purpose of the study, the research questions, and research methods used in this exploratory mixed-methods study. Also included are a detailed description of the data, assessments used, and data collection and analysis procedures.

Problem and Purpose of Study

The purpose of this exploratory mixed-methods study was to document the academic and demographic characteristics of online students and in-person immersion students participating in short-term, faculty-led study abroad, and to understand the motivations of online students regarding study abroad; student expectations regarding how that experience may benefit them personally, academically, and professionally; and how the experience changes their beliefs, attitudes, and values. Three primary research questions guided this research.

Research Questions

Compared with in-person immersion students who study abroad, the goal of this research was to understand online students choosing to participate in in-person, faculty-led, short-term study abroad. The primary research questions are:

1. How do online study abroad students compare across academic and demographic variables with in-person immersion study abroad students?

2. Compared to in-person immersion study abroad students, what motivates online students to study abroad? What expectations do online students have for study abroad concerning their academic and professional goals?
3. Compared to in-person immersion study abroad students, how does study abroad change online students' beliefs, attitudes, and values?

Research Setting

This study was inspired by the ethos of inclusivity and the mission of access advanced in ASU's charter statement. Under the leadership of Dr. Michael Crow, ASU's Charter states:

> ASU is a comprehensive public research university, measured not by whom it excludes, but by whom it includes and how they succeed; advancing research and discovery of public value; and assuming fundamental responsibility for the economic, social, cultural, and overall health of the communities it serves. (ASU, 2017, para. 1)

This inclusivity and access mission is often viewed as contradictory to the institution's parallel goals for 1st-year student persistence (90%), a university 4-year graduation rate of over 80%, and a world-class research portfolio (ASU, 2017). ASU is steadily improving toward meeting those goals with, for example, a 2017 freshmen class of 50% underrepresented students and over 40% Pell-eligible[1] (Arizona residents) while maintaining $545 million in annual research expenditures[2] (Crow, 2018).

Success and quality in higher education cannot be measured in graduation rates and research dollars alone. In their survey of the literature, Schindler et al. (2015) identified four "conceptualizations of quality" (p. 5) in higher education, positing institutions need to be

[1] The U.S. Federal Pell Grant system was created in 1972 and awards funding for low-income undergraduate students. Awards are partially based on students' expected family contribution to the cost of higher education (The Pell Institute for the Study of Opportunity in Higher Education, n.d.). Pell eligibility is often used as a proxy for socioeconomic status in higher education research in the United States.

[2] Research expenditure is related to expenses specifically tied to producing research outcomes and usually includes externally sponsored research projects. Because it includes external awards, research expenditure is often used as a marker of quality in higher education institutions as it is typically correlated to the quality of the faculty and their research production (Webber & Ehrenberg, 2010).

transformative, purposeful, accountable, and exceptional. The transformative quality identifies positive changes or growth affected by products or services (Schindler et al., 2015). ASU identifies student success activities such as study abroad as transformative and intentionally designed experiences intended to produce master students with the skills and abilities to think critically, communicate effectively, solve problems, engage globally and locally, and make ethical decisions (ASU, 2018a).

ASU believes it has a responsibility to the local community, which is viewed through expanding concentric circles starting with the Phoenix metropolitan area, expanding to the state of Arizona, expanding to the United States, and then to the world's citizens. ASU's focus on online education is a demonstration of that responsibility, focusing on online learning as method to increase student success and increase access to higher education for community members within of all of those expanding concentric circles (ASU, 2018a). When this research was conducted, ASU offered over 150 degree programs online at the undergraduate and graduate level, taught by the same faculty, and with the exact degree requirements as the in-person immersion programs. Modeled after this same commitment to this community, the ASU Study Abroad Office developed new programming to make study abroad accessible to online students. Online student participation in study abroad grew from five students in 2009–2010 to over 330 in 2018–2019. Interviews of returned online study abroad students conducted by international office staff at ASU suggest online students who study abroad seek discipline-specific knowledge and skills, rather than cultural immersion, and an opportunity to interact with fellow students and faculty. Research is needed to identify why online students choose to study abroad, how the experience changes them, and how programs can be designed to meet their specific needs. In this way, this research is intended to further contribute to the knowledge of the emerging online student population so programs and policies can be developed to support and enhance their study abroad experience.

As a researcher, I chose ASU for the research site because of its mission, diverse student body, online student participation in study abroad, and access to participants and data. At the time of this study, I served as executive director of global and academic engagement in the Office of the University Provost, leading efforts to internationalize the undergraduate student experience and promote overall student success. During the 2019–2020 academic year, I also served as the interim study abroad director.

Participants

This exploratory quasi-experimental study was conducted at ASU, a large, public research university in the southwestern United States. When this research was conducted, ASU enrolled over 100,000 students, over 25% of which were enrolled exclusively online (ASU, 2018b). Quasi-experimental design is appropriate as this study lacks the complete experimental control over the intervention and participants necessary for traditional experimental design and data collection (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Proper experimental design, where participants are assigned randomly to treatment groups, is unrealistic in the context of study abroad, which requires international travel and a heavy commitment of resources on the part of participants. Participants in this study represented both online and in-person immersion students participating in the same short-term study abroad programs led by ASU faculty to an international location. The quantitative portion of this study comprised 1,354 total students who participated in study abroad activities in Spring 2019 (27.18%) and Summer 2019 (72.82%). Participants represented both online and in-person immersion students participating in the same short-term study abroad programs led by ASU faculty to an international location. Two hundred and twenty-one (16.32%) participants were online students, and 1,133 (83.68%) were in-person immersion students. Twenty-three online students participated in individual interviews and are represented in the qualitative data: seven (30.4%) Spring 2019 participants and 16 (69.6%) Summer 2019 participants. A

comparison group of online students enrolled in the Spring 2019 semester, but who did not study abroad in either Spring 2019 or Summer 2019, was also included in the analysis.

Prior to departure for the program, online students were located geographically throughout the United States. In contrast, the in-person immersion students' primary location was in the Phoenix metropolitan area in Arizona. The study abroad programs' international destinations included multiple locations in Europe, Asia, the Middle East, and South and Central America. To obtain sufficient study participation by online students, the length of programs included in the sample varied. Thirty eight of the 77 programs were between 1–2 weeks in length; 30 were 3–4 weeks long, and the remaining nine programs were between 5–8 weeks long. Study participants were recruited via a personal email invitation and interaction with predeparture planning activities such as orientation and group Facebook pages.

Study Design

This study drew from multiple sources in a mixed-methods approach using both quantitative and qualitative data. As a distinct methodology, mixed methods originated in the late 1980s and early 1990s and is used in diverse research fields ranging from sociology to health sciences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Specifically, in international education, mixed methods research has been identified as increasing the quality of the final study results while providing a more comprehensive understanding of global learning (Deardorff et al., 2009). A convergent mixed-methods approach was employed in this study to confirm and corroborate findings between the quantitative and qualitative data collected in a single phase (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). There were three sets of quantitative data analyzed in this study, one for each of the research questions. The first research question was assessed through analysis of institutional data (see Research Question 1). The second research question was considered through pre- and post-program surveys (see Research Question 2). Finally, the third research question was addressed through the Beliefs, Events, and Values Inventory (BEVI), a

standardized assessment tool (see Research Question 3). Qualitative data in this study were collected concurrently with the quantitative data. They support the quantitative data by personalizing the student experience, providing student voices to help expand upon and explain quantitative results (see Table 1 for further details on the types of data collection).

Table 1

Source and Types of Data Collected

Research Question	Data Source	Type*	Collection Method
		Pre-Intervention	
1	ASU Office of Institutional Analysis	Quant	Reporting from official data housed in University Student Information System of Record (PeopleSoft)
2	Survey	Quant	Qualtrics
3	BEVI	Quant and Qual	BEVI website
		Post-Intervention	
2	Survey	Quant	Qualtrics
3	BEVI	Quant and Qual	BEVI website
1, 2, and 3	Individual Interview	Qual	Zoom

Quantitative Data Collection

The following section describes the quantitative portion of the data collection and analysis procedures used to address the three research questions. Distribution, instrumentation, validation, and reliability are also discussed, as appropriate.

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 (RQ1) sought to understand how online students who choose to study abroad differ from in-person immersion students who study abroad. This question differs from previous research on comparisons between online and in-person immersion learning, which attempted to answer questions on which learning modality produces better results (Dziuban et al., 2016; Means et al., 2009; Wu, 2013). Quantitative data analysis of 17 demographic and academic variables (see Table 2) provides two comparisons, first between online and in-person immersion study abroad students (see Figure 1) and second between online study abroad students and online students who did not study abroad (see Figure 2). This research question is part of this study's overall survey design, intended to provide a

quantitative description of trends within populations (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). It is designed to develop knowledge on the basic demographic and academic characteristics of online study abroad students and how they may differ from the in-person immersion study abroad students for which study abroad programs historically have been designed.

Table 2

Student Demographic and Academic Variables Considered

Gender	Full-Time Enrollment Status
Age	First-Term Enrollment Status
Ethnicity	College/School
Federal Pell Grant Recipient	ASU Earned Credit Hours
First-Generation Student Status	ASU Cumulative GPA
Arizona Resident Status	Transfer Credits Earned
Academic Career	Transfer GPA
Class Standing	Years Since High School Graduation
	Starbucks College Achievement Plan Participant[3]

Figure 1

Study Abroad Student Population Demographics and Academic Data Comparison

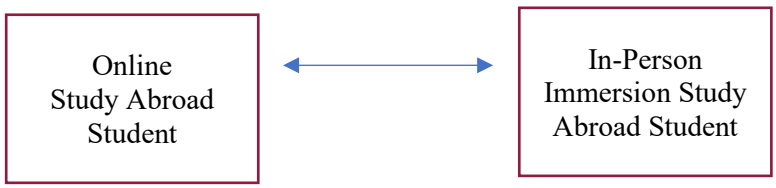


Figure 2

Online Student Population Demographics and Academic Data Comparison

[3] The Starbucks College Achievement Plan (SCAP) is a partnership between Starbucks and Arizona State University that creates an opportunity for eligible Starbucks employees to earn their bachelor's degree online at ASU while Starbucks covers the tuition (Starbucks, 2015).

Data Analysis

The cross-sectional data collected for this survey research represent Spring 2019 institutional data for 1,354 students participating in study abroad programs at ASU during the Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 terms. Deidentified student data were provided by the ASU Office of Institutional Analysis and included continuous and categorical data. Data were analyzed using SPSS (Version 26). I first calculated descriptive data (e.g., frequency, mean average, range, and standard deviation) to explore and understand the populations. Significant differences between and within the online study abroad cohort and in-person immersion study abroad cohort were determined using *t* tests or one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) tests. Reported statistical significance values, as measured by the *p* value, were between 0.01 and 0.05, as is accepted in social sciences research (Salkind & Frey, 2020). Due to differences in participant group sizes, both Tukey and Sidak posthoc tests were conducted, and both methods confirmed results. Significance levels reported represent Sidak posthoc tests.

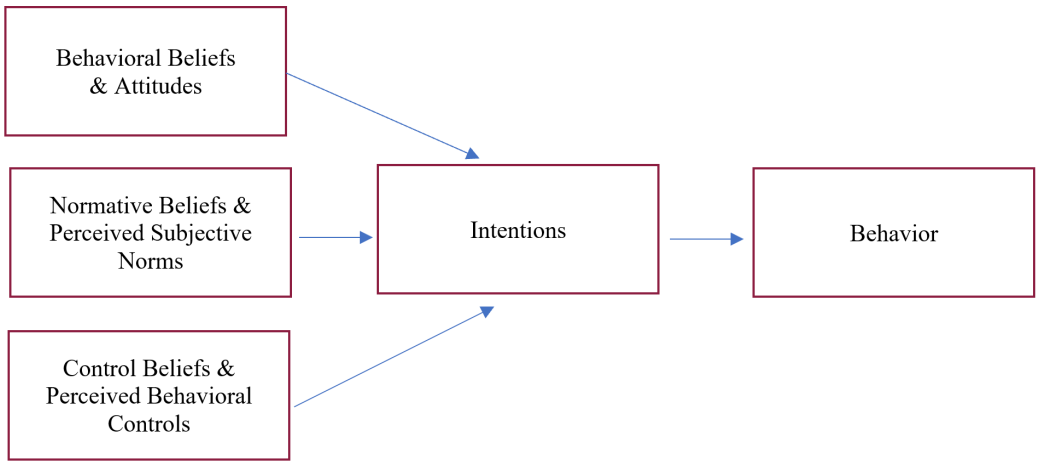
Research Question 2

Research Question 2 (RQ2) considered the motivations and expectations of online students regarding study abroad and how motivations and expectations differed from those of the in-person immersion student. This research questions examines study abroad intent, rather than the completed action of study abroad. After reviewing the literature, I selected the theory of planned behavior (TPB; Ajzen, 1991) as a theoretical lens through which to consider this question. TPB explains that the primary precursor to behavior or action is intent, which is applied to the relationship between beliefs and attitudes, resulting in specific behaviors (Ajzen, 1991). TPB has been used in previous studies to understand student decision-making processes related to participation in short-term study abroad (Goel et al., 2010; Petzold & Peter, 2015; Presley et al., 2010; Ramakrishna et al., 2016; Schnusenberg et al., 2012;

Zhuang et al., 2015). The theory lays out three specific types of beliefs: behavioral, subjective, and control (see Figure 3).

Figure 3

Theory of Planned Behavior

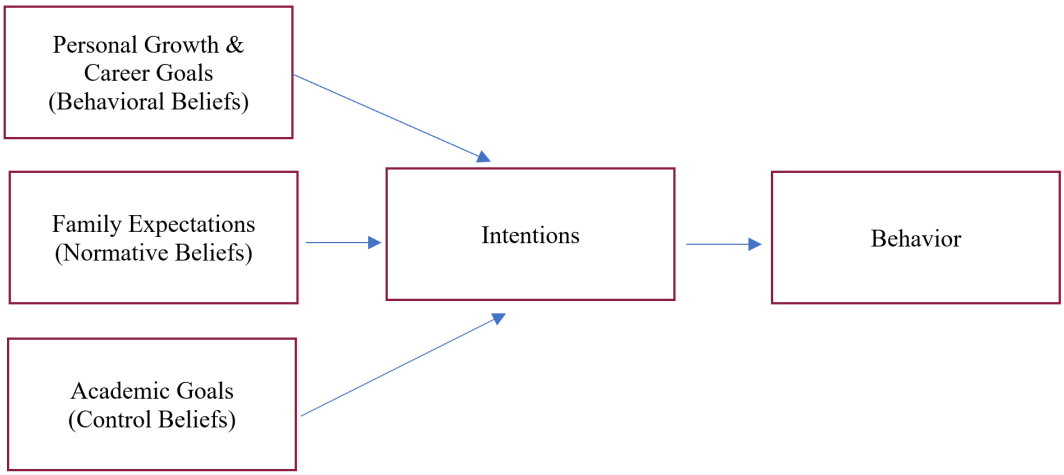


Note. Adapted from "The Theory of Planned Behavior," by I. Ajzen, 1991, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), p. 182 (https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T). Copyright 1991 by Elsevier.

To address RQ2, I extended the TPB framework to the study abroad context in the examination of four constructs: Personal Growth (behavioral beliefs), Career Goals (behavioral beliefs), Family Expectations (normative beliefs), and Academic Goals (control beliefs; see Figure 4). In survey research, constructs are underlying themes or abstract ideas a researcher wishes to measure through specific survey items (Lavrakas, 2008). Individual survey items for this research were developed based on Schnusenberg et al.'s (2012) research, which used survey research to identify factors representing study abroad students' related behavioral, normative, and control beliefs within the context of study abroad intentions.

Figure 4

Theory of Planned Behavior in Study Design



Distribution

Pre- and post-program surveys were distributed to online (n = 221) and in-person immersion (n = 1,133) students participating in Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 ASU short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs. Information on study participants' demographic and academic characteristics are included in Chapter 4, in the section of RQ1 titled Demographic and Academic Profile of Participants. Pre-program (T1) and post-program (T2) surveys were used to collect data appropriate for comparison between two time periods. A survey design was chosen to provide quantitative descriptions of trends, attitudes, and opinions among the two participant groups (Creswell, 2013).

Online surveys were administered using Qualtrics, an online survey tool designed to build, distribute, and collect survey responses. Previous research found online surveys are useful when surveying populations with high internet coverage, such as students, while not introducing a nonresponse bias (Daikeler et al., 2020). Qualtrics also allowed me to collect and record informed consent from study participants in a form acceptable to the institution's Institutional Review Board (IRB; see Appendix K). Study participants were contacted about the survey through their institutional email addresses.

The survey design followed the tailored design method, a strategy which allows for customization of survey procedures based on knowledge of the topic, resource constraints and time frame for reporting results, while reducing survey error and motivating responses (Dillman et al., 2014). Leaning on the learnings of marketing research, emails inviting students to participate in the research study followed a casual, conversational tone designed to remind students of the importance of their opinions and experiences and validate their position as part of a significant group (T. Anderson & Kanuka, 2003). Specifically, emails sent to online students reminded them that they were part of a small but growing demographic of online students studying abroad and that the study was designed to make study abroad more accessible to online students in the future. Email invitations were designed to establish trust between participants and me and to increase the perceived benefits of participation by showing positive regard for the potential participants and by providing social validation and evidence of a tangible reward (Dillman et al., 2009).

Participants who completed both the pre- and post-program surveys were eligible to receive one of 10 $25 Amazon gift cards. Some research has found incentives have been demonstrated to positively affect response rates in all types of survey modes while not negatively affecting data quality (Dillman et al., 2014; Teisl et al., 2006). Although lottery-type incentives may have less effect than pre-paid cash incentives, when announced in recruitment materials they likely remain the best logistical option for online surveys (Dillman et al., 2014). Other research has found the presence of such lottery type incentives has no effect on response rates, while response rates for pre-paid cash incentives were lower than a control group with no incentive at all (Daikeler et al., 2020; Knowles & Stahlmann-Brown, 2021). For this online survey, with the potential for a positive effect on response rates, I decided a lottery-type incentive in the form of an easily redeemable gift card to a well-known retailer was worthwhile.

Study participants received the initial invitation for the pre-program survey approximately 4 weeks before departure. As multiple contacts generally increase response rates (Dillman et al., 2009), two follow-up emails were sent to those who had not started or completed the survey at 1-week intervals. The post-program survey was sent via email approximately 1 week after each program's end date, with two follow-up emails sent at 1-week intervals. The text of the emails can be found in Appendix A.

Instrumentation

The four constructs were examined through survey items based on Schnusenberg et al.'s (2012) study and were organized as follows: Personal Growth (n = 5 items), Academic Goals (n = 4 items), Career Goals (n = 3 items), and Family Expectations (n = 4 items). Example survey items related to each construct can be found in Table 3 and the full text of the survey in Appendix B. Participants were asked to respond to each survey item using a 5-point Likert-scale response methodology (5 = *strongly agree* and 1 = *strongly disagree*). The order in which survey items were presented under each construct was randomly reordered for each survey administration in Qualtrics to reduce order-based bias (Lavrakas, 2008).

Table 3

Example Survey Items for Constructs

Personal Growth
Study abroad will help me become more adaptable and comfortable with ambiguity
Study abroad will help me develop a different world view
Academic Goals
Study abroad will allow me to advance toward meeting my degree requirements more quickly
Study abroad will help me develop a closer connection to my faculty and ASU
Career Goals
Skills obtained through study abroad will allow me to be effective in my work
Study abroad will give me a competitive edge in the job market
Family Expectations
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my personal development
My family encourages me to go on a study abroad program

The remaining section of the pre- and post-program surveys was a ranked response question asking participants what attracted them to the specific study abroad program they chose (see Table 4 for preferred short-term study abroad program features). Participants were

asked to rank study abroad program features in order of preference or importance to them when selecting a short-term study abroad program, with 1 being the most important to 7 being the least important. I developed the program features in the ranked response question based on professional experience and the literature review on study abroad intent, costs, and benefits. Data were treated as ordinal, with a rank or order but without quantitative measurement between each value (Salkind & Frey, 2020). As this question asked about importance when choosing a study abroad program, only pre-program survey responses were analyzed.

Table 4

Preferred Short-Term Study Abroad Program Features

Length of time abroad
Cost of study abroad experience
Content/Subject Area
Taught by a specific instructor
Opportunity for in-person interaction with students and/or instructor onsite
Online instruction component of the program
Applicability to degree program

The final section of the survey for RQ2 provides instructions and a link to the BEVI instrument. This section also included a video on the BEVI, introducing students to the tool and its measures. The BEVI was used in this study to address the third research question. More information can be found on the BEVI and differences in beliefs and values resulting from study abroad in the Research Question 3 section in Chapter 3: Methodology.

Data Analysis

Once the survey window closed, data were cleaned to include only those students who completed the survey in its entirety. For this study's purposes, rather than run the risk of misrepresenting the study participants, introducing significant bias into the data, and drawing incorrect conclusions (Enders, 2010), I removed observations with missing data. Observations in which one or more of the constructs remained blank were deemed to be incomplete surveys and were deleted (5 pre-program surveys (1.5%) and 10 post-program

surveys (2.6%)) rather than attempting to make assumptions about missing data. The first complete response was retained in the event of duplicate responses within a single timeframe (i.e., post-program). Data cleaning resulted an analytic sample comprising 177 students who completed only the pre-program survey (Group A), 231 students who completed only the post-program survey (Group B), and 152 students who completed both the pre- and post-program surveys (Groups C; see Table 5). I calculated descriptive statistics for the same demographic and academic variables used in RQ1 for all three survey groups, breaking out the online and in-person immersion students into separate subgroups. I took this step to understand the students in each survey completion group and to determine whether there were statistically significant differences within online students across the survey completion groups and within in-person immersion students across survey completion groups. There were no appreciable differences across survey groups. As such, all three groups were used to analyze survey results, according to Figure 5. Appendix C includes full details of the demographic and academic characteristics of all three survey groups

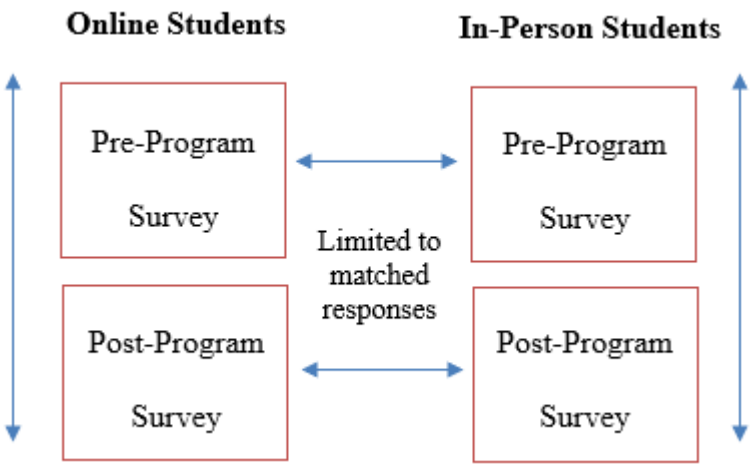
Table 5

Survey Participants

	Group A Pre-Program Survey Only	Group B Post-Program Survey Only	Group C Both Pre- and Post-Program Survey
Online Students	35	37	32
In-Person Immersion Students	142	194	120
Total Participants	177	231	152

Figure 5

Survey Results Comparison Model



After determining the internal consistency reliability of each of the constructs (see Validity and Reliability), I then calculated descriptive statistics to describe the data (frequency data) further at the construct and survey item level. I used the Mann-Whitney *U* test, which examines independent observations of different groups using Likert-scale data assessed as ordinal data (Geiger & Amrein-Beardsley, 2017; Laerd Statistics, 2020; Nachar, 2008; Tavakol & Dennick, 2011) to understand differences in responses between the online study abroad student and in-person study abroad student cohorts. Details on results of the analysis can be found in Chapter 4: Data and Analysis.

Validity and Reliability

University email addresses were used for the invitation emails to ensure only authenticated students were invited to participate, thus ensuring survey reliability. Data collection was conducted through Qualtrics, which is approved and licensed to ASU for survey and assessment projects. All data collected through Qualtrics were downloaded to my personal drive, which is password protected and maintained by the University Technology Office. As reviewed and approved by IRB, informed consent was collected and recorded through Qualtrics.

Survey items were based on the items in the Schnusenberg et al. (2012) study survey, which was developed through a two-phase (pilot and final) process during which its validity, or the extent to which the survey measured what it intended to measure (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011), was determined using Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Cronbach's alpha. In addition to being based on Schnusenberg et al.'s items, experts in international education and higher education reviewed this study's survey items to ensure content-based validity (Salkind & Frey, 2020). For the first step in establishing the validity of data collected, the minimum and maximum responses, mean, standard deviation, and variance of responses for each survey item were calculated (see Table 6). This table demonstrates adequate between-subject variability, based on the variance of responses, to warrant additional analysis of differences between study groups. However, there was not wild variance in student responses, perhaps representing students who responded as they felt they ought, based on influences that external sources (e.g., higher education, family) have placed on them. Nonetheless, there was enough variability to warrant consideration of the data.

Table 6

RQ2 Survey Items: Minimum, Maximum, Mean, Standard Deviation, and Variance

	RQ2 Survey Items		
	M	*SD*	Variance
	Personal Growth		
Item 1	4.722	0.565	0.319
Item 2	4.663	0.606	0.367
Item 3	4.553	0.701	0.492
Item 4	4.785	0.528	0.278
Item 5	4.693	0.611	0.373
	Academic Goals		
Item 1	4.323	0.854	0.730
Item 2	3.947	1.164	1.354
Item 3	4.508	0.774	0.599
Item 4	4.142	1.175	1.380
	Career Goals		
Item 1	4.171	0.888	0.788
Item 2	4.388	0.789	0.623
Item 3	4.171	0.943	0.889
	Family Expectations		
Item 1	4.227	1.070	1.145
Item 2	4.353	0.932	0.869
Item 3	4.216	0.988	0.976
Item 4	4.139	1.005	1.010

Internal consistency reliability was measured by calculating Cronbach's alpha (α) for the constructs assessed (Personal Growth, Academic Goals, Career Goals, and Family Expectations; Geiger & Amrein-Beardsley, 2019; Salkind & Frey, 2020). As shown in Table 7, all but one of the constructs demonstrated alphas above 0.70 ($\alpha > 0.70$), which is the generally accepted minimum level, meaning participants generally responded consistently across items within each construct (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Geiger & Amrein-Beardsley, 2019). One of the constructs, Academic Goals, did not yield an α above 0.70, either in the pre-program ($\alpha = 0.612$) or post-program results ($\alpha = 0.598$). Deleting specific items within this construct did not increase its α in either survey. Items in this construct deviated the most from Schnusenberg et al.'s (2012) study, which is most likely behind the inconsistency between results and the intended construct to be measured. Although the decision was made to leave this construct in the analysis, caution is recommended when interpreting its results.

Table 7

Survey Instrument Estimates of Internal-Consistency Reliability

Construct	Pre-Program Survey Cronbach's Alpha (α)	Post-Program Survey Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Personal Growth	0.875	0.836
Academic Goals	0.612	0.598
Career Goals	0.860	0.872
Family Expectations	0.934	0.928

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 (RQ3) considered how the beliefs, attitudes, and values of online study abroad students participating in short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs compared to the in-person immersion study abroad student. After reviewing several available tools, I choose the BEVI for this study. The BEVI, in development since the 1990s, is a measure of psychological functioning used in a wide range of applied settings, evaluative contexts, and research projects (Shealy, 2016). It is a comprehensive analytic tool

"examin[ing] how and why we come to see ourselves, others, and the larger world as we do" (Wandschneider et al., 2015, p. 161). Typically, BEVI usage falls into 1 of 8 categories:

1. Evaluating learning experiences (e.g., study abroad, multicultural courses, general education, training programs/workshops, service learning)
2. Understanding learning processes (e.g., who learns what and why, and under what circumstances)
3. Promoting learning objectives (e.g., increased awareness of self, others, and the larger world)
4. Enhancing teaching and program quality (e.g., which experiences, courses, programs, have what impact, and why)
5. Facilitating growth and development (e.g., of individuals, groups, and organizations)
6. Conducting research (e.g., how, why, and under what circumstances people become more "open" to different cultures)
7. Addressing organizational needs (e.g., staff/leadership development)
8. Complying with assessment and accreditation requirements (e.g., linking objectives to outcomes) (Shealy, 2016, p. 116)

I selected the BEVI for this study for a variety of reasons. First, by focusing on understanding the "whole person" before the experience, the BEVI provided additional insight into the study participants and illustrated emerging patterns within the two study abroad populations (online and in-person immersion). In this way, the BEVI data can be contextualized with the data and analysis from RQ1 and RQ2 in Chapter 5: Discussion section, providing additional color and nuance to the overall results. Secondly, rather than assessing intercultural competence, the BEVI's focus is global learning, which is more closely aligned with ASU's institutional mission (see Chapter 3: Methodology – Research

Setting). It is my hope that measuring student outcomes related to university aspirations may influence the acceptance of results and adoption of recommendations. Through collaboration across difference, global learning seeks to build global awareness in students, or "knowledge of the world's complexity and interrelatedness within the context of diversity and disparity" (Doscher & Landorf, 2018, p. 5). By aligning my study's goals with ASU's institutional mission, I am intentionally highlighting its contribution to the overarching direction and aspirations of the institution and the field of international education (Hudzik & Stohl, 2009). Finally, the BEVI is being used to conduct research on and evaluate a specific learning experience (short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs), which aligns with the intended eight usage categories.

Rooted in the theory that who we are affects how and what we learn, the BEVI is an ideal tool to assess the transformational learning (TL) that may occur through study abroad. The BEVI evaluates participants' worldviews so educators can appropriately anticipate and support the tension and the reflective processes necessary to forge new connections and achieve real learning (Shealy, 2016; Wiley, 2018). It can also highlight students' relative preparedness, or lack thereof, to engage in TL and experience real change (Grant et al., 2021). Recently the BEVI has been used in several international education settings to assess and operationalize TL theory (Acheson & Kelly, 2021; Grant et al., 2021; Iseminger et al., 2020; Wiley, 2018).

Distribution

Along with the survey for RQ2, pre- and post-program BEVI assessments were distributed to the same online (n = 221) and in-person immersion (n = 1,133) students participating in Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 ASU short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs. Additional academic and demographic data can be found on student participants in

Chapter 4: Data and Analysis: Research Question 1. Data were collected at both the pre- and post-program timeframe to analyze trends within and between the two groups over time. The BEVI assessment is conducted online and was accessed directly from the RQ2 survey. Informed consent for participation in the study, in a format acceptable to ASU's IRB, was collected and recorded through Qualtrics before participants progressed to the BEVI website. Study participants were contacted regarding the survey through their institutional email addresses, receiving the same email invitations as discussed earlier in Research Question 2: Distribution (see Appendix B for text of the emails).

Instrumentation

The BEVI is available in two versions: a long version with 336 items and a short version with 185 items. The short version used for this study and the version currently used by most institutions and organizations[4] (Shealy, 2016) was developed in partnership with the Forum BEVI Project with participation from 11 U.S. higher education institutions (Wandschneider et al., 2015). The web-based assessment generally takes 25–35 minutes to complete and includes the following components: (a) demographic questions, (b) life history questions, (c) two validity scales, (d) 17 psychometric scales, and (e) three qualitative questions intended to collect participants' written reflections upon their experiences (Shealy, 2016). The BEVI uses a 4-point Likert scale with four response options ranging from 4 = *strongly agree* and 1 = *strongly disagree*. Unlike the Likert scale used in RQ2, there is no neutral choice in an attempt by the assessment's designers to force respondents to choose a response on one side or the other. In doing so, the respondent may "access basic affective and nonconscious (i.e., gut-level) processes, which theoretically tap more than a simple cognitive or rational appraisal of whether an item is 'true' or 'false'" (Shealy, 2016, p. 145).

[4] The BEVI short version may become known as the BEVI 2.0. This is different from the BEVI 3.0, which was released in April 2021. The BEVI 3.0 will be used in future research in 2021 and beyond.

The 17 different scales measured by the BEVI are presented under seven different domains, for which composite scores are available. Choosing a subset of the assessment's total scales that align with the learning outcomes of a specific experience or course is an accepted approach with BEVI research (Grant et al., 2021). This study begins analyses with scores from three specific BEVI sales: Socioemotional Convergence, Self-Certitude, and Global Resonance. These three scales align with ASU's institutional goals regarding the desired learning outcomes for graduates and typical and desired learning outcomes for a study abroad experience. Other scales for which longitudinal change is detected also discussed. More information on the domains and scales is in Table 8; the scales used in this study are bolded.

Self-Certitude. The Self-Certitude scale, part of the Tolerance for Disequilibrium domain, measures an individual's strong sense of will, impatience with difficulties, and leanings toward simplistic explanations for behaviors and events in the world (Wandschneider et al., 2015). Findings from the Forum BEVI Project suggest individuals who demonstrate a low degree of this construct become less sure about such things after experiencing an international, multicultural, or transformative learning event (Wandschneider et al., 2015). These critical findings emphasize how an individual's past beliefs, events, and values may influence the degree to which students are receptive to new learnings and change. This scale was chosen in alignment with past research on personal growth constructs associated with study abroad (P. H. Anderson et al., 2016; Cardwell, 2020; Fong, 2020; Mapp, 2012; Ramakrishna et al., 2016).

Socioemotional Convergence. Socioemotional Convergence is one of two scales that comprise the domain of Critical Thinking. Socioemotional Convergence represents an individual's openness and awareness of the self within the larger world and the ability to see the world in shades of gray rather than black and white (Shealy, 2016). High scores typically

represent self-awareness, leading to a more "nuanced and complex understanding of events, people, and phenomena" (Grant et al., 2021, p. 135).

Often called a core competency of higher education, critical thinking is "purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed thinking" (Halx, 2010, p. 552) that considers multiple points of view, context, and one's own beliefs in values when approaching new experiences or challenges. Through an analysis of higher education institutions (HEIs) throughout Europe and Asia, Antonova et al. (2020) found critical thinking skills are being taught explicitly or implicitly through experiences such as project-based learning, blended learning, and inquiry-based learning. With its emphasis on experiential learning and interaction with difference, study abroad can provide students with an ideal learning laboratory to develop critical thinking skills as "a lived experience, not an academic pastime" (Halx, 2010, p. 520). As such, this scale was chosen in alignment with the literature connecting the value of study abroad and higher education to developing critical thinking skills.

Global Resonance. The Global Resonance scale indicates receptivity to different cultures, religions, and social practices (F. Wang, 2017). Students scoring high on the Global Resonance scale typically seek information about and interaction with people from other cultural groups (Wiley et al., in press). In this study, Global Resonance represents the intercultural learning outcomes of study abroad as previously identified in the literature (Edmunds & Shore, 2020; Gaia, 2015; Goldstein, 2022; J. Jackson, 2008; Reiter & Embry, 2016; Whatley et al., 2020).

Table 8

Domains and Scales of the BEVI

Domain	Scale	Description	Sample Item	Desired Change
Formative Variables	Negative Life Events	Conflict in family, trouble as a child, many regrets	"I have had a lot of conflict with one or more members of my family."	Neutral. Provides insight into student identity.
Fulfillment of Core Needs	Needs Closure	Unusual explanations for why things work as they do; lack of connection to core needs in self or others	"I had a wonderful childhood." "Some numbers are more lucky than others."	Decreased Scores
	Needs Fulfillment	Open to needs of self and others; deep care/sensitivity for self, others, and the larger world	"We should spend more money on early education programs for children." "I like to think about who I am."	Increased Scores
	Identity Diffusion	Complex crisis of identity, no sense of control over life outcomes; Feels bad about self and prospects.	"I have gone through a painful identity crisis."	Neutral. Provides insight into student identity.
Tolerance for Disequilibrium	Basic Openness	Ability to be open with self and others about thoughts, feelings, and needs	"I don't always feel good about who I am." "I have felt lonely in my life."	Increased Scores
	Self-Certitude	**Does not have the capacity for deep analysis, a strong sense of will**	**"If you play by the rules, you will get along fine."** **"You can overcome almost any problem if you just try harder."**	**Decreased Scores**
Critical Thinking	Basic Determinism	Chooses simple explanations for phenomena, sense of fixed character	"AIDS may well be a sign of God's anger. "It's only natural that the strong will survive."	Decreased Scores
	Socioemotional Convergence	**Thoughtful, determined, see complexities in the circumstances, aware of connectivity between self and the larger world**	**"We should do more to help those who are less fortunate."** **"Too many people don't meet their responsibilities."**	**Increased Scores**
Self-Access	Physical Resonance	Receptive to needs and feelings of own body	"I am a free spirit." "My body is very sensitive to what I feel.	Increased Scores
	Emotional Attunement	Connected to own emotions; sensitive to and acceptive of expressions of affect in others	"I don't mind displays of emotion." "Weakness can be a virtue."	Increased Scores
	Self-Awareness	Reflective, accepts the complexity of self; cares for human experiences, tolerates complicated thoughts/feelings	"I am always trying to understand myself better." "I have problems that I need to work on."	Increased Scores

Domain	Scale	Description	Sample Item	Desired Change
	Meaning Quest	Seeking balance in life; searching for meaning	"I think a lot about the meaning of life." "I want to find a better sense of balance in my life."	Increased Scores
Other Access	Religious Traditionalism	Sees life as mediated by God, highly committed to religious doctrine	"Without religion, there can be no peace." "There is one way to heaven."	Neutral. Provides insight into student identity.
	Gender Traditionalism	Binary in thinking about sex and roles that are assigned to sexes. Prefers simple view of sex and gender.	"Women are more emotional than men." "A man's role is to be strong."	Decreased scores
	Sociocultural Openness	Open to an array of policies and practices in areas of culture, economics, education, environment, gender/global relations, politics; looks for experience of difference	"We should try to understand cultures that are different from our own." "There is too big a gap between the rich and poor in our country."	Increased scores
Global Access	Ecological Resonance	Highly committed to environmental sustainability	"I worry about our environment." "We should protect the land no matter who owns it."	Increased scores
	Global Resonance	**Desire to learn about different cultures, share experiences with others from different cultural groups. Seeks global engagement.**	**"It is important to be well informed about world events."** **"I am comfortable around groups of people who are very different from me."**	**Increased scores**

Note. Adapted from "The Effects of Social Identities on Student Learning Outcome Attainment," by S. Iseminger et al., 2020, *International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning*, *14*(1), p. 4 and "Understanding the Relationship Between Global and Diversity Learning Practice Types, Critical Thinking and Awareness of Self and Others in College Students," by J. L. Wiley, 2018, pp. 26–27 (Doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri Columbia). ProQuest Dissertations and Theses.

Data Analysis

Once the window to complete the assessment closed, I cleaned the response data by excluding partial completions and aligning the assessment date with the program dates for each participant to determine if it was a pre-program assessment (T1) or a post-program assessment (T2). In the event of duplicate responses within a single timeframe (i.e., pre-program), I retained the first complete response. Data cleaning resulted in 128 students who completed the pre-program BEVI (Group A), 86 students who completed the post-program

BEVI (Group B), and 59 students who completed both the pre- and post-program BEVI (Group C; see Table 9). As with the survey data in RQ2, I calculated descriptive statistics for the academic and demographic variables in RQ1, for all BEVI groups, to understand the groups better. I used ANOVAs to determine differences between groups. Unlike with the groups comprising data for RQ2, there were statistically significant differences across six variables (gender, age, first-term enrollment status, ASU credit hours, transfer hours, and years since high school graduation) between BEVI completion groups for in-person immersion students in Group B and C. There were fewer statistically significant differences between in-person immersion students in Groups A and C. There were no statistically significant differences between groups for online students. As there were no external factors that would have influenced these significant differences in BEVI completion rates among the students, I decided to combine Groups A and C to understand the overall profile of online and in-person students before the program. I only used the matched pairs in Group C to understand the change between pre- and post-program results (see Figure 6). Full details of the demographic and academic characteristics of all three survey groups can be found in Appendix H.

Independent *t* tests were used to determine differences in the BEVI scale scores between Groups A and C; paired *t* tests were used to assess change over time for Group C. The BEVI provides an individual's score for each of the 17 scales based on a 100-point normed scale, constructed by the assessment's developers, based on factor analysis. In addition to statistical significance, on the 100-point normed scales, a 5-point difference is generally considered to have real-world meaning between groups or in longitudinal change (Shealy, 2016). These real-world, or observable and interpretive differences, are used for groups with small *N*s instead of statistical analysis to identify patterns in group and subgroup

data (Grant et al., 2021). Therefore, for this study, both statistical ($p < 0.05$) and interpretive difference ($MD > 5$) differences are reported when applicable.

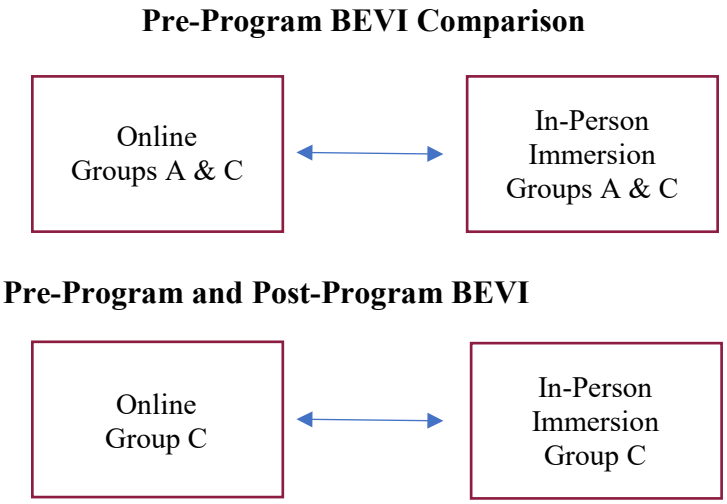
Table 9

BEVI Participants

	Group A Pre-Program BEVI Only	Group B Post-Program BEVI Only	Group C Both Pre- and Post-Program BEVI
Online Students	31	15	13
In-Person Immersion Students	97	71	46
Total Participants	128	86	59

Figure 6

BEVI Results Comparison Model



Validity and Reliability

The BEVI is a psychometric instrument administered online in various contexts and evaluated and refined through multifactor analyses and subject matter review (Iseminger et al., 2020). Validity and reliability of the survey items and scales on the short version of BEVI were determined using confirmative factor analysis (CFA) in conjunction with data analyzed through the Forum BEVI project (Shealy, 2016; Wandschneider et al., 2015). CFA is commonly used in applied research to identify relationships between measured observations and factors (Brown, 2015). Further structural equation modeling was used to test associations between items and constructs to identify each of the 17 scales (Shealy, 2016). The scales, the

number of items, and the reliability coefficients, represented by Cronbach's alpha (α), are detailed in Table 10. As described in Chapter 3: Methodology – Research Question 2, Validity and Reliability, alphas above 0.70 ($\alpha > 0.70$) are acceptable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Geiger & Amrein-Beardsley, 2019). The BEVI does not make reliability coefficients for individual assessments available. Table 10 represents data reported by the assessment creators.

Table 10

BEVI Scale Summaries

Scale	Number of Items	*M*	*SD*	α
Negative Life Events	9	2.899	0.61	0.862
Needs Closure	25	2.646	0.29	0.712
Needs Fulfillment	24	1.892	0.342	0.882
Identity Diffusion	13	2.791	0.322	0.61
Basic Openness	12	2.108	0.417	0.809
Self-Certitude	13	2.122	0.359	0.761
Basic Determinism	16	2.887	0.355	0.755
Socioemotional Convergence	36	1.909	0.286	0.877
Physical Resonance	7	2.2	0.429	0.719
Emotional Attunement	13	2.175	0.421	0.814
Self-Awareness	12	1.855	0.358	0.810
Meaning Quest	19	1.873	0.317	0.831
Religious Traditionalism	5	2.705	0.782	0.903
Gender Traditionalism	11	2.275	0.472	0.828
Sociocultural Openness	26	2.058	0.287	0.798
Ecological Resonance	6	2.248	0.524	0.760
Global Resonance	6	1.719	0.469	0.828

Note. Adapted from *Making sense of beliefs and values: Theory, research, and practice* (2nd ed.), by C. N. Shealy (Ed.), 2016, p. 125. Copyright 2016 by Springer Publishing Company.

Two validity scales intended to measure the integrity of respondents' answers were also included in the BEVI assessment: a consistency scale and a congruency scale. The consistency scale attempts to measure "the degree which responses are consistent for differently worded items that are assessing similar or identical content" (Shealy, 2016, p. 130), whereas congruency measures "the degree to which response patterns correspond to what which would be predicted statistically" (p. 130). Generally, assessments with scores below 60% on both scales indicate results should be viewed with extreme caution (K.

Acheson, personal correspondence, April 17, 2021). Therefore, results with scores lower than this threshold have been removed from the data set.

Finally, the BEVI has been proven not to be "face valid" (Shealy, 2004, 2016). To be face valid indicates a tool's goal or intent can be determined by reviewing the survey items, leaving the tool open to conscious or nonconscious manipulation. If a survey is face valid, participants may be tempted to answer survey items in a way that is socially acceptable or favorable, a well-documented social science phenomenon (Shealy, 2016). Several aspects of the BEVI's design, such as items worded in both the affirmative and negative that measure the same belief, including survey items that touch on specific beliefs while seeming unrelated, contribute to the low face validity of the instrument (Shealy, 2016).

Qualitative Data Collection

This section describes the qualitative data portion of the data collection and analysis procedures. As mentioned in the section on study design, this is a mixed-methods study where the qualitative data, collected concurrently with the quantitative data, was intended to add color and context to the quantitative results. Therefore, the qualitative data play a supportive role throughout the analysis of all three research questions. Data collection and recording procedures, as well as data analysis and interpretation, are discussed in the following sections.

Data Collection and Data Recording

Online study abroad students were contacted via email through their university email addresses, after their program's conclusion, regarding participation in an interview about their study abroad experiences. I decided to interview only online students for this study to dive deeply into online students' experience with study abroad and how those experiences explained or added context to the quantitative data results. Email invitations were sent to Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 program participants approximately 30 days after their

program's conclusion through ASU's enterprise instance of Qualtrics (see Appendix C for email text). Email reminders for those who had not responded were sent at 1-week intervals for the next 2 weeks. Participants were asked to indicate their preferences in Qualtrics for times and dates to meet with me. Ultimately, I conducted interviews with seven Spring 2019 participants and 16 Summer 2019 participants. At that point, I felt that the depth and breadth of experiences were sufficiently represented and that the data collected was both appropriate and adequate to address the research questions (Rudestam & Newton, 2015). Interview participants were given a $5 Starbucks gift card for their time and contributions to this study.

Once a time and date were agreed upon, I met with interview participants online through Zoom to conduct and record the interviews. I chose Zoom as the tool to conduct the interviews as I felt it represented a natural setting for online students, or one in which I assumed they would feel comfortable (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) interacting regarding academic issues. The interview protocols began with a consent statement. Participants agreed verbally before the recording functionality was activated. Interviews closed with a concluding statement thanking participants for their time and restating the agreed-upon confidentiality procedures. Transcription was completed through Zoom's voice-to-text functionality, and both the audio and textual transcription were stored in ASU's Zoom cloud storage. I also kept notes on participants' answers in the event of potential recording function failure. In addition to transcription of the interviews and notes, I kept field notes on impressions and observations throughout the interactions with participants to help with future data analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Rudestam & Newton, 2015; see Appendix E for the complete interview protocols).

Data Analysis and Interpretation

After the interviews, I reviewed the experience by listening to the audio recording while reading and correcting the transcription for errors. This review ensured I could fix

Zoom's auto-transcription errors while the experience was still fresh in my mind. The transcribed interview was then loaded into QSR International's NVivo (Version 12 Plus), where I identified each participant with a pseudonym. I read each transcript multiple times to familiarize myself with the data and allow for initial holistic coding. Holistic coding is a preparatory approach a researcher uses to "grasp basic themes or issues in the data by absorbing them as a whole" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 166). A combination of eclectic and structural coding techniques was applied to identify and then synthesize codes into major themes and categories. As a researcher homes in on data elements relevant to a more extensive data set, themes and categories appropriately expand and contract. Structural coding is beneficial for semistructured interview data within mixed-methods studies in which qualitative data are used to explore themes and categorize data related to specific research questions (Saldaña, 2016). This type of analysis required me to code each participant's responses, collapse the codes into broader categories, and explore how they related to the three research questions. The goal was not to generalize the findings but to gain a deeper understanding and appreciation for the individual participant's experiences and interrelationship with the characteristics, which might further understanding of the research questions (Rudestam & Newton, 2015).

Ethics

Because the research was conducted at ASU by a doctoral student at Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore, both institutions' ethical considerations were respected. I applied for and received ASU Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval for this study in January 2019 (STUDY00009351; see Appendix K). Continuing review applications were also approved through ASU's IRB in December 2019 and December 2020. In March 2019, I also received approval from the Ethics Committee at Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore (Prot 9080/19; see Appendix L).

The academic and demographic data for RQ1 were requested through ASU's Office Institutional Analysis (IA) and transmitted via a password-protected file. The data collection for RQ2 was conducted using ASU's enterprise implementation of Qualtrics, an online survey tool designed to build, distribute, and collect student responses as well as record consent. The raw BEVI data associated with RQ3 were collected through the BEVI website and transmitted via an emailed, password-protected file. The quantitative analyses for all three research questions were conducted using IBM SPSS 26 (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences).

For the qualitative data collection, I used ASU's enterprise implementation of Zoom to conduct and record audio files of the individual interviews and transcribe the data. Participants were read a consent statement, including a request to permit audio recording, to which they verbally responded before the record function was activated. Both audio recordings and transcriptions were stored in a cloud instance on Zoom, maintained by ASU's University Technology Office (UTO), and protected by a two-factor authentication password system. Qualitative data were analyzed using QSR International's NVivo (Version 12 Plus).

All data were stored on a password-protected computer and backed up on a personal drive on an ASU server maintained by UTO. Unique study IDs were assigned by ASU's IA for all students to maintain student anonymity. For students who provided consent, the same study IDs connect RQ1 academic and demographic variables to survey data from RQ2 and RQ3 while maintaining student anonymity. Per ASU IRB protocols, all data will be destroyed after 4 years.

Positionality

As a researcher, I approached this research with a pragmatic worldview, focusing on using what works to approach a problem. Therefore, I used multiple approaches to understand all the research program angles and consider and develop solutions (Creswell &

Creswell, 2018). As is typical with pragmatics, I chose to pursue a mixed-methods research design, allowing me to draw on quantitative and qualitative assumptions and apply different techniques to address each of the individual research questions. At the same time, I also hold a transformative worldview, recognizing my motivations behind the research connect with a social justice agenda of supporting the underserved and often unrecognized online students who are balancing so many of their own personal agendas and priorities while pursuing their academic degrees. Researchers with a transformative worldview approach their research as an "action agenda for reform that may change the participants' lives, the institutions in which individuals work or live, and the researcher's life" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 9). In my attempt to develop resources and global education programming to support online student communities' growth and development, I am actively attempting to impact online students' lives positively.

It is also vital that I reflect upon my past experiences and how they may impact my research. I was an online student, completing my master's degree online in 2009 when online education was even less accepted in the United States than in the 2020s. In addition, through participating in what could be considered a distance or hybrid education program at the Centre for Higher Education Internationalisation (CHEI) at Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore as a working professional and parent, I resemble the study participant in many ways. Finally, I was also conducting "backyard research" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) at my home institution, which could lead to ethical issues surrounding protecting the data's integrity and participants' privacy. I followed Ethics Committee and Human Subjects Review Board requirements at both ASU and Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore to mitigate this. I always ensured I followed university protocols for requesting data and access to participants as a researcher, distinctly apart from my role as staff. When interacting with potential study participants, I made sure to identify myself as a PhD student, and never with my staff title, to

assure participants their participation in the study had no influence on their academics or status at ASU.

Conclusion

This mixed-methods study was intended (a) to document the academic and demographic characteristics of online students and in-person immersion students participating in short-term, faculty-led study abroad; (b) to understand the motivations and expectations of online students regarding study abroad; and (c) to explore how the study abroad experience changes students' beliefs, attitudes, and values. A convergent design approach was employed, where quantitative and qualitative data were collected and analyzed concurrently. Quantitative data sources included institutional data, survey data, and data from the BEVI standardized assessment. Qualitative data were collected through individual interviews. The next chapters examine the results and offer information relevant to understanding the research questions.

CHAPTER 4 – RESULTS AND ANALYSIS: RESEARCH QUESTION 1

Academic and Demographic Profiles of Study Abroad Students

The first three chapters covered the background, problem, research questions, and research methodology. This chapter details the results and analysis for Research Question 1 (RQ1), which asked how online study abroad students compare with in-person immersion study abroad students across several demographic and academic characteristics.

How society organizes and behaves toward groups directly impacts individuals' opportunities and experiences (Stewart, 2009). Students have diverse cultural realities and group memberships that often restrict rather than empower them when approaching a new learning experience (Killick & Foster, 2021). For online students, these feelings of restriction often show up as the perception that global learning experiences, such as study abroad, are simply not for "students like them." The narrative of being "other," or separate from the in-person immersion student, presented a perceived barrier to participation in study abroad for many online students interviewed in this study. Rebecca thought study abroad was not for online students, saying:

> I was under the impression that I wouldn't be eligible for any sort of these very typical on-campus college life kind of programs. I didn't think that I would qualify for study abroad. And then I found this particular program with the timeframe and the cost and everything, and it seemed to fall into place.

Rebecca's quote ties together group membership and identity as an online student with some of the social and financial considerations with which online students must contend when navigating study abroad. Social and financial considerations are key factors contributing to the historical social selectivity of study abroad, as explored in Chapter 2 – Literature Review. Additionally, due to a variety of internal and external barriers, the traditional study abroad population is often a less diverse subset of the traditional higher education population (Di

Pietro, 2020; Netz et al., 2020; Netz & Finger, 2016). As the online student population is less diverse than the in-person population, I wanted to understand how historical social selectivity in study abroad for in-person students extends to the online study abroad population. Secondly, a more thorough understanding of the challenges the online study abroad population faces can lead to the systemic design of more accessible study abroad programs.

Descriptive statistics displayed in Table 11 provide insight into the differences between in-person study abroad and online study abroad cohorts. It also includes data on the online population that did not study abroad and the sample of online study abroad students interviewed. I also used *t* tests and binary logistic regressions to investigate how various variables contributing to historical inequality and social selectivity in study abroad contribute to membership in either the online study abroad cohort or the in-person immersion study abroad cohort. Qualitative results are woven into the analysis of the quantitative results to provide a thoroughly integrated analysis.

Demographic Variables

Previous studies on horizonal inequality in education and social selectivity in study abroad have focused on several demographic variables such as age, gender, and socioeconomic status. As such, I focused this exploratory analysis on the demographic institutional variables of age, years since high school graduation, Pell Grant eligibility, first-generation student status, and ethnicity. Qualitative data on these variables provide context and color to the student experience.

Table 11

Research Question 1 Student Academic and Demographic Characteristics

	In-Person Immersion (Study Abroad) *n* = 1,133	Online (Study Abroad) *n* = 221	Online Control Group (No Study Abroad) *n* = 38,295	Interviewed Students Online (Study Abroad) *n* = 23
n (Spring 2019)	23.7%	45.2%		30.40%
n (Summer 2019)	76.3% *	54.8%		69.60%
Study Abroad Program Type				
Faculty-Directed Summer Program	76.6%	58.4%		69.60%
Global Intensive Experience	23.4% *	41.6%		30.40%
Gender				
Female	66.00%	69.7% Ł	61.5%	78.30%
Male	34.00%	30.30%	38.5%	21.70%
Age				
Mean	21 *	30	30	31
Minimum	17	19	15	20
Maximum	61	61	80	55
Standard Deviation	4.916	8.293	8.693	9.207
Ethnicity				
American Indian/Alaska Native	1.3%	2.3%	1.0%	0.00%
Asian	7.5%	4.5%	4.2%	8.70%
Black/African American	4.0%	2.3%	7.2%	8.70%
Hispanic/Latino	22.6%	17.2%	18.7%	21.70%
International	2.2%	0.0%	1.0%	0.00%
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	0.4%	0.0%	0.5%	0.00%
Two or More Races	5.3%	5.4%	4.2%	4.30%
Unspecified	0.3%	0.9%	1.1%	0.00%
White	56.5%*	67.4%	62.2%	56.50%
Federal Pell Grant Recipient				
Yes	28.9%	32.1%	31.0%	60.90%
No	71.10%	67.90%	68.1%	39.10%
First-Generation Student Status				
First-Generation	19.9%*	31.20%	31.5%	52.20%
Not First-Generation	56.90%	51.60%	45.0%	39.10%
Unknown	23.10%	17.20%	23.5%	8.70%
Arizona Resident Status				
Resident	69.1%*	17.60%	19.5%	17.40%
Nonresident	30.9%	82.40%	80.5%	82.60%
Academic Career				
Undergraduate Student	93.7%*	75.10%	74.9%	17.40%
Graduate Student	6.3%*	24.90%	25.1%	82.60%
Class Standing				
Freshmen	1.00%	1.4% Ł	7.1%	0.00%
Sophomore	14.1%*	8.10%	12.0%	4.30%
Junior	31.4%*	19% Ł	24.5%	30.40%
Senior	45.50%	45.20%	27.1%	47.80%
Postbaccalaureate Undergrad	0.50%	0.90%	3.9%	0.00%
Non-Degree Undergraduate	1.10%	0.50%	0.4%	0.00%
Graduate	6.30%	24.90%	25.0%	17.40%
Starbucks College Achievement Plan Participant				
Yes	NA	33.5% Ł	19.50%	26.10%
No	NA	66.50%	80.50%	73.90%

Full-Time Enrollment Status	Spr '19 *n* = 268	Sum '19 *n* = 865	Spr '19 *n* = 100	Sum '19 *n* = 121	Spr '19 *n* = 38,295	Spr '19 *n* = 7	Sum '19 *n* = 16
Full Time	97%*	18.5%*	27% Ł	33.10%	35.16%	57.10%	50.00%
Part Time	3%	81.50%	73%	66.90%	64.84%	42.90%	50.00%
First-Term Enrollment Status							
First-Year	74.1%*		9.50%		11.7%	8.70%	
Transfer	18.10%		64.70%		62.6%	73.90%	
Unknown	7.90%		25.80%		25.7%	0.00%	
College/School							
Arts and Sciences	44.2%*		53.8% Ł		42.00%	73.90%	
Business	15.09%		16.7% Ł		7.60%	13.00%	
Design and the Arts	8.7%*		0.90%		1.10%	0.00%	
Education	3.20%		0.5% Ł		9.10%	0.00%	
Engineering	10.69%*		2.7% Ł		16.40%	0.00%	
Graduate College	0.10%		0.90%		0.60%	0.00%	
Journalism	3.10%		4.10%		2.30%	4.30%	
Law	0.00%		0.90%		0.80%	0.00%	
Nursing and Health Science	7.70%		4.5% Ł		10.50%	0.00%	
Public Service	2.7%*		9.00%		8.90%	8.70%	
Sustainability	4.3%*		5.9% Ł		0.70%	0.00%	
STEM Major							
Yes	31.5%*		12.2% Ł		22.8%	8.7%	
No	68.5%		87.8%		77.2%	91.3%	
ASU Earned Credit Hours							
Mean	58.06*		35.62 Ł		21.14	23	
Minimum	0		0		0	9	
Maximum	180		145		201	95	
Standard Deviation	30.829		23.826		22.08	23.41	
ASU Cumulative GPA							
Mean	3.51		3.4297 Ł		3.27	3.50	
Minimum	1.87		1.85		0.00	2.56	
Maximum	4.00		4.00		4.00	4.00	
Standard Deviation	0.44		0.53		0.75	0.50	
Transfer Credits Earned							
Mean	16.8*		37.54		40.50	37.02	
Minimum	0		0		0	0	
Maximum	153		148		350	78	
Standard Deviation	23.213		32.23		38.02	27.32	
Transfer GPA							
Mean	3.5*		2.80		2.89	2.91	
Minimum	1.06		0.75		0.17	1.92	
Maximum	4.00		4.00		4.00	3.94	
Standard Deviation	0.57		0.63		0.60	0.59	
Years Since High School Graduation (as of 2019)							
Mean	3.21*		10.91		11.62	12.37	
Minimum	1		2		0	3	
Maximum	45		42		65	37	
Standard Deviation	3.731		7.56		8.03	9.31	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing in-person study abroad student and online study abroad student groups.

Ł Indicates significant differences between values when comparing online study abroad students and overall online student population. Blank values indicate the variable was not applicable or not collected for that cohort.

Statistically significant differences were measured by *t* tests for categorical variables and ANOVA for continuous variables.

Although few studies have examined the role of age in study abroad participation, mainly as there is a narrow age range associated with the traditional study abroad population (Netz et al., 2020), age was found to be both statistically and materially important in this study in comparing the two study abroad cohorts. The mean average age for the in-person immersion cohort (21 years), with a minimum age of 17, reflects an expected age distribution of a student population of a traditional 4-year institution. The maximum age of 61, although an outlier, was slightly unexpected but speaks to the diversity of ASU's population. The online study abroad cohort was significantly older ($p < .001$) than the in-person study abroad cohort, with a mean average age of 30 and a range of 42, demonstrating a much broader distribution in the age of individual participants. Some previous research has found a positive relationship between age and study abroad participation, citing less financial dependence on parents and higher personal income (Di Pietro & Page, 2008; Netz et al., 2020). On the other hand, more advanced age is also connected to increased family and professional responsibilities, leading additional previous research to identify a negative relationship between age and study abroad participation (Netz et al., 2020). When comparing the online study abroad population to the online population that did not study abroad, there was no significant difference ($p = .889$) and a similar standard deviation (8.693 years). In this study, even though the online study abroad population was significantly older than the in-person study abroad population, age was not found to have a significant impact on study abroad participation among the online population.

The age data were supported and strengthened by data on the number of years between study abroad participation and high school graduation. There was no significant difference found when comparing the mean average years elapsed between high school graduation and study abroad (2019) across the online study abroad cohort and the overall online population. Taken together with age, this variable highlights the lack of difference

between the overall online population and the online study abroad cohort regarding chronological age. There was, however, a significant difference ($p < .001$) between the mean average number of years between high school graduation for the online study abroad cohort (10.97) and the in-person study abroad cohort (3.21). Although I can only surmise the activities in which the online study abroad cohort participated during those almost 11 years since high school graduation, some illumination can be found in both transfer credits earned by online study abroad students (mean average 37.54 credits with a mean average GPA of 2.8) and in the lived experiences revealed in the qualitative results of the in-person interviews. Although some students may have continued to earn credit from multiple institutions during this time, other students may have "stopped out" or taken time away from school before returning to finish their degree. Increased length of time and number of stop outs were correlated with decreasing likelihood of degree completion (Renn & Reason, 2021) for higher education students. Although this study did not include longitudinal data and graduation rates after study abroad, future research could examine the value of study abroad as an intervention leading to successful graduation for students who have previously stopped out and are at high risk of dropping out altogether. Whatever the reason for the difference in the number of years passed between high school graduation and study abroad, life differences between the two study abroad cohorts are significant, both at a statistical and very real level.

Differences between the study abroad groups, as represented by age and years since high school, can contribute to anxiety among online students considering study abroad, supporting previous research on a negative relationship between age and participation (Netz et al., 2020). Interview participants were worried about being noticeably older, not having the same values or goals for the experience, or feeling they had to "mother the group." Samantha was worried about how well she would fit in and whether the group would "be wanting to party the whole time." Miranda confronted the fear that her age would prevent other students

from relating to her and make her less able to experience cultural growth because of the experience. She said:

> As you get older, I think there's always a fear that you're just going to be completely out of touch with things. You're going to close off your ability to accept change. And it was pretty cool, but also very challenging, to confront that in this way.

Gender is also a key demographic consideration in social selectivity within higher education and study abroad. The overrepresentation of women in study abroad has been documented (Netz et al., 2020). Like previous studies, overrepresentation of women was found in the online study abroad population compared to the overall online population. A significantly higher percentage of female students participated in study abroad than existed in the overall online population (69.7% compared to 61.5%, $p < .001$) for the same time frame. When comparing female participation rates between in-person (66.0%) and online study abroad (69.7%) populations in this study, no significant difference was found. These findings support findings that women have higher study abroad intentions and participation rates (Cordua & Netz, 2021; Hurst, 2019). Gender identification was accurate as of Spring 2019 or Summer 2019, is part of official institutional data, and was treated as binary for this quantitative study.

Previous studies have tried to explain the overrepresentation of women in study abroad, tying participation to higher socioeconomic profiles and enrollment in academic disciplines connected more directly to the benefits of study abroad, such as those in the humanities or social sciences (Cordua & Netz, 2021; Hurst, 2019; Kim & Lawrence, 2021; Salisbury et al., 2010). To test whether gender, socioeconomic status, and academic discipline interacted to predict membership in either the online study abroad group or the in-person study abroad cohort, I performed a binomial logistic regression using gender, first–generation student status, and an institutional flag indicating whether a major was considered

a STEM major. The logistic regression model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(4) = 51.22$, $p < .001$. The model explained 6.3% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in study abroad cohort membership. Of the three predictor variables, first-generation student status and the STEM flag were statistically significant (see Table 12). In this model, online study abroad students had 3.29 times higher odds of being STEM majors compared to in-person immersion study abroad students and .552 times lower odds of being first-generation students. Results related to the STEM flag are interesting in light of previous studies, which have found higher female study abroad participation is correlated with women choosing fields of study related to studying abroad (i.e., not STEM majors; Cordua & Netz, 2021; Hurst, 2019). Although there were significantly more STEM majors in the in-person study abroad cohort (3.15% vs. 12.2%, $p > .001$), when controlling for gender and first-generation student status, STEM students who studied abroad were more likely to be online students. At least when comparing the online and in-person study abroad students in this study, results were contrary to previous studies that found women were more likely to study abroad, even when controlling for confounding variables such as academic discipline (Van Mol, 2021). Additionally, these results partially support previous studies that explained the gender gap in study abroad as a class and gender gap, finding women of elite social classes are more likely to study abroad (Hurst, 2019). Although there were significantly more first-generation students in the online study abroad cohort (31.2% vs. 19.9%, $p = .002$), when controlling for gender and STEM major, students who studied abroad were less likely to also be online students. In this comparison, first-generation student status as a marker of class status was an important contributing factor.

Table 12

Summary of Regression Analysis Predicting Study Abroad Group Membership (In-Person Immersion vs. Online)

	b	SE b	β	R^2
Constant	-2.149	.255		
Gender	.022	.163	1.022	
STEM Flag*	1.19	.217	3.29	.063
First-Generation Status*	-.595	.166	.552	

Note. n = 1,354, * p < .001.

The impact of women's societal gender roles (e.g., expecting discontinuous working life due to family responsibilities) on study abroad intent found in previous studies (Cordua & Netz, 2021) relates to qualitative data associated with gender that I gathered from interviews. Although no quantitative data associated with the presence or number of dependents existed in this data set, themes associated with the traditional gendered role of motherhood and family responsibilities did appear in the qualitative data. In many cases, sounds of family life and children were evident in the background noise of the interviews, underscoring interviewees' dual roles as students and parents. During the interview, Madison commented she was worried about the specific costs associated with finding suitable childcare for when she was gone. Beth also told me she could not take a month or a semester away from her family to study abroad, citing program length as a specific concern. Kelly was hesitant about leaving her child to study abroad, with parenthood presenting both emotional and logistical barriers to participation. She said:

> I'm not like other students, you know. I'm 32. I'm a single mother of a 10-year-old right now. So, I think I may have had a different experience than, let's say, a 21- or 22-year-old. I think in that aspect, I'm a little bit different than some study abroad students.

Kelly underscored the feeling online students who are also parents have regarding differences that must be overcome on top of logistical concerns. She also connected with the impact previously discussed of the impact of age on study abroad participation for online students,

citing increased responsibilities that may prohibit study abroad participation. These qualitative data support past quantitative studies identifying a negative relationship between age and study abroad participation due to increased family responsibilities (Netz et al., 2020). In some cases, age differences between online and in-person study abroad students were beneficial when associated with family responsibilities. Corrinne, at the other end of her journey as a parent compared to Kelly, said, "My kids were thrilled. They were like, 'Finally Mom. We've been waiting for you to do this.' You know, they're great. They were super excited." Unfortunately, no quantitative data on dependents were available in ASU institutional data sets and therefore could not be connected to gender to provide additional analysis. To be truly meaningful, data on dependents should go beyond the number to include the age of the dependents to represent their financial and social reliance on their parents. However, overall, qualitative data demonstrated family responsibilities represented an important consideration for online students when considering how to make study abroad fit into their lives.

Cost also has been shown to be a significant barrier to study abroad participation (Jones et al., 2016; Netz & Finger, 2016; J. Simon & Ainsworth, 2012; F. Wang, 2020; Whatley, 2017). In this study, I used federal Pell Grant eligibility as a proxy for ability to pay. Three hundred and twenty-eight students (28.9%) of the in-person immersion study abroad cohort were Pell Grant recipients compared to 71 (32.1%) of the online study abroad cohort. Of the overall online student population enrolled in Spring 2019, 12,200 (31.9%) were Pell Grant recipients. None of the differences between Pell Grant awardees at the group level were found to be significant, which is significant in of itself. Similar numbers of students with the highest financial need in both groups studied abroad, supporting Whatley's (2017) research identifying a positive association between grant eligibility and study abroad participation. In this study, online students with the greatest financial need were not being

disadvantaged unequally in terms of access to study abroad. What this quantitative data did not address was the potential horizontal inequality for students with medium levels of financial need, sometimes called the murky middle. These students often must turn to funding sources that require repayment, such as loans, or to more exclusive merit-based funding to finance their experience (Netz & Finger, 2016; J. Simon & Ainsworth, 2012). This supports Whatley's identified need for additional research on the relationship between students' expected family contribution and study abroad participation.

Concerns about financing study abroad are at the forefront of online students' minds, as evidenced in the student interviews. Savannah cited program cost as a "huge barrier to entry," saying she "almost couldn't participate" in study abroad, even though she could take advantage of scholarship opportunities. Meghann may be an example of the murky middle regarding finances; she used a combination of student loans and scholarships to help her afford her program. Garrett used his GI Bill benefits to pay for his study abroad experience, and Lucia used her federal financial aid to pay for her program. Even though there are multiple ways of paying for study abroad, Madison talked about the perception that study abroad is out of reach for online students, saying, "You have that awesome cost calculator but . . . nobody is going to even click on it." Zachery also felt study abroad was out of reach and almost did not pursue study abroad based on a perception that it would be too expensive.

Costs associated with lost wages and taking time away from work also were identified as barriers to study abroad participation (Stroud, 2010; Vernon et al., 2017). Although quantitative data on employment were not available in ASU's institutional data set, student interviews surfaced several themes related to employment and professional responsibilities as barriers to participation in study abroad for online students. Samantha cited fear of not being able to obtain time off from her professional responsibilities to study abroad. Rebecca talked about the compressed length of short-term study abroad being important in terms of helping

study abroad be accessible to her. Again, here the relationship between costs, professional, and family responsibilities surfaced. She shared, “Having a job and a family at home means that I can’t take an entire semester abroad.” Meghann worked with her employer, giving them almost a year’s notice before her study abroad program, thus allowing her to accrue as much paid leave as possible to make her study abroad experience happen. Meghann’s experience underscores the additional level of planning online students who are working professionals need to engage in prior to study abroad. Although most online students worked with their employers to make study abroad a reality, professional responsibilities for online students who were often further along in their careers represented an added layer of planning and logistics that needed to be addressed prior to study abroad.

Through the student interviews, I identified an unexpected theme related to professional responsibilities: the value of direct employer support for study abroad. Over 26% of students interviewed were participating in the Starbucks College Achievement Program (SCAP). Initiated in 2014, SCAP is a partnership between Starbucks and Arizona State University that creates an opportunity for eligible Starbucks employees to earn their bachelor’s degree online at ASU while Starbucks covers the tuition (Starbucks, 2015). Shortly after the program’s inception, the ASU Study Abroad Office worked with Starbucks to ensure tuition for study abroad programs was covered in the program, thus opening the opportunity for study abroad to more online students. The SCAP students interviewed reiterated how important employer support was, both in terms of completing their undergraduate degree and studying abroad while working. Mikayla indicated, “[If Starbucks had] not allowed me to take time off to be able to go, and still receive a little bit of pay, it probably wouldn’t have been possible [to study abroad].” May had a deep passion for coffee and the coffee industry and talked a lot about being very interested in the topic of the specific Starbucks faculty-led study abroad program in Costa Rica as one of the main reasons she

studied abroad. Kelly heard about the opportunity to study abroad from another SCAP scholar at her store, underlying the power of the connection between student peer relationships, both at work and in school. Amber talked about her manager, saying she "is very understanding with school and values it 100%." All these students seemed to understand the unique relationship between ASU and Starbucks and how they benefitted from it in a variety of ways.

The qualitative data associated with SCAP led me to request data on the number of SCAP students represented in the online study abroad cohort. Over 33.5% of the online study abroad cohort were SCAP students. This was significantly more ($p < .001$) compared to SCAP participants in the overall online population enrolled in Spring 2019 (19.5%). There are a few things to consider when evaluating these results. Starbucks and ASU not only provide tuition assistance for study abroad but have developed specific study abroad programs focused on sustainable agriculture and supply chain issues related to coffee that are developed and run in partnership between ASU and Starbucks. Although these programs are open to all ASU students, most students in the program are SCAP participants. These specific programs may contribute to skewing the results of overall SCAP participation in study abroad. Secondly, there is no way to consider quantitatively how employer support for study abroad affects participation of online students, other than those working for Starbucks. However, these data suggest a direct relationship between career applicability and how study abroad creates value for students, similar to the relationship suggested by previous studies on study abroad intent (Lörz et al., 2016; Netz & Finger, 2016) and adult learning theories (Halx, 2010). These data also suggest the need for additional research on the impact of direct employer support on study abroad participation. Although a great deal of research has been done on the relationship between study abroad and employability for recent graduates (Wiers-

Jenssen et al., 2020), I could not identify research on employer support of their own employees temporarily leaving the workplace to pursue study abroad.

As identified in the literature review, there is a strong association between parental academic achievement and study abroad intent and participation (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Lingo, 2019; Pascarella et al., 2004; Rausch, 2017; Van Mol, 2021). According to studies conducted by NASPA – Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education, approximately 24% of U.S. undergraduate students had parents with no postsecondary education, and 56% had parents without bachelor's degrees (Renn & Reason, 2021). First-generation student status was correlated with financial need, and first-generation students were more likely to come from families with an annual income of less than $41,000 (Renn & Reason, 2021). Significantly more online study abroad students identified as first generation (31.2%, p = 0.002) compared to in-person study abroad students (19.9%). However, when comparing Pell Grant eligibility of first-generation study abroad students, the 226 in-person immersion first-generation students (M = .70, SD = .460) compared to the 69 online first-generation students (M = .46, SD = .502) demonstrated significantly higher rates of Pell Grant eligibility, $t(105.134) = 3.473$, $p < .001$. In this sample, although there were significantly higher numbers of first-generation students in the online study abroad cohort, they were less likely than the in-person immersion first-generation students to also have the highest financial need.

Considering ASU's emphasis on recruiting first-generation students and the ASU Study Abroad Office's mission to mimic the overall student body demographics in the study abroad student demographics, finding such a low percentage of first-generation students in the in-person immersion study abroad cohort is somewhat surprising. Substantial effort goes into supporting first-generation students in terms of student success at ASU (2021). Because the first-generation student population historically has been concentrated in the in-person immersion student body, these resources are also concentrated there. Support takes the form

of peer mentors, nudge communication, academic success support, and other student success programming. There is a partnership between the First-Year Success Center and the Study Abroad Office to promote study abroad and multiple, specific first-generation student study abroad scholarships.

To investigate the differences in the first-generation study abroad groups further, I examined how they compared across age and ethnicity. In comparing first-generation study abroad students, the 226 in-person students (M = 22.31, SD = 5.096) compared to the 69 online students (M = 31.28, SD = 8.025) demonstrated significantly lower ages, $t(85.377) = -8.761$, $p < .001$. Additionally, comparing ethnicities between first-generation study abroad students, the 226 in-person students (M = .3274, SD = .47032) compared to the 69 online students (M = .6522, SD = .47977) were significantly less likely to report their ethnicity as White, $t(293) = -4.997$, $p < .001$. Combined with a lower mean average age and a greater chance of coming from a minority family background, these support systems may be holding in-person, first-generation students back from studying abroad. Perhaps it is this high level of support students fear leaving combined with going to yet another scary and unfamiliar academic and social environment. For many of ASU's first-generation students, coming to the metropolitan Phoenix area is likely already a large cultural change. Families who may have struggled to come to the United States and get their children to college may be reluctant to let them go overseas, as identified in past research on multicultural students studying abroad (Murray Brux & Fry, 2010).

The second surprising element was that participation of online first-generation students in study abroad was similar to the distribution of first-generation students in the overall online population. First-generation students in the online population were either not facing similar struggles as first-generation students in the in-person population or had found specific ways to overcome them. For example, online study abroad students had a higher

mean average age than in-person study abroad students. Although they also may have been first-generation students, they may have had more control over their lives at this older age and may have lived outside their childhood homes for more extended periods. Many may have broken down barriers in their families already to pursue online education. Marketing efforts of the ASU Study Abroad Office also do not often speak specifically to online first-generation students, promoting study abroad to the two groups distinctly. As study abroad intent has been shown to correlate highly with increased exposure (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021), perhaps they should. These results clearly support the need for further research to understand differences more clearly in participation in study abroad between first-generation, in-person immersion students and first-generation online students. This additional research could lead to programmatic and structural changes to support participation in study abroad by this important student population.

Ethnicity is another important group membership that has a significant impact on study abroad participation (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021; Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Salisbury et al., 2009; J. Simon & Ainsworth, 2012). Participants in this study were classified into nine different ethnic categories; data reflected in this study were self-reported, gathered at the time of application to the institution, and part of official institutional data. In comparing the mix of ethnicities across study abroad cohorts, more White students were found in the online study abroad group (67.4% compared to 56.5%), a difference found to be significant ($p = .007$). Correspondingly, the cumulative percentage of students in non-White ethnic groups was 38% for the online cohort and 43.6% for the in-person immersion cohort. These differences in ethnicity are interesting for two reasons. First, non-White students typically report lower levels of exposure to study abroad content through marketing materials and conversations with faculty and staff, negatively affecting study abroad intent (Goldstein & Lopez, 2021). The ASU Study Abroad Office (SAO) has a strategic goal to align the study

abroad population closely with the overall ASU student population in terms of demographics, ethnicity being one of those variables. The percentage of non-White participants among the in-person study abroad students may suggest the SAO is making progress in speaking effectively to ASU's diverse student population, with consistent levels of exposure across ethnic groups. However, it is also a reminder that there is still work to be done to address the concerns of minority students, such as fears related to confronting racism abroad (Quan, 2018; J. Simon & Ainsworth, 2012), when designing accessible and equity study abroad experiences. Second, finding the participation rate of White students in the online study abroad cohort to be significantly higher than the in-person study abroad cohort supports arguments presented in the literature review that online classrooms are often less ethnically diverse than physical campuses (Angelino et al., 2007; Gunawardena, 2014; Ke & Kwak, 2013; Khan et al., 2017). This difference in diversity was also found in the percentage of non-White ethnic groups in the overall online population (37.9%) during the same term.

To further understand how the demographic variables identified in the literature review interact to predict membership in either the online study abroad group or the in-person study abroad group, I ran a binary logistic regression test for age, gender, Pell Grant eligibility, first-generation student status, and ethnicity. The logistic regression model was statistically significant, $\chi^2(5) = 273.536$, $p < .001$. The model explained 31% (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in study abroad group membership and correctly classified 84.9% of cases. Sensitivity was 26.7%, specificity was 84.6%, positive predictive value was 57.8% and negative predictive value was 87.0%. Of the five predictor variables, only three were statistically significant: age, gender, and ethnicity (see Table 13). Increasing age was associated with online study abroad group membership. Women had 0.677 times lower odds of being online study abroad students compared to in-person study abroad students. Students identifying as White had 0.575 times lower odds of being online study abroad students

compared to in-person study abroad students. Unfortunately, there was not enough variation in the sample to yield viable results in predicting study abroad participation among online students using any regression models.

Table 13

Summary of Logistic Regression Analysis Predicting Study Abroad Group Membership (In-Person Immersion vs. Online)

	b	SE b	β	R^2
Constant	-.2.164	.394		
Age ***	.175	.184	1.192	
Gender *	-.390	.190	.677	.310
Ethnicity **	-.553	.184	.575	
Pell Eligibility	-.247	.196	.781	
First-Generation Student Status	-.309	.207	.735	

Note. n = 1,354, * $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

Academic Variables

As study abroad is increasingly being linked to traditional measures of student success in higher education such as retention, reduced time to degree, and overall graduation rates (Di Maggio, 2016; Hamir, 2011; Haupt & Castiello-Gutierrez, 2020), it is necessary to consider several academic characteristics of the two study abroad groups. From a practical perspective, study abroad should not present a barrier to retention and progress toward degree. Many studies demonstrate returned study abroad students are more likely to graduate compared to non-study-abroad participants, often with higher GPAs and in less time (Haupt & Castiello-Gutierrez, 2020; McKeown, 2009). Therefore, understanding how online students fit study abroad into their academic career is important. In this study, online students were significantly ($p < 0.05$) less likely to have enrolled at ASU as first-year students compared to in-person study abroad students (9.5% vs. 74.1%) and to have earned significantly more transfer credit hours (37.54 vs. 16.8) with a lower transfer GPA (2.8 vs. 3.5). By the time online students participated in a study abroad program, they had earned a mean average of an additional 35.62 credits at ASU. Although this was significantly fewer than the in-person immersion student's earned ASU credit hours at the time of study abroad (58.06, $p < .001$),

the total completed credit hours for online students were greater than that of the in-person immersion students, meaning online students need access to study abroad programs applicable to a broad range of degree requirements to fit study abroad into their academic pathway rather than programs offering the direct equivalent to major- or discipline-specific courses. Compared to in-person immersion students who start as first-year students, online students do not have the flexibility to plan ahead to develop a "mobility window," or a dedicated space designed for study abroad in a student's plan of study, which Leask and Green (2020) stated is important to avoid prolonging time to degree. Another important aspect of online students' academic preparedness at the time of study abroad is GPA, and there was no significant difference between online and in-person study abroad students' ASU GPA (3.43 for online students, 3.51 for in-person students). This study's sample therefore challenges the cultural myth that online students are not high-quality students compared to students who pursue traditional in-person education. As this study does not include quantitative academic longitudinal data, it cannot measure the impact of study abroad of time to degree. Descriptive statistics highlighting the differences in academic variables are reported in Table 11.

Academic development outside these traditional quantitative measures also has been recognized increasingly as an output of study abroad (McKeown et al., 2020). Student interview data from this study speak to the development of an academic identity for online students. Some online students shared they did not even feel like "real" students before their study abroad experience. When comparing herself to other students in the study abroad program, Miranda said, "I also had a completely different perspective and set of values on life as a college student, but not really a college student, if that makes sense." Miranda went on to refer to herself as "someone who is finishing their degree in this really nontraditional way." Savanna mentioned she was worried about how she, as an online student, would be

perceived academically by other students in the program because she had not spent time in a physical classroom in many years. Before study abroad, Alisha felt she was "not really a student" but was "just working on a degree." Connection with others like themselves and across differences in a unique academic environment allowed some online students to develop a new academic identity. Thus, the experiences of online students interviewed support previous research tying study abroad to greater academic focus (Hadis, 2005) and academic confidence (P. H. Anderson et al., 2016; Cardwell, 2020). Without an academic identity and without perceiving themselves first as students, it can be difficult for online students to see themselves as study abroad students.

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated that much of the social selectivity historically found in study abroad can also be identified in online student participation in study abroad. Online students' interpretation of society's stereotypical views on the characteristics of online learners has a powerful impact on their ability to see themselves as students, equal to all the benefits of what higher education has to offer. As the first study of its kind to consider online students as a distinct participant group, this study contributes further to the consideration of social selectivity and horizontal inequalities in higher education through a unique lens.

This mixed-methods research identified considerable differences in the lived experiences between online and in-person study abroad students prior to study abroad, as demonstrated across multiple demographic and academic variables. Online students are significantly older, have significantly more years between the completion of high school and their study abroad experience, and have more transfer credits, indicating attendance at multiple institutions and possible periods of nonattendance. These are all quantitative markers of the often-circular path online students take in higher education while working toward an undergraduate degree. The qualitative data revealed intersectional identities as partners,

parents, and employees, lending further complexity to their lived experiences. Combined, these variables present both real and perceived barriers to study abroad for online students.

Significantly greater numbers of female online students studied abroad, supporting a large body of research demonstrating that more women study abroad than men. However, there were no statistical differences in the numbers of women between the online and in-person study abroad cohorts. When controlling for gender, compared to in-person immersion study abroad students, online students in this study were less likely to be first-generation students but more likely to be STEM majors. At least for online students in this study, these results do not support past studies indicating study abroad participation among women is tied to higher socioeconomic profiles and academic majors in the arts and humanities.

Study abroad also is criticized often for being an activity of the socioeconomically elite. Online students interviewed cited cost as a barrier to participation in study abroad, referring to the various public and private financial aid and scholarship sources they used to pay for the experience. The quantitative data in this study revealed no significant differences in the number of students in the online and in-person immersion study abroad cohorts identified as the most financially needy. This indicates online students with the highest financial need are not unequally disadvantaged and supports past research finding a positive association between grant eligibility and study abroad participation. This study was unable to examine quantitatively differences between online and in-person students with medium levels of financial need, an important area of future research. Related to the additional social and financial costs associated with study abroad, the qualitative data from interviewed online study abroad students identified the great lengths these students have gone to arrange for time off and coverage of work responsibilities and arranging and paying for childcare. These data support past research identifying costs associated with lost wages and taking time away from work and family as barriers to study abroad participation, which, due to the different life

stages of online students compared to many in-person students, may be materially important to their study abroad participation rates.

Another marker of socioeconomic status and social selectivity that has received attention in the literature related to study abroad participation is parental education. This study considered parental education level through the marker of first-generation student status. Significantly more online study abroad students than in-person immersion study abroad students self-identified as first-generation students, even as similar numbers of first-generation students appeared in the online population that did not study abroad. However, online first-generation study abroad students were less likely than in-person study abroad students to have the highest financial need, conflicting with past research demonstrating first-generation students are more likely to come from families with the lowest financial resources. Among first-generation students who studied abroad, online students were more likely to be White and older than in-person study abroad students, leading me to posit the increased support structures provided to in-person first-generation students on campus, as well as social challenges associated with first-time higher education participation, may be keeping first-generation in-person students on campus.

The online study abroad population was significantly more likely to be White compared with the in-person study abroad population. This speaks to the diversity of ASU's campus environment and supports research indicating online students are less likely to be ethnically diverse.

Unexpectedly, the theme of direct employer support for study abroad was revealed through the qualitative data. Significant numbers of online study abroad students were participants in the Starbucks College Achievement Plan (SCAP), a program that supports online students in earning an undergraduate degree at ASU. These students identified the benefits of social support for their schooling both at the corporate level and between

employee peer groups as well as the value the career applicability of study abroad creates for adult learners. Combined, these data suggest how study abroad directly related to a student's work, and socially and financially supported by the employer, creates a significant level of value for adult students, consistent with adult learning theories.

Finally, this research revealed the significant role study abroad plays in helping online students develop a previously missing sense of academic self. Interactions with other students and faculty were identified through the qualitative data as notably contributing to online students' sense of belonging within the academic experience. Additionally, quantitative analysis of academic markers of success (e.g., GPA) did not reveal substantive differences in the academic quality or preparedness of online study abroad students compared to in-person students. Overall, data related to academics in this study support previous research identifying academic development as a key output of study abroad.

CHAPTER 5 – RESULTS AND ANALYSIS: RESEARCH QUESTION 2

Motivations and Expectations of Study Abroad Students

This chapter discusses quantitative and qualitative data related to Research Question 2 (RQ2), which asks how online students compare to in-person immersion students regarding study abroad motivations and expectations. I chose to consider this question using the theory of planned behavior (TPB) as the theoretical lens. As described in Chapter 2 – Literature Review, TPB explains intention, applied to the relationship between beliefs and attitudes, drives behavior (Ajzen, 1991). This theory has been used to understand students' decision-making processes related to short-term study abroad (Goel et al., 2010; Presley et al., 2010; Schnusenberg et al., 2012; Zhuang et al., 2015). To address RQ2, I extended the TPB framework to the study abroad context in the examination of four constructs: Personal Growth, Career Goals, Family Expectations, and Academic Goals (see Figure 3 and 4). In addition to the survey results and related qualitative data, the final section of this chapter addresses results of a survey question that asked students to rank specific study program features in order of importance.

To assess students' intentions surrounding short-term study abroad within these four constructs, I sent online study abroad students (n = 221) and in-person immersion study abroad students (n = 1,133) participating in Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 ASU short-term, faculty-led study abroad program pre- and post-program online surveys through Qualtrics (see Appendix C for the full text of the survey). I analyzed responses for 177 students who completed the pre-program survey only (Group A), 231 students who completed the post-program survey only (Group B), and 152 students who completed both the pre- and post-program survey (Group C; see Table 14), representing a total response rate of 41%. To understand the differences between how online and in-person students responded to the surveys, I analyzed differences between groups using the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U

test, an appropriate test for small samples of subjects with ordinal data (Nachar, 2008). Differences are reported at the construct level for pre-program surveys (Groups A and C), post-program surveys (Groups B and C), and individual survey item level. Detailed quantitative analysis is available for review in Appendix C. Details on the methodology used in this section are found in Chapter 3 – Methodology.

Table 14

Survey Participants

	Group A Pre-Program Survey Only	Group B Post-Program Survey Only	Group C Both Pre- and Post-Program Survey
Online Students	35	37	32
In-Person Immersion Students	142	194	120
Total Participants	177	231	152

Personal Growth Construct

Under the TBP construct of behavioral beliefs, I considered two sets of beliefs related to the value students placed on study abroad in terms of achieving objectives related to personal growth and career goals (Ajzen, 1991; Schnusenberg et al., 2012). Several studies have identified various personal growth and interpersonal relationships as key benefits influencing study abroad intent (Nyaupane et al., 2011; Stroud, 2010; L. C. Wang et al., 2016). Personal growth qualities have also been identified as outcomes of short-term study abroad programs, including emotional resilience and self-confidence (Mapp, 2012), independence (Ramakrishna et al., 2016), and self-confidence and self-awareness (P. H. Anderson et al., 2016). When comparing the online and in-person study abroad cohorts related to how personal growth impacted study abroad intent prior to study abroad, there was no significant difference in how they responded to the overall construct of ($U = 9{,}269$, $p = 0.534$), meaning the two groups approached the experience with similar levels of expectation placed on the value of personal growth as an outcome; however, I identified differences between how these two cohorts of students responded to the Personal Growth construct in the

post-program survey results ($U = 12{,}537$, $p = 0.033$), with online students responding more positively than the in-person study abroad cohort. Table 15 includes an overview of how in-person and online study abroad students reacted to the Personal Growth construct and each of the survey items. A detailed quantitative analysis of survey item is available in Appendix G.

Table 15

Personal Goals Survey Responses

Personal Growth	Pre-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)	Post-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)
Personal Growth Construct	X	√ (Online ↑)
Study abroad will help/helped me grow as a person	√ (Online ↑)	√ (Online ↑)
Study abroad will help/helped me develop a different worldview	X	X
Study abroad will help/helped me become more adaptable and comfortable with ambiguity	X	√ (Online ↑)
Through study abroad I will gain/gained exposure to different cultures	√ (In-Person ↓)	X
Study abroad is an opportunity for me to escape my daily life and/or try something new	X	X

Note. √ represents significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups. × represents no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups.
↑ represents the directionality of the difference. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Positive reactions to the value of study abroad as a personal growth activity can be heard in the voices of online students interviewed post-program. As an example, Miranda recommended "getting away from a person's daily life and learning new perspectives and cultures should be a required experience for all students." This aligns with previous research stating even short-term study abroad can be an academic and personal strategic escape for students (Iskhakova et al., 2021; Trower & Lehmann, 2017). Therefore, I posit the near-universal alignment with the Personal Growth construct as a valuable outcome of study abroad among online students surveyed could be attributed to the dramatic differences between the immersive, full-time study abroad experience and the often discontinuous, part-time nature of online students' regular academic pursuits. Having dedicated time for personal growth and development may represent a stark departure from lives full of juggling multiple responsibilities (e.g., parent, employee, military spouse) expressed by online students.

For many students, personal growth through study abroad came in the form of developing a different worldview. Both in-person and online students selected agree or strongly agree at very high percentages pre-program in reaction to this survey item. After the program, approximately 3% more online students than in-person students expressed overall agreement with this statement (see Appendix G). Although not statistically significant, this difference could be due to greater cultural distance between the normal online academic experience and the student abroad experience. Recall from the quantitative results of RQ1 that the online study abroad population was significantly less ethnically diverse than the in-person immersion study abroad population and slightly more diverse than the overall ASU online population. Therefore, online students' academic experience at ASU has been in a less diverse classroom environment than the in-person immersion student, consistent with previous research on online learners (Jaggers, 2014; Ortagus, 2017). Through study abroad, online students experienced increased diversity among their fellow ASU classmates and in their new physical and cultural environment. The increased agreement with this survey item is consistent with past research demonstrating greater personal growth among study abroad students coming from a homogenous environment prior to study abroad (Gaia, 2015). At the same time, the exposure to difference came within a supportive environment for online students, supporting past research demonstrating reduced cultural distance is key to providing a supportive learning environment where personal growth can occur safely (Iskhakova et al., 2021). Although self-reported, these results are consistent with past research on personal growth on short-term programs, emphasizing program design over length in producing transformative learning (Nam, 2011).

A desire for a changed worldview due to study abroad came through in interviews with students such as Zachery, who wanted to bring an increased world awareness into his classroom as a teacher of English as a second language. He said:

> [Study abroad] helps you grow your character. I [see] a different face of the world now. Before [study abroad], you may have only seen a certain shade of the world. Now you see a brand-new color that you never even knew existed.

Zachery's experience demonstrates a changed worldview and corroborates past findings that short-term study abroad can serve as a "cultural eye-opener," providing a more realistic picture of one's cultural abilities (Iskhakova et al., 2021).

As reported in research on study abroad outcomes, the changed worldview of returned online study abroad students correlates to interactions with diverse cultures (Goldstein, 2022). Interaction with diverse cultures is an aspect of study abroad for which online and in-person students had high expectations before their program. When asking online study abroad students and in-person immersion study abroad students to react to the statement, "Through study abroad, I will gain exposure to different cultures," as a motivating factor for participating in study abroad, there were statistically significant differences in how the two cohorts responded in the pre-program survey ($U = 9{,}740$, $p = 0.046$). In the pre-program survey, more online study abroad students were likely to strongly agree or agree than in-person immersion students. These results support similar differences in how online and in-person immersion study abroad students responded to the Global Resonance BEVI scale reported in Chapter 6; online students were eager to experience difference. In the post-program survey, there was no significant difference in the distribution of survey results between the two groups, with most of the two cohorts choosing to agree or strongly agree in response to this statement.

Consistent with past research demonstrating returned study abroad students' increased willingness to interact with other cultures (Gaia, 2015), many online students interviewed, such as Alisha, Beth, Nicole, and Garrett, expressed a desire to learn about new cultures. Kelly recognized taking a moment to set yourself apart from the "hustle and bustle of how we

live life" was necessary to recognize there are "other people and other cultures that live life completely different from us." Amber knew she had never experienced linguistic or cultural barriers associated with being in a foreign country before study abroad. She wanted to have the experience so she could grow in her appreciation of others' lived experiences. Corrine felt her study abroad had been better than expected; her perspective had been broadened and changed in ways that exceeded her expectations. She also recognized she had not yet reconciled or worked through all the "nontangible" ways she had changed, and it would take a while to see those changes. Corrine's comment clearly demonstrates she was still in a state of what Shealy (2016) calls disequilibrium, where an individual's worldview has been challenged but their views have not yet resolved into new beliefs. This is consistent with Fong's (2020) results that demonstrated although some changes can occur within short time frames, more lasting transformative change requires time.

One of the nontangible areas of growth educators hope to see for their study abroad students is adaptability and tolerance for ambiguity. The question related to adaptability received the lowest percentage of general agreement across all items related to personal growth for online and in-person study abroad students. There were no differences in how the two groups reacted to the question on the value of study abroad in helping them to become more adaptable and comfortable with ambiguity before the program. However, when considering the post-program survey results, there are significant differences in how online and in-person immersion students responded (U = 12,902.5, p = 0.049). Almost 95% (94.2%) of online students at the post-program juncture compared to 91.1% of in-person immersion students either agreed or strongly agreed with this statement. Additional numbers of in-person immersion students reacted neutrally or negatively to this statement post-program, with just under 7% of in-person immersion students choosing neither agree nor disagree and over 2% choosing disagree or strongly disagree. These results are consistent with past studies

demonstrating regression in intercultural competencies is sometimes identified immediately after a challenging intercultural learning activity, as discussed in Chapter 6 (Iseminger et al., 2020, Grant et al., 2021, Wandschneider et al., 2015).

Career Goals Construct

Within the study abroad context, Career Goals are another example of behavioral beliefs, or a person's beliefs about the value an experience will have in producing an expected and desired outcome (Ajzen, 1991). Students' beliefs related to the relationship between study abroad, employability, and potential future earnings are well documented in the literature (Lilley et al., 2015; Ramakrishna et al., 2016; Trower & Lehmann, 2017; L. C. Wang et al., 2016). However, there is still debate related to employers' beliefs related to the benefits of study abroad (Di Pietro, 2019; Malerich, 2009; Potts & Kim, 2021; Wiers-Jenssen et al., 2020). Survey items in this construct assessed students' beliefs and attitudes toward study abroad related to increasing their competitiveness in the job market, developing effective work-based skills, and advancing their professional goals. Table 16 includes an overview of how in-person and online study abroad students reacted to the Career Goals construct and each of the survey items. A detailed quantitative analysis of survey item is available in Appendix G.

Table 16

Career Goals Survey Responses

Career Goals	Pre-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)	Post-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)
Career Goals Construct	X	√ (Online ↑)
Study abroad will give/gave me a competitive edge in the job market	X	X
Skills obtained through study abroad will allow me to be effective in my work	X	√ (In-Person ↓)
A study abroad program will help me advance my professional goals more quickly	X	X

Note. √ represents significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups. × represents no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups.
↑ represents the directionality of the difference. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

There were no statistically significant differences between how online and in-person immersion students viewed Career Goals as a motivating factor for studying abroad when assessed prior to the program. Past research demonstrates the benefit assessment of study abroad as related to potential career goals relies on individual student's potential to realize the associated benefits; thus, the positive association between career and study abroad may be impacted by students' social and academic backgrounds (Lörz et al., 2016; Netz & Finger, 2016; Ramakrishna et al., 2016). As demonstrated in the results of RQ1, there were several significant differences in the social and academic backgrounds. At least prior to study abroad, these differences did not show up in the quantitative data related to career goals and study abroad intent.

In post-program surveys, when assessed at the construct level, online and in-person immersion study abroad students viewed the experience related to career goals significantly differently (U = 12,666.0, p = 0.028). More online students reacted positively at the construct level to the impact of the study abroad experience on their career goals. Only one survey item resulted in significant differences between groups post-program. After study abroad, significantly fewer in-person students than online students agreed skills learned while abroad would help in their work effectiveness (U = 12,404.00, p = 0.043). The difference among groups may have related to the perceived value of future study abroad experiences to their current full- or part-time jobs. Although in-person immersion students are highly likely to be working, they may not be in current roles related to their major or desired careers; therefore, they may have reacted to this survey item based on a perceived value to an unknown future. For many online students, their career is in the present, supporting past research that older students are focused more on the immediate application of knowledge than the possible future applications imagined by younger students (Halx, 2010).

The value online students place on current and future job applications of study abroad does show up in the interview data. Amber felt studying abroad helped her to develop an expanded viewpoint through which to approach her career ahead. She participated in a study abroad program to help her confirm her career choices. Lucia approached study abroad with a similar goal—to help her confirm a career path related to her major in forensic psychology. Krista had wanted to be a screenwriter and director ever since she discovered those were "legitimate jobs" at a career fair in elementary school. She grew up watching "Lord of the Rings" and "Chronicles of Narnia" as a child, filmed in New Zealand. Therefore, she had always had an interest in the country, its landscapes, and its people. Her filmmaking practices program in New Zealand allowed her to "learn firsthand" how the film industry in New Zealand operates differently from the U.S. film industry in which she worked.

Many online students interviewed, such as Alisha and Patrick, felt study abroad would "look good on a resume." For Bobby, study abroad was a "simple choice" as he was "looking to complete more work on an international basis." He shared, "So, resume, first and foremost. Just having [study abroad] on a resume will assist me in propelling through the career paths I am choosing." Ethan felt studying abroad was not necessary, but it would communicate to employers on a resume that he had desired and participated in an "outside the box" learning experience. Nicole recognized employers look for employees with hands-on experiences who can be flexible and work with other cultures. Many online students interviewed participated in 1 of the 7 internship programs offered Spring and Summer 2019 and, like Samantha, were looking for a hands-on international work experience. These statements support past research demonstrating the value of study abroad and international internships, both as skill building exercises and as a vehicle for communicating these skills to employers (Predovic et al., 2021; Van Mol, 2017). Although attitudes may be evolving, employers traditionally have valued in-person learning over online learning, especially when making first-time hiring decisions

(Roberto & Johnson, 2019). By combining an in-person learning experience with practical learning related to the career pursued, online students may be able to differentiate themselves in the marketplace.

Some online students were working in their chosen field at the time of their study abroad programs. Zachery, a teacher of English as a second language, hoped his study abroad experience would give him additional context for his work by learning how cultures and people learn. Cassie, who worked for a startup company, participated in a study abroad program centered on exploring corporate startups in Israel. She found this study abroad program benefitted her greatly as she learned skills needed for her work, got academic credit, and traveled to a location she had always wanted to visit. She was thrilled to have the opportunity to learn about how startups were structured in another culture, what people expected of those companies, and how that learning could benefit her home company. Garret worked as a production assistant in Los Angeles and was attempting to get into the camera union. As he had little experience taking "serious pictures of architecture and landscapes," his study abroad program on visual storytelling was a way for him to "use Barcelona as his classroom" to develop his skills in photography and videography. These results support previous research where students valued study abroad highly as a valuable skill building experience compared to other experiential learning experiences, such as research, service-learning, and leadership programs (Coker & Porter, 2016). The importance of real-world problem solving in authentic intercultural interactions, such as those provided by these types of study abroad programs, has been found to be especially important for adult learners (Coryell et al., 2014).

Other online students interviewed looked to the future and hoped study abroad would help them with future career-related decisions and advancement. Amber chose her study abroad program to help her decide where she wanted to go in her career. She said, "This trip

was really kind of a turning point [about] where I want to go after college, after I graduate." Rebecca participated in a travel writing program and said she was motivated to study abroad by the opportunity to grow as a writer and get additional exposure to travel writing and journalism. Beth wanted to practice working on relationship skills that would advance her toward her career goals of working in training and employee development in the future. Kelly also sought a future position in human resources and was motivated to study abroad to develop skills in and an appreciation for working with people from diverse cultures. These statements and experiences support previous research identifying the importance of an international experience in helping adult students develop and enact a sense professional global citizenship (Coryell et al., 2014).

Largely speaking, the qualitative results of the individual interviews supported the mix of experiences and perspectives related to the construct of Career Goals that online students bring to study abroad. Like any student, many of their intentions depended on their current professional experiences and how they expected their study abroad experience to influence their future professional achievements directly.

Family Expectations Construct

The third construct studied through the pre- and post-program surveys was Family Expectations, encapsulated in four survey items. Students' perceptions of the value placed on study abroad by nuclear or extended family members is an example of normative beliefs within TPB, as extended to the study abroad context. Different studies have considered the influence of family on study abroad intentions and motivations, comparing the influence of family to that of friends (L. C. Wang et al., 2016) and assessing the impact of living in the family home on those intentions and motivations (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015; Stroud, 2010). Interestingly, this construct had some of the highest neutral and negative responses across all groups and the least deviation between groups. Table 17 includes an overview of

how in-person and online study abroad students reacted to the Family Expectations construct and each of the survey items. A detailed quantitative analysis of survey items is available in Appendix G.

Table 17

Family Expectations Responses

Family Expectations	Pre-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)	Post-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)
Family Expectations Construct	X	X
My family encourages me to go on a study abroad program	X	X
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my personal development	X	X
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my professional development	X	X
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my academic growth	X	X

Note. √ represents significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups. × represents no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups.
↑ represents the directionality of the difference. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

There were no significant differences in online students' reported intentions when evaluated as a construct compared to in-person immersion students regarding Family Expectations in either the pre- or post-program survey. This is the only construct of the four studied for which there were no significant differences between groups. This could mean there was a general feeling of support for student endeavors on the part of students' families across a wide variety of communities or a certain level of apathy on students' part regarding their families' expectations for the experience. The qualitative data from online students provide a clearer picture of the sample student group interviewed.

The qualitative data gathered from individual interviews of 23 online students mainly supported the substantial neutral or negative responses to the survey items demonstrated in the detailed data analysis of the individual survey items in Appendix G. Very few students spoke directly about how their families valued study abroad explicitly related to personal development, academic growth, or professional development. Ethan came the closest to speaking in specifics about how his family valued the international internship experience as

part of his professional development, stating they felt it was an opportunity "too good to pass up." Amber's family seemed to value study abroad in terms of academic growth. She mentioned her sister had studied abroad three times while pursuing her undergraduate degree. Amber felt she made her parents proud by studying abroad and was demonstrating to her parents she was taking her education as seriously as her sister had. There seemed to be an underlying concern that she was not serious about academics by pursuing online education.

However, most students focused on the excitement their families felt related to the opportunity study abroad provided them to travel and experience new things. This supports the quantitative survey results, which demonstrated the highest levels of agreement in the pre-program survey with the more general statement, "My family encourages me to go on a study abroad program." Bobby said his family was very supportive of this opportunity to travel and bring back stories and pictures of his experience abroad, which he could share with them. He hoped his positive experiences would encourage his family members to travel overseas at some point in their lives. May felt her family was as excited about the study abroad program as she was. Mikayla felt she was initially hesitant to study abroad; her family's support pushed her to go. Samantha almost backed out at the last minute because the costs were so high. Her family encouraged her to go and traveled to meet her in her host city while abroad, an experience they all enjoyed.

Other students found their family's reactions to study abroad to be more mixed. Although Beth's mother was excited about the experience, her own husband's family was less understanding of why she would want to make such a significant financial commitment to study abroad. Samantha's grandparents were very concerned she would be in danger while traveling, something she attributed to them having never been on a plane themselves. Lucia, who studied abroad in Israel, stated her mother was anxious about her safety. Her mother's only knowledge of Israel was from the nightly news. Savanna also studied abroad in a

destination that was unfamiliar to her family, South Africa, which she felt fueled their fears about her safety. Right up until her departure, she said she continued to receive links to information about the different diseases they thought she could contract while traveling on another continent. Savanna believed unfamiliarity with her destination may have contributed to the high anxiety her family felt. She since has had the opportunity to travel to Paris, which did not seem to elicit her family's same reaction.

Overall, the qualitative data gained through the individual interviews seemed to support the lack of differences between the pre- and post-program surveys among the online students surveyed and the lack of statistical significance across the entire construct.

Academic Goals Construct

International education professionals believe study abroad is primarily an academic endeavor and expect students to have educational goals related to their study abroad experiences. Academic factors such as the impact of study abroad on degree progression (Lörz et al., 2016; Trower & Lehmann, 2017), the discipline-specific subject matter covered (Janda, 2016; Kim & Lawrence, 2021), and who is teaching the program abroad (Curtis & Ledgerwood, 2018; Janda, 2016; Salisbury et al., 2009; Stroud, 2010) have all been demonstrated to impact students' study abroad intentions. As such, the degree to which academic motivations are at the heart of how online students view study abroad is a relevant issue when considering the structure and aims of study abroad experiences designed to meet their needs. Understanding online students' academic motivations affects program design, how the program fits into their major, the role of faculty, and the applicability of study abroad as an opportunity for online students to develop a connection to their institution. Students are asked about all these issues through four survey items within this construct.

As noted in Chapter 3 – Methodology, this construct had the lowest alpha (α) score across the constructs studied (pre-program $\alpha = 0.612$, post-program $\alpha = 0.598$), meaning there

was the least amount of internal consistency, indicating less than ideal inter-relatedness across all survey items. However, this construct also produced a significant amount of rich qualitative data. The low α could be attributed to how much I deviated from the original Schnusenberg et al. (2012) study in developing the survey items. It could also be that the expectations surrounding academic goals may have been the least well formed, or at least most widely varied, across the student groups studied. Either way, based on emerging importance of academic development as an outcome of study abroad identified in the literature review, these individual survey items had value in contributing to the conversation regarding how online study abroad and in-person study abroad students viewed the study abroad experience in terms of their academic motivations for participating. Table 18 includes an overview of how in-person and online study abroad students reacted to the Academic Goals construct and each of the survey items. A detailed quantitative analysis of survey items is available in Appendix G.

Table 18

Academic Goals Responses – All Groups

Academic Goals	Pre-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)	Post-Program Survey (Online vs. In-Person)
Academic Goals Construct	X	√ (Online ↑)
Study abroad will help/helped me develop a closer connection to my faculty and ASU	√ (Online ↑)	√ (Online ↑)
Study abroad will allow/allowed me to advance towards meeting my degree requirements more quickly	X	X
Study abroad gives/gave me exposure to academic content I am not getting otherwise through my classes	X	√ (Online ↑)
Study abroad has/had a strong connection to my major of study either in the academic content or the destination	X	√ (Online ↑)

Note. √ represents significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups. × represents no significant differences ($p < 0.05$) between values when comparing online and in-person immersion groups.
↑ represents the directionality of the difference. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

There were no significant differences between groups at the pre-program stage for 3 of the 4 survey items nor at the construct level. Online students and in-person immersion

students seemed to approach the study abroad experience with similar intentions regarding their academic goals for the program.

The one pre-program survey item for which there were significant statistical differences between groups related to the value of study abroad in helping students develop a closer connection to faculty (U = 10,230.000, p = 0.024; see Appendix G). This difference in how online and in-person immersion students responded to this statement indicates online students are more likely to approach the study abroad experience from the perspective of intentionally developing a closer relationship with a faculty member of the institution. This supports results of a national survey of U.S. online students indicating online students crave engaged interaction with their peers and faculty (Clinefelter et al., 2019). Similar results were identified in the post-program survey where online students again responded to this item significantly more positively than in-person students (U = 13,486.5, $p < 0.001$). The positive experiences online students had interacting with faculty and other students in a novel way while studying abroad was strongly felt throughout the student interviews. Mikayla had thought about study abroad for years, but the opportunity to develop personal relationships with faculty is what ultimately helped her decide to study abroad. Amber felt she developed a strong connection to faculty and other students on the program and considered those faculty members to be her mentors. She commented that online students do not get that kind of connection with faculty in the online education environment. Corrine highlighted the difference between the types of interactions online students are used to and those they experienced through their study abroad. She felt the interaction with faculty and other students was "really nice and weird all at the same time," as, being an online student, she had "almost forgot[ten] how to interact with professors and other students." Rebecca also felt a lack of interaction and connection, commenting that online education could be a "faceless

experience." She felt the connection with the faculty she developed on the program helped her to feel motivated to pursue her academic goals.

The interaction with both faculty and other students through the study abroad experience also helped online students develop a sense of belonging to the institution, consistent with Perez's (2020) research on online students' connection to faculty. Being thrown together for a period in a foreign environment provided a significant opportunity for what Deil-Amen (2011) called socioacademic integrative moments, where "academic influence is coupled with elements of social integration to provide needed support and enhance feelings of college belonging, college identity, and college competence" (p. 73). This sense of belonging was mentioned consistently by the online students interviewed. Before studying abroad, Savanna felt "pretty neutral toward ASU." She shared, "It was more a means to an end. After [study abroad] I felt more like a part of the community." Meghann felt study abroad helped her put faces with names at the university; it made the university "come alive" and "gave it color and personality." Alisha, Amber, Beth, and Bobby all felt more connected to ASU after studying abroad. Krista felt study abroad helped her find "her people," whereas before she felt she was "checking things off a list by taking classes and getting good grades." Rebecca felt study abroad was

> an amazing opportunity, and it made me love and appreciate ASU even more. It made me all the more enthusiastic to, you know, finish up my bachelors; to take more challenging classes, and hopefully be able to study abroad again. You know, it's made me think about trying to get or get into graduate school through ASU.

Closer connections to faculty and other students are a significant outcome of the study abroad experience for online students. Through study abroad, online students develop what Killick and Foster (2021) called "learning relationships," where discovery about self and others, and the complexity of relationships with ideas and identities, can occur. Suppose

online students carry this newfound confidence developed through these relationships and experiences into the academic space upon return. In that case, they may feel "more confidence establishing new and strengthened social networks with faculty members and students" (Metzger, 2006, p. 170) during the remainder of their academic careers. As identified in past research (P. H. Anderson et al., 2016; Beck & Milligan, 2014; Cardwell, 2020; McKeown et al., 2020), this increased sense of confidence in themselves and their abilities to make connections and develop relationships, and the resulting social networks, may lead to retention, subsequent degree completion, and greater personal growth.

The third survey item under the Academic Goals construct asked students to react to the statement, "Study abroad gives me exposure to academic content I am not getting otherwise through my classes." After study abroad, the two cohorts reacted to this statement significantly differently ($U = 12{,}497.5$, $p = 0.020$), with higher numbers of online students agreeing to the statement. The strong response by online students to the survey item on motivations for study abroad related to academic content was reflected in comments by those students interviewed as more of an appreciation for the active, experiential nature of the learning modality rather than strictly the content. Meghann, who traveled to Israel, said:

> Israel itself played a major role and was a character in the whole program. You can't learn that in a classroom because you can see pictures all day long of bomb shelters and know about the air raid sirens and how long you have to walk [to the bomb shelters], but actually to see it and touch it. . . . That's something you can't learn in a classroom.

Bobby also felt he could not have learned some of the content taught on his study abroad program in a classroom: "Being able to travel there and take part in the communities that [he] was studying and talk with people really ties it all together." Ethan agreed, likening a classroom experience to viewing the culture being studied through glass rather than "being in

the scene." Mikayla painted a stark contrast between the experiential learning she participated in abroad and her online classes. She said:

> I'm ready to be done with school for sure. And I think that coming back to Arizona from Peru, having been immersed in what I'm studying for 3 weeks versus sitting there and just watching lectures and doing an assignment with no real hands-on experience, has definitely made me more exhausted of online schooling. It's just been really hard to get back into the virtual experience instead of the physical experience.

I hypothesize the dramatic difference between the responses to this survey item between online and in-person immersion students may be the result of academic content but more likely may be a result of the difference in the learning modality and opportunity for experiential learning. There are few differences in the content available in regular (i.e., non-study-abroad) courses available to in-person immersion and online students during the regular degree program. As Metzger (2006) noted, the structure of study abroad programs appeals to different learning styles. The students interviewed seemed to prefer the active, experiential learning style, which previous research demonstrated positively affected both personal and professional development (O'Connor, 2021). Therefore, it is more likely the direct contrast between the virtual and physical learning experiences Mikayla pointed out is the impetus for the survey results rather than access to different academic content.

Finally, online students surveyed after study abroad agreed at statistically significant higher rates than in-person students that their study abroad program had a strong connection to their major ($U = 12934.0$, $p = 0.007$). The qualitative data support the survey results. Lucia wrestled with choosing between two programs—one in Israel and one in Latin America. As a forensic psychology major, she ultimately chose the counterterrorism program in Israel because it fit better with her major. Savanna felt her program on sustainability challenges and wildlife conservation aligned with her sustainability major well. Krista, a film and media

major, chose her program in New Zealand because it allowed her to be immersed in a culture that she had been interested in since childhood and that related directly to filmmaking practices and the film industry. Patrick studied politics and history in the Balkans and felt his program aligned well with his political science major.

The qualitative data collected through interviews of online students support the quantitative survey results, indicating a significant difference in the post-program survey on how online and in-person immersion study abroad students viewed the connection between their study abroad program and their major. The significant difference in how online students viewed this connection after the study abroad experience compared to their pre-program attitudes is also held up through the interviewed students' comments. The quantitative and qualitative data demonstrate academic development: students who have progressed as learners, with clarified learning and professional goals, confidence, and respect for diversity of other learners (McKeown et al., 2020).

Program Features Importance

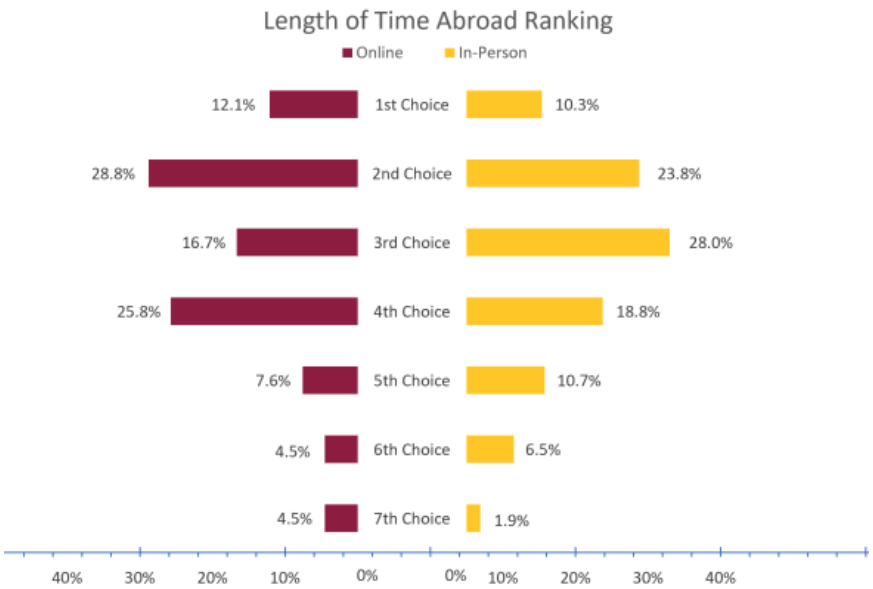
The remaining survey item asked students to rank seven program features in order of importance when choosing their specific study abroad program, with 1 being the most important to 7 being the least important. I developed the list of program features in the ranked response question based on a literature review on short-term study abroad programs and professional experience. Data were treated as ordinal, with a rank or order, but without quantitative measurement between each value (Salkind & Frey, 2020). Only pre-program survey responses were analyzed, resulting in 327 total responses comprising 67 online study abroad students and 260 in-person immersion students. Results are reported by program feature and include the Mann-Whitney *U* test results to determine the statistical significance of the difference between online and in-person immersion students' responses.

Length of Time Abroad Program Feature

Online and in-person immersion students responded in similar ways when asked to rank length of time abroad for their study abroad program. Just over 12% (12.1%) of online students and 10.3% of in-person immersion students ranked this feature their first choice. Almost 30% (28.8%) of online students and 23.8% of in-person immersion students ranked this feature their second choice. Most students ranked this program feature in their top four features. The similarities between online students and in-person immersion students were surprising. With the demands of work and family life on their hands, I thought online students would have ranked the length of time abroad as one of the most critical program features. The high level of importance placed on this program feature by in-person students was a little more surprising. What is not clear from this question is whether it is more important for the program to be longer or shorter for either group. There were no statistical differences between groups for this program feature (see Figure 7).

Figure 7

Length of Time Abroad Program Feature Ranking and Significance



Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

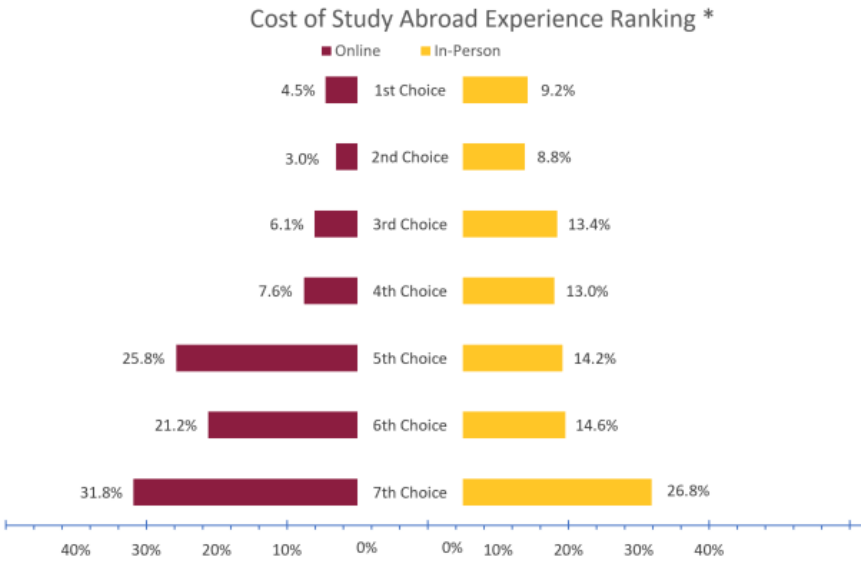
Cost of Study Abroad Experience Program Feature

Considering the substantial emphasis on cost, funding opportunities, and financial aid placed by students, families, and international educators when discussing study abroad, this program feature's results were surprising. Almost 32% (31.8%) of online students and 26.8% of in-person immersion students ranked cost as the least essential program feature. Recall from Chapter 4 that approximately 30% of both cohorts have the highest level of financial need. Additionally, there was almost universal agreement in the interviews that cost was a barrier to participation among online students interviewed. However, by the time this question is asked, students are very close to departure; they have already identified how they are going to pay for the experience. At this point in the data collection, I posit the issue is not that cost is not a substantial consideration. Instead, it is an attitude that the study abroad experience is so crucial that students will find a way to pay for it.

Although percentages for the least important ranking were similar, there was statistical significance between how the two cohorts of students responded (U = 13,391.00, p = 0.013). Almost 80% of online students considered cost in their bottom 3 program features compared to approximately 55% of in-person immersion students. It is here that the lower sensitivity to program cost of online students is demonstrated (see Figure 8).

Figure 8

Cost of Study Abroad Program Feature Ranking and Significance



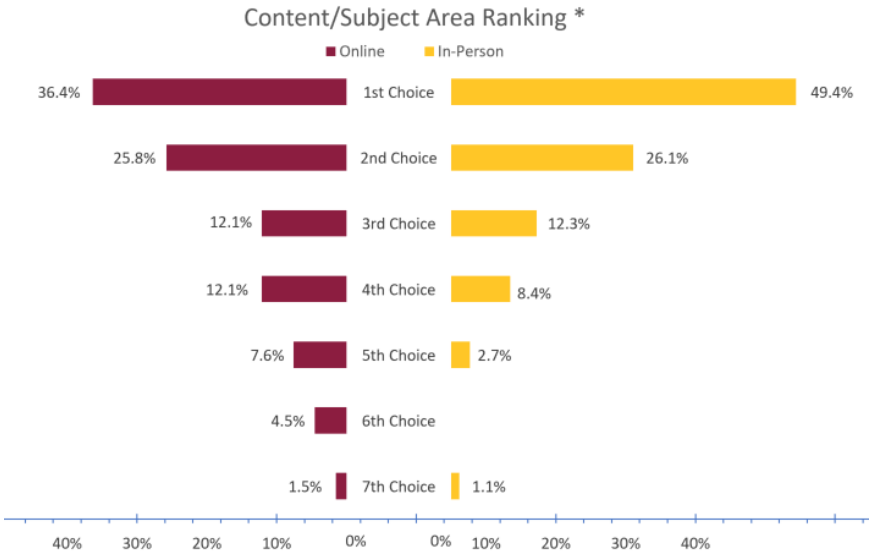
Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

Content/Subject Area Program Feature

Differences in how online students and in-person immersion students ranked Content/Subject Area as a program feature were also statistically significant ($U = 10{,}259$, $p = 0.017$). Almost 88% of in-person immersion students ranked this program feature in their top 3, with over 49% ranking it as the most important. In comparison, over 74% of online students ranked this program feature in the top 3; 34% gave it the most important ranking. This supports both the quantitative data and qualitative data from the Academic Goals construct, stating although the online students were looking for a strong connection between their study abroad program and their major, they seemed to place more emphasis on the experiential learning provided by study abroad and the ability to engage in a face-to-face environment with the content and with other students and faculty (see Figure 9).

Figure 9

Content/Subject Area Program Feature Ranking and Significance



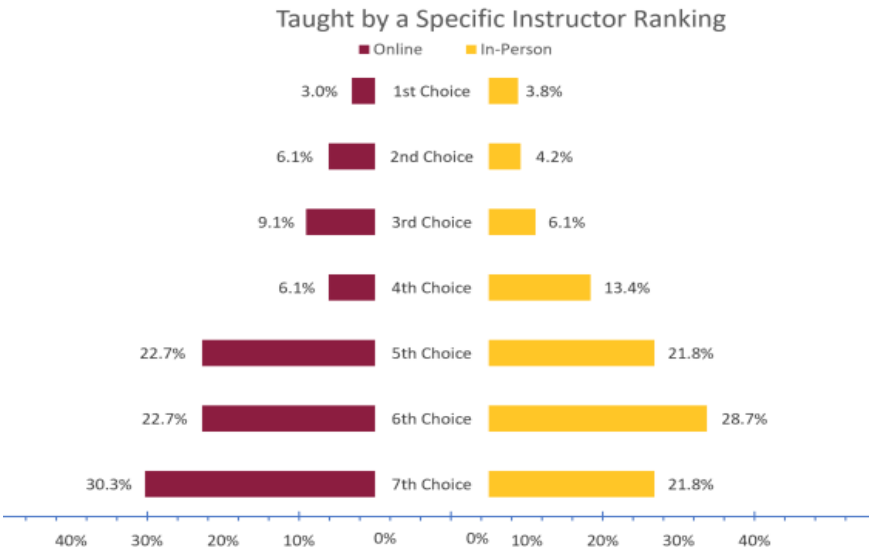
Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

Taught by a Specific Instructor Program Feature

It appears few students followed a specific instructor when choosing their study abroad program, as the majority of both groups of students ranked this program feature in their bottom 3 choices of importance. Almost 80% of online students and 72% of in-person immersion students ranked “Taught by a Specific Instructor” in the bottom 3. There was no statistical significance between how online and in-person immersion students responded to this program feature. Even though not statistically significant, it is interesting that fewer in-person students, who have greater access to instructors in an in-person environment, found this important. It could be that online students are not developing connections to their faculty through their online classes to a significant enough degree that they want to travel with them, or fewer faculty who teach online courses are also leading study abroad programs (see Figure 10).

Figure 10

Taught by a Specific Instructor Program Feature Ranking and Significance



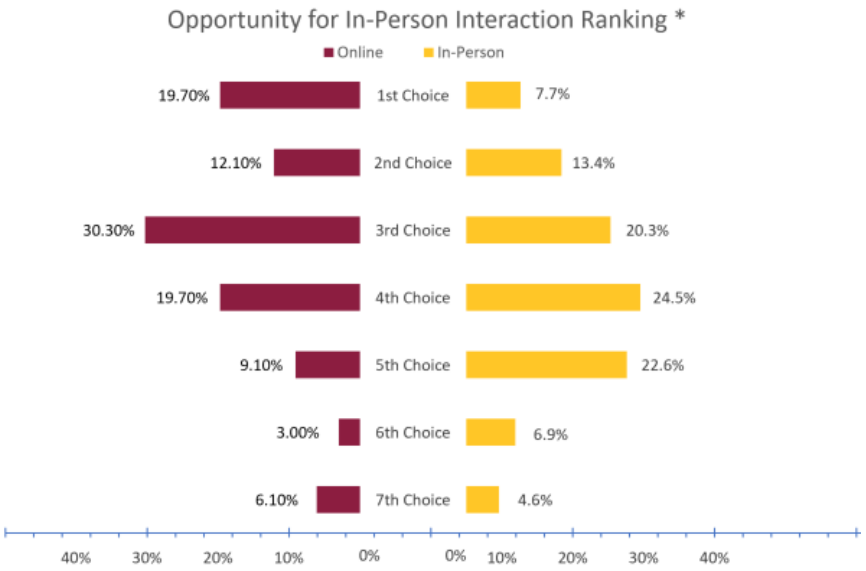
Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

Opportunity for In-Person Interactions With Students and/or Instructor Onsite Program Feature

Over 62% of online students ranked the opportunity to have an in-person interaction with fellow students or an instructor onsite in their top 3 program features. Almost 20% marked it as the most important feature. These data suggest online students crave in-person interaction within the academic environment and are, at least in part, using study abroad as a vehicle to gain that connection. In comparison, just under 8% of in-person immersion students gave this feature their top ranking, and just over 41% ranked it in the top 3. I am surprised that as many as 41% of in-person immersion students ranked this feature in their top 3 program features. The importance in-person immersion students placed on this feature could mean they also crave a deeper connection to faculty outside the classroom. The difference in online and in-person immersion ranking of this program feature was statistically significant ($U = 6{,}710.00$, $p = 0.003$; see Figure 11).

Figure 11

Opportunity for In-Person Interaction With Students and/or Instructor Onsite Program Feature Ranking and Significance



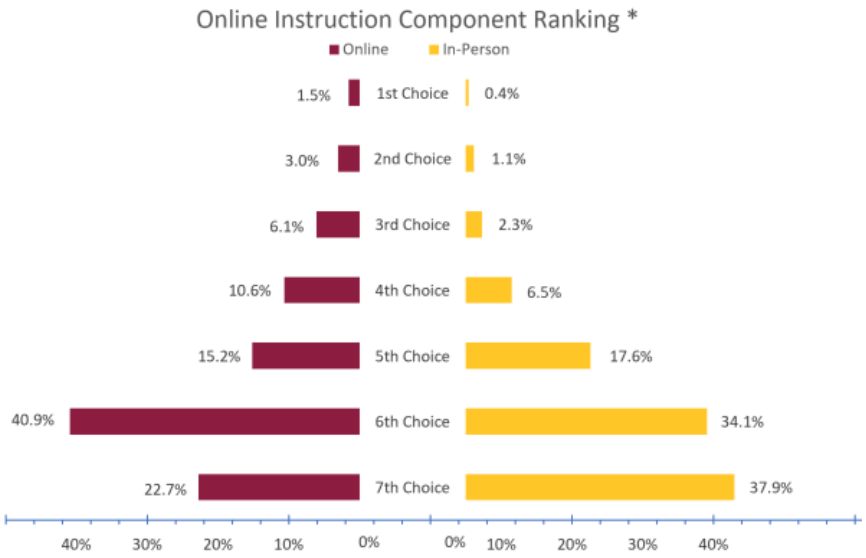
Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

Online Instruction Component of the Program Feature

Both groups considered any online instruction component of the study abroad program a program feature of lesser importance. Just under 80% of online students ranked this program feature in their bottom 3, with a full 41% ranking it as their 6th choice. Almost 90% of in-person students indicated the online instruction component was in their bottom 3 features; nearly 38% ranked it as least important, and another 34% ranked it 6th in order of importance. Although combining the onsite program with an online learning component either before or after the experience is a program feature designed to make study abroad more accessible to online students, it does not seem to be one of the more critical considerations in choosing a program once committed to studying abroad. Differences in how online and in-person immersion students ranked this program feature were statistically significant (U = 6,953.00, p = 0.008; see Figure 12).

Figure 12

Online Instruction Component of the Program Feature Ranking and Significance



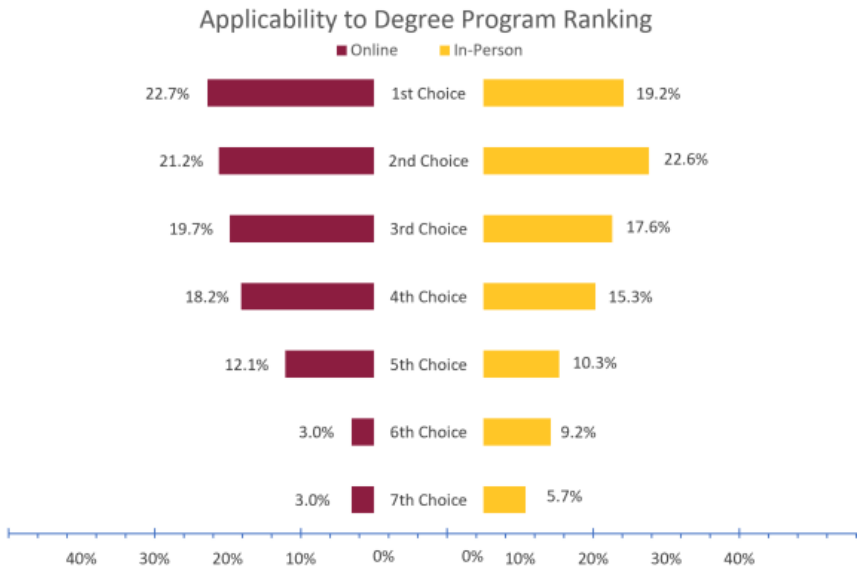
Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

Applicability to Degree Program Feature

The final program feature was "applicability to degree program." There were no statistically significant differences in how online students and in-person immersion students ranked this program feature. Almost 23% of online students and 19% of in-person immersion students ranked this program feature as most important. It was ranked in the top 3 program features by almost 64% of online students and 59% of in-person students. These results support the premise that study abroad is primarily an academic endeavor. Students expect the experience to be aligned with their chosen discipline and apply to their degree progression (see Figure 13).

Figure 13

Applicability to Degree Program Feature Ranking and Significance



Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in ranking this program feature.

Conclusion

This chapter provides analyses and discussion of quantitative and qualitative data related to the comparison of study abroad intentions of online and in-person immersion students, examined through the lens of the theory of planned behavior (TPB).

TBP's behavioral beliefs, or beliefs surrounding the value placed on an experience in helping achieve a set of objectives, were examined through two constructs: personal growth and career goals. Assessed quantitatively before the start of the study abroad program, no differences were found between how online and in-person immersion study abroad students responded to either construct, and only two differences were found at the survey item level, meaning both study abroad cohorts approached the experience while placing similar levels of value on personal growth and career goals as an outcome of study abroad. However, after studying abroad, there were significant differences in how the two cohorts responded to both constructs and to individual survey items.

Related to personal growth, after the experience, online students responded more favorably than in-person students to the value of study abroad related to personal growth goals. Personal growth as an outcome of study abroad has been well documented in the literature; therefore, it is not surprising that there was a positive reaction to this construct. The individual survey items where online students reacted significantly more positively than the in-person students addressed individual growth, adaptability, and comfort with ambiguity. Due to the dramatic difference between the international in-person study abroad experience and the often fractured and part-time online learning experience, online students may have reacted positively to the opportunity to have dedicated time to focus on themselves rather than the international context specifically. However, in considering comfort with adaptability and ambiguity, significantly more in-person students either felt negatively or neutrally toward this statement post-program compared to online students. These levels of negative and neutral feelings were not identified in the pre-program survey results. Higher post-program feelings of negativity related to intercultural competencies are consistent with past studies identifying potential regression in intercultural competencies after a challenging intercultural learning experience. This regression is also interesting considering pre-program survey results indicating in-person students were not seeking exposure to differences through study abroad, the only pre-program survey differences identified related to this construct. Therefore, not only were greater numbers of online students seeking exposure and interaction with a difference, but they also felt interaction positively affected their personal growth at greater rates compared to in-person study abroad students. The quantitative results related to personal growth intercultural competencies also shone through in students' stories of changed worldviews and increased appreciation for others' lived experiences. These quantitative and qualitative data support past research on returned study abroad students' increased willingness to interact with different cultures.

Related to behavioral beliefs centered on career goals, there were significant differences at the Career Goals construct level, demonstrating online students felt study abroad had more value in helping them to achieve their career goals. Compared to online students, in-person immersion students placed a much lower value on study abroad in helping them to be effective in their work. Consistent with the literature, adult learners such as online students may be more likely to apply their career-related skills learned abroad in their daily work immediately upon return, making that value much more tangible. Although in-person immersion students may also be working, that employment may not be in their future or desired careers; therefore, they must imagine the value study abroad might bring in those yet unknown settings. Many online students interviewed also expressed the value of study abroad as a signal to future employers regarding their worth as employees, their skill sets, and the value of the online degree. Although there is still debate in the literature about the strength of that signal among employers, there is a significant body of work that identifies the perception by both students and parents that skills related to study abroad experiences are valuable within the labor market.

The normative beliefs, or a student's perception of the value significant others place on an experience, was assessed through the Family Expectations construct. Although this construct had some of the highest neutral and negative responses, there were no statistical differences between the two cohorts at the pre- or post-program stage, either at the construct or individual survey item level. In fact, the qualitative data on this construct were also very weak. This could mean that, overall, there was a general feeling of family support for studying abroad for all students or a certain level of apathy on the part of students toward their family members' expectations. Very few interviewed students spoke about how their families felt about them studying abroad beyond their excitement for the experience.

Academic Goals, representing control beliefs, had the greatest variability in the quantitative data and the greatest volume of qualitative data across the four constructs measured. There were no significant differences between groups at the pre-program stage for 3 of the 4 survey items nor at the construct level. However, post-program, online students responded significantly more positively compared to in-person immersion students at the construct level and on 3 of the 4 individual survey items. The quantitative results indicate online students used the study abroad experience intentionally to develop closer relationships with faculty members, consistent with the literature stating online students crave personal interaction with their faculty and fellow students. That craving also was revealed in the qualitative data where online students related that the opportunity to develop personal relationships with faculty outside of the often-faceless online environment was a driving force pushing them to study abroad. Most online students interviewed also indicated an increased affinity with the institution after study abroad, consistent with the literature regarding online students' sense of belonging because of faculty relationships. These faculty interactions straddling disciplinary instruction and academic culture contributed to online students developing a new sense of academic self they had previously unrealized. Significantly more online students felt study abroad also provided them access to content they were not getting in their regular classes. As the degree requirements between online and in-person immersion degrees at ASU are not different, and even though the courses available are similar, one explanation could be that this survey item more accurately reflects online students' reactions to the more active or participatory style of learning a study abroad program affords students and the instructor. This explanation is supported by the qualitative data in which online students indicated they wanted to see, feel, and touch the content they were studying rather than just read about it online. Finally, online students felt post-program that their study abroad experience was more closely aligned to their academic major than in-

person immersions students. The value of the alignment supports past literature tying the value of short-term study abroad programs to disciplinary knowledge transfer rather than cultural competency development.

The pre-program survey also asked online and in-person immersion students to rank seven study abroad program features in order of importance in choosing a study abroad program. In many ways, the data ranking program features supported study abroad intention data from earlier survey questions. Online students are looking for an in-person experience during which they participate in active and experiential learning activities while also developing relationships with both faculty and other students. Compared to in-person immersion students, online students placed statistically more emphasis on in-person interactions and less importance on the availability of an online teaching component of the program. Online students placed less importance on the specific academic program content and the specific instructor but similar levels of importance on the applicability of study abroad to their degree progression. Surprisingly, online students and in-person students did not differ significantly on the importance of a study abroad program's length when considering programs, although the data did not include whether they preferred longer or shorter programs. Online students placed significantly less importance on program costs compared to in-person students, leading me to posit that although cost is important to both groups of students, by the time this survey was distributed, students had figured this part out. Finally, the qualitative data collected through interviews led me to propose that this experience is so important to online students, they are determined to make it work.

Overall, data collected to address the second research question supported the use of TPB to identify study abroad intentions within and between cohorts of online and in-person study abroad students. This study contributes to the literature on study abroad intent by considering online students in a novel way.

CHAPTER 6 – RESULTS & ANALYSIS: RQ3

Study Abroad Outcomes: Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values

This chapter discusses Research Question 3 (RQ3), which asked how online students compare to in-person immersion students regarding changes they experience related to their beliefs, attitudes, and values after a short-term, faculty-led study abroad program. I chose the Beliefs, Events and Values Inventory (BEVI) to assess students' beliefs, attitudes, and values before and after the experience. Results are organized into three main sections. The first section addresses the pre-program BEVI results, the second section considers the post-program BEVI results, and the third section addresses the longitudinal results in a pre-program, post-program comparison. Subgroup differences are explored in the sections for pre- and post-program results. Qualitative results follow, documenting students' beliefs, attitudes, and values at the post-program period in their own voices.

To assess RQ3, I included the BEVI in pre- and post-program online surveys sent through Qualtrics to online study abroad students (n = 221) and in-person immersion study abroad students (n = 1,133) participating in Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 short-term, faculty-led study abroad through Arizona State University (ASU). BEVI data were collected through the BEVI website. I analyzed data for the 128 students who completed the pre-program BEVI only (Group A), 86 students who completed the post-program BEVI only (Group B), and 59 students who completed both the pre- and post-program BEVI, representing a total response rate of 12% (Group C; see Table 19).

To explore differences between groups, I calculated descriptive statistics within and between groups, pre-program, post-program, and longitudinally. I used descriptive statistics, t tests, and multiple regression to describe pre-program (Group A) and post-program (Group B) BEVI results for online and in-person immersion students. Data comparing results

longitudinally (Group C) are described for online and in-person immersion students using descriptive statistics and *t* tests.

Table 19

BEVI Participants

	Group A Pre-Program BEVI Only	Group B Post-Program BEVI Only	Group C Both Pre- and Post-Program BEVI
Online Students	31	15	13
In-Person Immersion Students	97	71	46
Total Participants	128	86	59

As discussed in Chapter 3: Methodology, the BEVI comprises 17 psychometric scales across seven domains. Although the BEVI is a comprehensive assessment in which all 17 scales are analyzed in relation to each other, it is standard practice in BEVI research to begin the analysis by examining specific scales related to desired learning outcomes within the assessed experience (Grant et al., 2021). For this study, I start my analysis with three scales correlated with generally desired learning outcomes for short-term, faculty-led programs at ASU: Self-Certitude, Socioemotional Convergence, and Global Resonance. In addition, other scales that demonstrated between-group difference or unintended longitudinal change are also discussed. Qualitative results include data from individual interviews and three qualitative questions within the BEVI post-program. The qualitative data are intended to add context and depth to the quantitative results from this section. Further details on the methodology used to address this research question are found in Chapter 3 – Methodology, Research Question 3.

Pre-Program Assessment: Institutional Profile

It is helpful to analyze the BEVI data by first understanding the aggregate values for all participants who completed a pre-program assessment. An aggregate profile represents a summary of mean averages for each of the 17 BEVI scales and combines online and in-person student responses. Examining the pre-program assessment data in aggregate is most helpful in understanding the profile of the entire group before the learning intervention—in

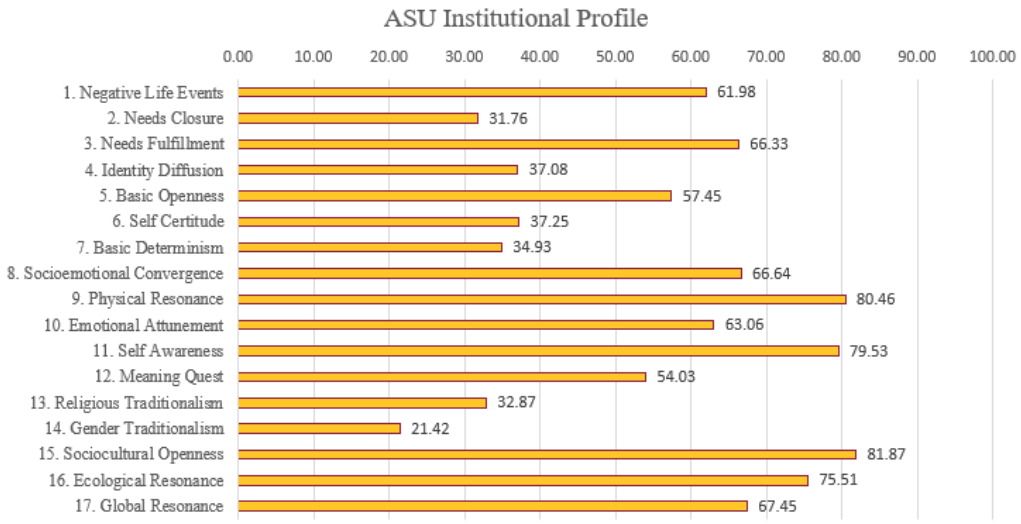
this case, the short-term study abroad program (Shealy, 2016). A profile of this type may be considered broadly generalizable across institutions, creating an "institutional signature" representing the student body's aggregate psychological makeup (Acheson & Kelly, 2021; Wandschneider et al., 2015). The culture or feel of an institutional community can be directly influenced by its institutional signature, the psychological composition of the student body. Understanding the institutional signature may help administrators interpret on-campus or community-driven events and design specific interventions or development activities for a particular community. In this case, especially with the considerable difference between the number of students in this data set and the overall number of enrolled students at ASU, this figure should only be generalized to the ASU study abroad population.

Aggregate BEVI scale scores are interpreted relative to their placement on the normed BEVI scales. In this aggregate profile, many of the scales were well above the midpoint or desired level of the normed scales, including Self-Awareness (M = 79.53), Sociocultural Openness (M = 81.87), and Ecological Resonance (M = 75.51). These scores point to the high level of care and attention these students pay to themselves and others; their openness to a wide range of cultural, political, and social actions, policies, and practices; and their investment in the natural world. With ASU's mission of access and inclusion and a strong focus on sustainability, this profile is not surprising. Also of note are the scales in which this group was below the midpoint of the normed scales, such as Self-Certitude (M = 37.25), Basic Determinism (M = 34.93), and Gender Traditionalism (M = 21.42). For each of these scales, scores lower than the midpoint are desirable. This group seems open to more complex and more profound analyses of problems and understanding across and within groups. The low score in Needs Closure (M = 31.76), representing a challenging upbringing during which core needs were not met, was also not surprising when considering the student body of ASU. Many of these students have struggled to get to a point in their lives where higher education

was accessible to them due to factors associated with wide ranging socioeconomic profiles. Figure 14 displays the BEVI institutional profile of students in this study based on the pre-program assessment data set (see Appendix I for full scale details).

Figure 14

ASU Institutional Profile

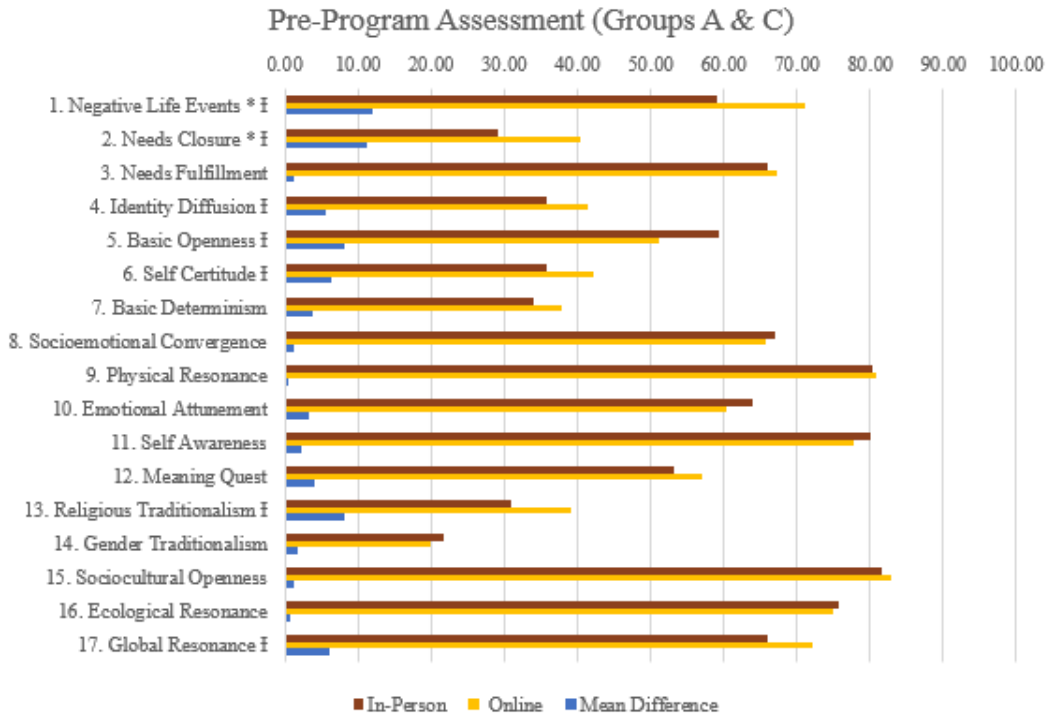


Pre-Program Assessment BEVI Scales – Online and In-Person Immersion Students

In BEVI research, aggregate findings should not be used in isolation as they can obscure significant differences across subgroups (Wandschneider et al., 2015). In further breaking the aggregate scores down into subgroups, a more nuanced view of student identities before the study abroad experience began to emerge. Comparing online and in-person study abroad students is a primary concern of this study and is the first data presented. Figure 15 provides a pre-program overview of each of the 17 BEVI scales for online and in-person immersion students, as well as the mean difference between the two groups. Comparing the aggregate profiles of the online and in-person immersion study abroad students provided an institutional level pre-program profile of the two student groups as they entered the study abroad experience.

Figure 15

Pre-Program Assessment – Online and In-Person Immersion Students



Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students
Ł Indicates mean difference greater than 5 (*MD* > 5) between online and in-person students

As discussed in Chapter 3: Methodology, based on empirical research, standard practice in BEVI score interpretation is to assume meaningful difference between groups or in a longitudinal study at mean score differences of 5 points based on 100-point normed scales (Grant et al., 2021; Shealy, 2016). As a methodology, descriptive statistics such as analyzing differences in the mean scores allow for interpretation of BEVI data for groups with small sizes, rather than inferential statistical tests, requiring variability and large group size (Grant et al., 2021). In this study, I chose to report both statistical significance and real-world or interpretive differences. Scales for which there was either a statistically significant difference ($p < .05$) based on *t* tests or mean difference greater than 5 (*MD* > 5), indicating a real-world or interpretive difference, are displayed in Figure 15.

Results of *t* tests indicated statistically significant differences between the student groups for only two BEVI scales. Online students scored significantly higher on the Negative

Life Events scale than in-person immersion students (M = 71.20, t = -2.761, with equal variances not assumed, df = 84.44, p = 0.007). The real-world difference between groups was also present (MD = 12.06). Higher scores on the Negative Life Event scale demonstrated online students reported greater trauma-related feelings relative to childhood events than in-person immersion students. In the BEVI assessment, the Negative Life Events scale serves as a mediating variable. It helps explain the underlying psychological processes affecting how and why a person experiences the self, others, and the outside world (Wandschneider et al., 2015).

Online students also scored significantly higher on the Needs Closure scale than in-person immersion students (M = 40.43, t = -2.069, with equal variances assumed, df = 71.53, p = 0.040). The real-world difference between groups also existed for Needs Closure (MD = 11.33). Respondents who scored higher on Needs Closure are more likely to indicate their core needs, such as attachment or affection, were not met adequately during childhood. As with the Negative Life Events scale, the Needs Closure scale tends to be a mediating variable for other scales. Higher scores on the Negative Life Events and Needs Closure scales are typically associated with lower degrees of critical thinking and openness to difference (Wandschneider et al., 2015); therefore, students with higher scores on these scales are typically less receptive to and more challenged by a curriculum that exposes them to different beliefs and values.

Real-world differences were found across several other scales at this time period, including Basic Openness (MD = 8.11), Self-Certitude (MD = 6.40), Religious Traditionalism (MD = 8.11), and Global Resonance (MD = 6.13; see Figure 15). In this aggregate pre-program profile, online students scored lower than in-person immersion students in Basic Openness but higher in Self-Certitude, demonstrating online students are less open and honest about their own feelings and have less patience for difficulty than in-person

immersion students. Online students also scored higher on religious traditionalism, which can lead to less tolerance for differences and more rigid thinking. However, at the same time, online students scored higher on Global Resonance, which could mean they are openly seeking access to and understanding of difference. This Global Resonance scale data correspond with online study abroad students' study abroad motivations under the Personal Growth construct discussed in Chapter 5.

In summary, due to challenging life events, online students feel guarded about their feelings, exhibit less patience with struggles and difficulties, and potentially demonstrate less tolerance for difference than in-person immersion students. However, even with these beliefs, they actively seek differences through participation in short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs and want to experience different cultures. It is that attitude on which faculty must capitalize; online students in this study seek growth and change but may initially exhibit resistance and be less prepared to excel within challenging learning environments inherent within a different culture.

Pre-Program Assessment BEVI Scales – Subgroup Variations

To further break down the aggregate profile into subgroups, I compared students across demographic variables of interest from the results of RQ1 (see Chapter 4): gender, ethnicity, Pell Grant eligibility, and first-generation student status. I identified mean differences and conducted multiple regression analyses for the BEVI scales of interest (Self-Certitude, Socioemotional Convergence, and Global Resonance) and those with interpretive differences in the initial aggregate comparison (Negative Life Events, Needs Closure, and Basic Openness).

Mean Differences

In examining the descriptive statistics, I found online non-White, Pell Grant-eligible, and first-generation students scored higher on the Negative Life Events and Self-Certitude

scales, indicating formative events had led to a more closed mindset leading into the study abroad experience. In-person immersion study abroad students who are Pell Grant eligible and first generation scored higher on the Negative Life Events scale and lower on the Socioemotional Convergence scale, indicating challenging formative events had led to more dualistic thinking. First-generation students in both groups scored higher than those who were not first generation in Needs Closure, highlighting feelings of unmet core needs for this group. These results are consistent with equilintegration (EI) theory, the theoretical foundation on which the BEVI is based (Shealy, 2016). Means and mean differences for each subgroup variation are reported in Table 20.

Table 20

Pre-Program BEVI Scores – Mean Differences

	Online Students	**In-Person Students**
BEVI Scale	***n* = 44**	***n* = 143**
Negative Life Events *	71.20	59.15
Needs Closure *	40.43	29.10
Basic Openness	51.25	59.36
Self-Certitude	42.14	35.74
Socioemotional Convergence	65.75	66.92
Global Resonance	72.14	66.01

	Gender			**Gender**		
BEVI Scale	**Male *n* = 12**	**Female *n* = 32**	***MD***	**Male *n* = 37**	**Female *n* = 106**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	68.67	72.16	3.49	54.92	60.62	5.70
Needs Closure	46.00	38.34	7.66	24.97	30.54	5.56
Basic Openness	41.92	54.75	12.83	58.59	59.62	1.03
Self-Certitude	43.17	41.75	1.42	30.70	37.50	6.80
Socioemotional Convergence	61.67	67.28	5.61	63.95	67.95	4.01
Global Resonance	66.08	74.41	8.32	59.89	68.14	8.25

	Ethnicity			**Ethnicity**		
	White *n* = 25	**Non-White *n* = 19**	***MD***	**White *n* = 25**	**Non-White *n* = 58**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	68.24	75.11	6.87	60.52	57.14	3.38
Needs Closure	40.36	40.53	0.17	30.05	27.71	2.34
Basic Openness	53.24	48.63	4.61	62.92	54.14	8.78
Self-Certitude	39.68	45.37	5.69	34.61	37.40	2.78
Socioemotional Convergence	64.28	67.68	3.40	67.35	66.28	1.08
Global Resonance	68.12	77.42	9.30	64.98	67.52	2.54

	Pell Grant Eligibility			Pell Grant Eligibility		
	Not Pell Eligible *n* = 26	**Pell Eligible *n* = 18**	***MD***	**Not Pell Eligible *n* = 98**	**Pell Eligible *n* = 45**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	69.31	73.94	4.64	54.77	68.69	13.92
Needs Closure	41.27	39.22	2.05	24.70	38.67	13.96
Basic Openness	49.38	53.94	4.56	60.65	56.53	4.12
Self-Certitude	45.15	37.78	7.38	35.58	36.09	0.51
Socioemotional Convergence	64.92	66.94	2.02	68.68	63.07	5.62
Global Resonance	70.54	74.44	3.91	66.71	64.47	2.25

	First-Generation Student			First-Generation Student		
	Not First Generation *n* = 23	**First Generation *n* = 15**	***MD***	**Not First Generation *n* = 92**	**First Generation *n* = 28**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	67.00	75.40	8.40	58.25	66.00	7.75
Needs Closure	41.17	32.53	8.64	27.20	39.43	12.23
Basic Openness	54.35	44.60	9.75	60.22	58.11	2.11
Self-Certitude	44.70	32.60	12.10	35.08	38.39	3.32
Socioemotional Convergence	69.57	67.93	1.63	69.43	59.18	10.26
Global Resonance	73.65	78.27	4.61	67.82	61.04	6.78

Multiple Regression

To further understand the effect of critical demographic variables on the BEVI scale scores, I ran multiple linear, stepwise regressions for five BEVI scales: Self-Certitude, Socioemotional Convergence, Global Resonance, Negative Life Events, and Needs Closure. The first step of the regression identified any relationship between the BEVI scale score and whether a student was an online or an in-person student. The second step calculated the additional impact of demographic variables on the BEVI scale score. A series of scatterplots of BEVI scale scores against study abroad student demographic variables with superimposed regression lines were plotted and visually examined for a linear relationship to assess linearity. There was homoscedasticity and normality of residuals.

The regression analysis identified significant regression models for only the Negative Life Events and Needs Closure scales, supporting findings from the previous inferential and descriptive statistical tests in this study. For Negative Life Events, online student group membership was positively associated with higher scores, $F(1, 185) = 6.296$, $p = 0.013$, with an R^2 of 0.033. The second regression model was also significant, $F(1, 180) = 2.586$, $p = 0.020$, with an R^2 of 0.079, with Pell Grant eligibility increasing the Negative Life Events

score by 0.18. The Needs Closure model was significant only for the first stage, indicating online student membership was positively associated with higher scores, $F(1, 185) = 4.279$, $p = 0.040$, with an R^2 of 0.023.

In summary, although the strength of the regression analysis was affected by the small *n*, generally, results supported the previous results indicating online student group membership is correlated with higher scores on both the Negative Life Events and Needs Closure scales. In addition, the higher financial need demonstrated by Pell Grant eligibility was correlated with students' feelings of challenge in their formative years, as reflected in higher Negative Life Events scores. A summary of findings is reported in Table 21.

Table 21

Pre-Program BEVI Scores – Summary of Regression Analysis Predicting BEVI Scale Scores

***n* = 187**	**Self-Certitude**				**Socioemotional Convergence**				**Global Resonance**			
	b	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***	***b***	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***	***b***	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	6.395	4.664	0.100	0.005	-1.166	3.995	-0.021	0.000	6.129	3.951	0.113	0.013
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	7.360	5.303	0.115		2.900	4.489	0.053		5.413	4.433	0.100	
Age	-0.096	0.312	0.026		-0.408	0.269	0.129		0.166	0.265	0.053	
Gender	-4.642	4.641	0.075	-0.01	-4.527	3.917	0.086	0.035	-8.563	3.868	0.164*	0.050
Ethnicity	-3.794	4.189	0.069		-1.177	3.553	0.025		-3.965	3.509	0.085	
Pell Eligibility	-2.939	4.399	0.051		-2.615	4.019	0.054		-2.011	3.969	0.041	
First-Generation Student Status	0.382	2.687	0.011		-3.866	4.538	0.071		-2.682	4.482	0.049	

	Negative Life Events				**Needs Closure**			
	b	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***	***b***	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	12.058	4.806	0.18*	0.033	11.334	5.479	0.15*	0.023
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	10.369	5.362	0.156		8.507	6.176	0.113	
Age	0.048	0.321	0.012		0.245	0.369	0.056	
Gender	-3.757	4.678	0.059	0.079	-1.575	5.389	-0.022	0.050
Ethnicity	4.155	4.244	0.073		4.508	4.888	0.069	
Pell Eligibility	10.862	4.800	0.18*		10.256	5.529	0.152	
First-Generation Student Status	3.071	5.420	0.046		0.430	6.243	0.006	

Note. $*p < .05$

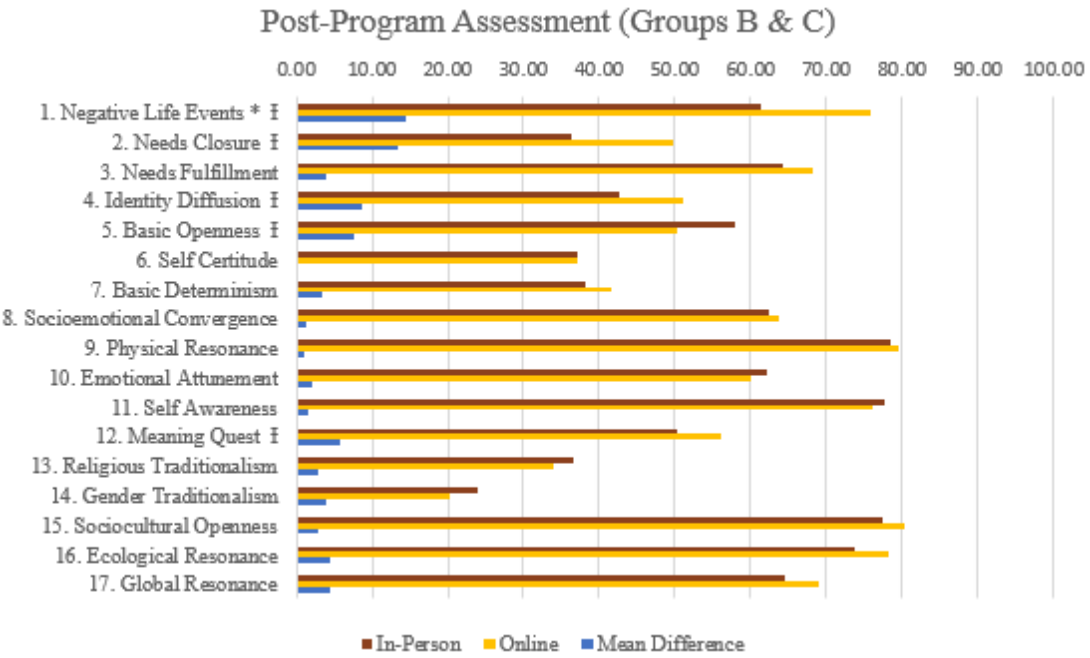
Post-Program Assessment BEVI Scales – Online and In-Person Immersion Students

Groups B and C together formed the aggregate assessment of online and in-person students' post-program BEVI scores. Because this group did not represent matched pairs compared to the pre-program group, this analysis could only provide a snapshot of where students were at this stage and not a direct comparison with pre-program scores. Post-

program, only one BEVI scale showed statistically significant differences between online and in-person immersion students in the *t* test. Again, online students scored significantly higher on the Negative Life Events scale than in-person immersion students ($M = 75.93$, $t = -2.459$ with equal variances assumed, $df = 143.0$, $p = 0.015$). The real-world difference between groups was also present ($MD = 41.48$). Online students also demonstrated higher mean averages than in-person immersion students on several other scales: Needs Closure ($MD = 13.41$), Identity Diffusion ($MD = 8.60$), and Meaning Quest ($MD = 5.69$), indicating increased feelings of loss of control or identity and a search for understanding or alignment about where they fit in life after the study abroad experience. Online students scored lower than in-person immersion students on the Basic Openness scale ($MD = 7.71$), perhaps indicating a retreat into oneself or increased close mindedness. From these results, it is clear studying abroad was a significant event for online students that led them to question their sense of selves, values, and worldview (see Figure 16).

Figure 16

Post-Program Assessment – Online and In-Person Immersion Students



Note. *Indicates significant differences between online and in-person immersion students
Ł Indicates mean difference greater than 5 ($MD > 5$) between online and in-person students

Post-Program Assessment BEVI Scales – Subgroup Variations

I compared students across demographic variables of interest from the results of RQ1 (gender, ethnicity, Pell Grant eligibility, and first-generation student status) across the BEVI scales of interest (Self-Certitude, Socioemotional Convergence, and Global Resonance) and those scales with interpretive differences in the aggregate comparison at the post-program period (Negative Life Events, Needs Closure, Identity Diffusion, Basic Openness, and Meaning Quest). I identified mean differences and conducted multiple regression analyses for the subgroups.

Mean Differences

Overall, there were more sizable differences between subgroups across all scales assessed in the post-program to pre-program comparative analyses. Online first-generation students reported considerably lower scores than online students who were not first generation in Negative Life Events (*MD* = 9.97), Needs Closure (*MD* = 98.81), Identity Diffusion (*MD* = 26.27), and Self-Certitude (*MD* = 11.41). These scores indicate that after study abroad, online first-generation students felt less negatively about events in their childhood, more confident about identities and future, and more comfortable with complexity than online students who did not identify as first generation. Online students who were eligible for the Pell Grant also scored lower than online students who were not eligible for the financial grant in Needs Closure (*MD* = 6.79), Identity Diffusion (*MD* = 12.29), and Self-Certitude (*MD* = 10.31). Financial need and first-generation student status often go together; therefore, it is not surprising these scores moved together. These differences may indicate what Rauch (2017) called First-Generation Strength. First-generation students may bring distinct strengths and experiences related to emotional resilience to study abroad that help them to be uniquely prepared to navigate the experience compared to other students. However, this pattern does not replicate itself in the BEVI data for first-generation or Pell-

eligible students in the in-person immersion population and, therefore, may be specific to the online group assessed. Means and mean differences for each subgroup variation are reported in Table 22.

Table 22

Post-Program BEVI Scores – Mean Differences

	Online Students	**In-Person Students**
BEVI Scale	***n* = 28**	***n* = 117**
Negative Life Events	71.20	61.44
Needs Closure	40.43	36.38
Identity Diffusion	41.45	42.54
Basic Openness	51.25	57.92
Self-Certitude	42.14	36.98
Socioemotional Convergence	65.75	62.46
Meaning Quest	57.14	50.35
Global Resonance	72.14	64.44

	Gender			**Gender**		
	Female *n* = 26	**Male *n* = 2**	***MD***	**Female *n* = 84**	**Male *n* = 33**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	74.77	91.00	16.23	62.90	57.73	5.18
Needs Closure	46.46	93.00	46.54	38.71	30.42	8.29
Identity Diffusion	47.54	98.00	50.46	44.80	36.79	8.01
Basic Openness	49.46	60.00	10.54	60.08	52.42	7.66
Self-Certitude	35.12	63.00	27.88	39.99	29.33	10.65
Socioemotional Convergence	65.85	37.00	28.85	64.25	57.91	6.34
Meaning Quest	57.65	35.00	22.65	52.88	43.91	8.97
Global Resonance	72.15	28.00	44.15	66.07	60.30	5.77

	Ethnicity			**Ethnicity**		
	Non-White *n* = 10	**White *n* = 18**	***MD***	**Non-White *n* = 55**	**White *n* = 62**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	75.60	76.11	0.51	64.40	58.82	5.58
Needs Closure	42.40	53.89	11.49	39.89	33.26	6.63
Identity Diffusion	50.10	51.72	1.62	46.53	39.00	7.53
Basic Openness	43.60	53.89	10.29	55.44	60.13	4.69
Self-Certitude	41.60	34.61	6.99	39.76	34.52	5.25
Socioemotional Convergence	69.30	60.72	8.58	60.84	63.90	3.07
Meaning Quest	62.80	52.28	10.52	50.78	49.97	0.81
Global Resonance	82.60	61.44	21.16	64.53	64.37	0.16

	Pell Grant Eligibility			**Pell Grant Eligibility**		
	Not a Pell Recipient *n* = 12	**Pell Recipient *n* = 16**	***MD***	**Not a Pell Recipient *n* = 65**	**Pell Recipient *n* = 52**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	75.83	76.00	0.17	54.14	70.58	16.44
Needs Closure	53.67	46.88	6.79	32.63	41.06	8.43
Identity Diffusion	58.17	45.88	12.29	41.17	44.25	3.08
Basic Openness	51.67	49.13	2.54	58.89	56.71	2.18
Self-Certitude	43.00	32.69	10.31	37.55	36.27	1.28
Socioemotional Convergence	61.58	65.44	3.85	63.03	61.75	1.28
Meaning Quest	54.42	57.25	2.83	46.34	55.37	9.03
Global Resonance	71.92	66.81	5.10	62.86	66.42	3.56

	First-Generation Student Status			First-Generation Student Status		
	Not First-Generation ***n*** **= 14**	**First-Generation** ***n*** **= 10**	***MD***	**Not First-Generation** ***n*** **= 73**	**First-Generation** ***n*** **= 32**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	81.07	71.10	9.97	61.00	72.50	11.50
Needs Closure	67.71	28.90	38.81	34.21	49.28	15.08
Identity Diffusion	59.57	33.30	26.27	42.47	50.13	7.66
Basic Openness	58.93	38.50	20.43	62.89	52.34	10.55
Self-Certitude	40.21	28.80	11.41	35.88	41.75	5.87
Socioemotional Convergence	63.79	64.40	0.61	64.10	58.22	5.88
Meaning Quest	60.64	47.50	13.14	49.85	54.59	4.74
Global Resonance	68.14	66.20	1.94	66.03	59.59	6.43

Multiple Regression

To understand the effect of critical demographic variables on the BEVI scale scores post-program, I ran multiple linear, stepwise regressions for five BEVI scales: Self-Certitude, Socioemotional Convergence, Global Resonance, Negative Life Events, and Needs Closure. The first step of the regression identified any relationship between the BEVI scale score and whether a student was an online or an in-person student. In the second step, I calculated the additional impact on the BEVI scale score post-program of demographic variables. A series of scatterplots of BEVI scale scores against study abroad student demographic variables with superimposed regression lines were plotted and visually examined for a linear relationship to assess linearity. There was homoscedasticity and normality of residuals.

As with the pre-program regression analysis results, there were no significant BEVI scales of interest models: Self-Certitude, Socioemotional Convergence, Global Resonance. The Needs Closure model also was not significant. However, both stages of the regression for Negative Life Events had significance. Online student group membership was positively associated with higher Negative Life Events scale scores, $F(1, 143) = 6.044$, $p = 0.015$, with an R^2 of 0.041. The second stage analysis was also significant, with students eligible for the Pell Grant reporting Negative Life Events scores 0.21 higher than those not eligible for the grant based on financial need, $F(1, 138) = 2.923$, $p = 0.010$, with an R^2 of 0.113.

The strength of the regression analysis was affected by the small *n*; however, at the post-program stage, results supported the previous results indicating online student group

membership was correlated with greater feelings of challenge related to students' early years, as indicated by higher scores on the Negative Life Events scale. In addition, as with the pre-program multiple regression results, higher financial need demonstrated by Pell Grant eligibility was also correlated with student feelings of challenge in their formative years. A summary of findings is reported in Table 23.

Table 23

Post-Program BEVI Scores (Groups B and C) – Summary of Regression Analysis Predicting BEVI Scale Scores

***n* = 145**	**Self-Certitude**				**Socioemotional Convergence**				**Global Resonance**			
	b	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***	***b***	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***	***b***	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	0.124	5.196	0.002	0.000	1.324	5.279	0.021	0.000	4.556	5.018	0.076	0.006
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	5.499	6.175	0.089		3.466	6.361	0.055		0.831	5.920	0.014	
Age	-0.671	0.357	0.182		-0.405	0.368	0.108		0.294	0.342	0.082	
Gender	-6.175	4.933	0.108	0.620	-7.416	5.083	0.127	0.036	10.658	4.730	0.19 *	0.081
Ethnicity	-6.305	4.324	0.128		-1.121	4.455	0.022		-6.888	4.146	-0.144	
Pell Eligibility	-4.408	4.537	0.090		2.325	4.674	0.047		6.325	4.350	0.133	
First-Generation Student Status	2.544	5.206	0.047		-5.760	5.363	0.105		-2.056	4.992	-0.23 *	
	Negative Life Events				**Needs Closure**							
	b	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***	***b***	**SE b**	**β**	***R²***				
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	14.484	5.891	0.20*	0.041	13.410	7.518	0.148	0.022				
Online/In-Person Immersion Group	7.992	6.952	0.111		13.583	9.161	0.149					
Age	0.436	0.402	0.102		-0.200	0.529	0.037					
Gender	-5.747	5.554	0.087	0.113	-4.135	7.319	0.049	0.035				
Ethnicity	-1.716	4.868	0.030		-1.923	6.415	0.027					
Pell Eligibility	11.979	5.108	0.21*		3.773	6.731	0.052					
First-Generation Student Status	3.564	5.861	0.057		4.456	7.724	0.056					

Note. * $p < .05$

Longitudinal BEVI Assessment Results

Longitudinal assessment, or comparison across BEVI scales between pre- and post-program assessments, provided insight into the potential change students may have undergone correlated to the study abroad experience. Fifty-nine students (13 online students and 46 in-person immersion students) completed both the pre- and post-program assessments, providing data for matched pairs (Group C, see Table 19). This next section explores the longitudinal comparison across groups and subgroups for BEVI scales of interest for this study and those for which unintended change was identified.

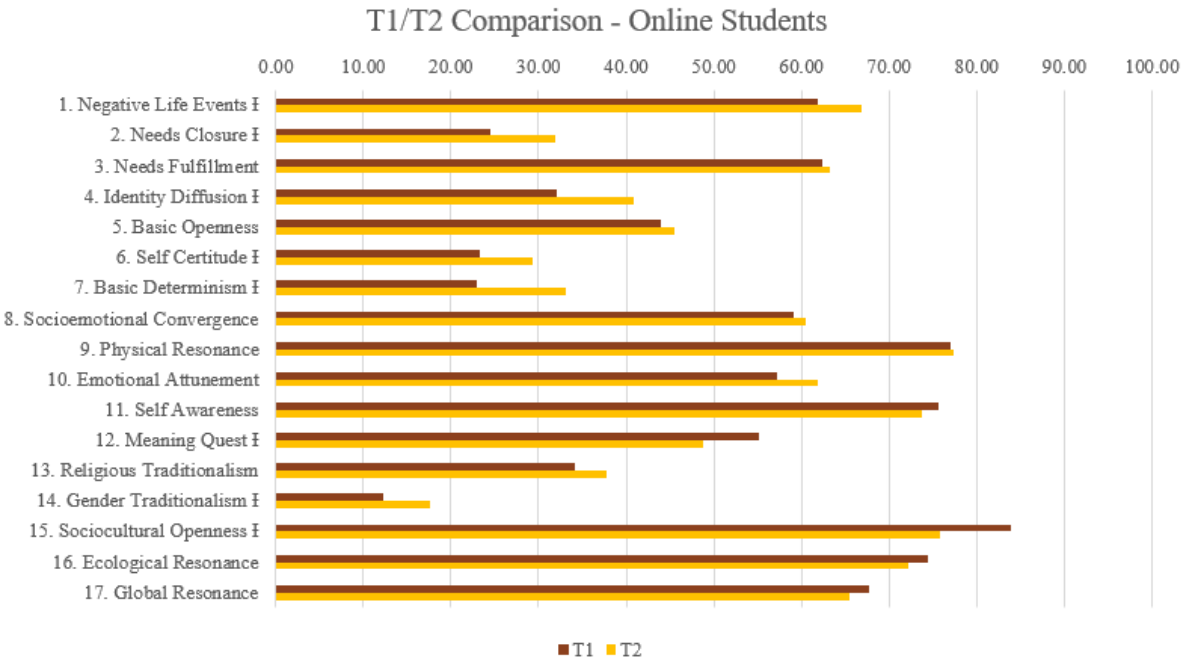
I used dependent *t* tests, or repeated measures, to compare mean average scores for each of the 17 BEVI scales to determine statistically significant differences (Salkind & Frey, 2020). In addition to statistical significance, I also documented mean differences of more than 5 ($MD > 5$) as a measure of real-world or interpretive differences, as is generally accepted in BEVI research (Grant et al., 2021; Shealy, 2016). Although I did conduct the longitudinal analysis on the matched pair data, it is essential to consider the small group size when looking at these results, as dramatic changes for very few students can significantly impact the overall mean average scores for the entire group. Due to the group's small size, I found subgroup analysis ineffective and did not report results at the subgroup level.

Online Student Results

A comparison of online study abroad students longitudinally did not demonstrate statistically significant differences across any of the 17 BEVI scales using dependent *t*-test methodology. This is likely due to the small number ($n = 13$) of students in the sample. There were no meaningful differences in the targeted outcome scales of Socioemotional Convergence and Global Resonance for online students when computing meaningful differences between pre- and post-program assessment scores; however, several real-world differences were identified, including one BEVI scale of interest: Self-Certitude. Online students experienced increased scores on the Negative Life Events scale ($MD = 5.08$), Needs Closure ($MD = 7.46$), Identity Diffusion ($MD = 8.85$), Self-Certitude ($MD = 6.08$), Basic Determinism ($MD = 10.15$), and Gender Traditionalism ($MD = 5.23$). There were meaningful decreases in Meaning Quest ($MD = 6.31$) and Sociocultural Openness ($MD = 8.08$). None of these changes were in the desired direction for the specific scale and could be considered a positive outcome of the short-term, faculty-led study abroad program (see Figure 17). Bar graphs depicting mean differences are in Appendix J.

Figure 17

Longitudinal Comparison – Online Students



Note. *Indicates statistically significant differences between T1 and T2.
Ŧ Indicates descriptive differences (*MD* > 5) between T1 and T2.

Increased scores on the Negative Life Events scale might indicate online students may have reevaluated their childhood to be more challenging than previously realized upon being presented with a different culture or different life circumstances. Although this scale is considered a formative variable in pre-program assessments, in a longitudinal comparison, it is an indicator of the uncomfortable status of disequilintegration, or a state in which one's beliefs have been significantly challenged (Shealy, 2016). In study abroad, this experience is commonly referred to as culture shock, where one operates for an extended period in an ambiguous situation outside of typical cultural cues and patterns, which "yanks the moral rug out from under you" (Kohls, 2001, as cited in Shealy, 2016, p. 413).

Online students also experienced increased scores in Gender Traditionalism, representing an increasing rigidity in binary thinking surrounding gender and gender roles. Combined with meaningful decreases in Sociocultural Openness, which represents seeking and appreciating various viewpoints and experiences, these decreases represent a less than

desirable regression in the Other Access domain. This comparison also demonstrates decreased scores for online students on the Meaning Quest scale, representing an increasingly closed mind on a scale that measures openness to seeking balance and meaning in life.

Self-Certitude measures the degree to which individuals experience a strong sense of will, may exhibit impatience with excuses for difficulties, and may be disinclined toward a deep analysis of circumstances and events (Wandschneider et al., 2015). Increased scores tend to represent a strong sense of will and confidence that challenges may be overcome and include resistance to acknowledging weakness or vulnerability in oneself or others (Acheson & Kelly, 2021).

The numerical regressions across these BEVI scales represent the emotional turmoil online students feel after studying abroad and are indicative of the backlash effect. Often defined as a phenomenon in which there is a "largely unconscious reaction to social progress" (Faludi, 1991, as cited in Iseminger et al., 2020, p. 10), or resistance to changing shifts in conditions and relationships (Mansbridge & Shames, 2008), within the context of intercultural learning experiences, the backlash effect is typically reveled in regression rather than growth in intercultural assessments and has been observed in previous research on study abroad experiences (Iseminger et al., 2020, Grant et al., 2021, Wandschneider et al., 2015). In this study, post-program data were collected approximately 4 weeks after conclusion of the short-term study abroad program and clearly reveal identities in flux immediately after a transformational experience. These results are consistent with the equilintegration perspective that the greater the discrepancy between one's formative variables, such as Negative Life Events and Needs Closure, and the unfamiliar circumstances to which one is exposed, the greater the potential for the self to shut down to protect itself (Wandschneider et al., 2015). Although these results are not desirable, given the high scores for online students in the Negative Life Events and Needs Closure scales, this unsettling effect was not unexpected and

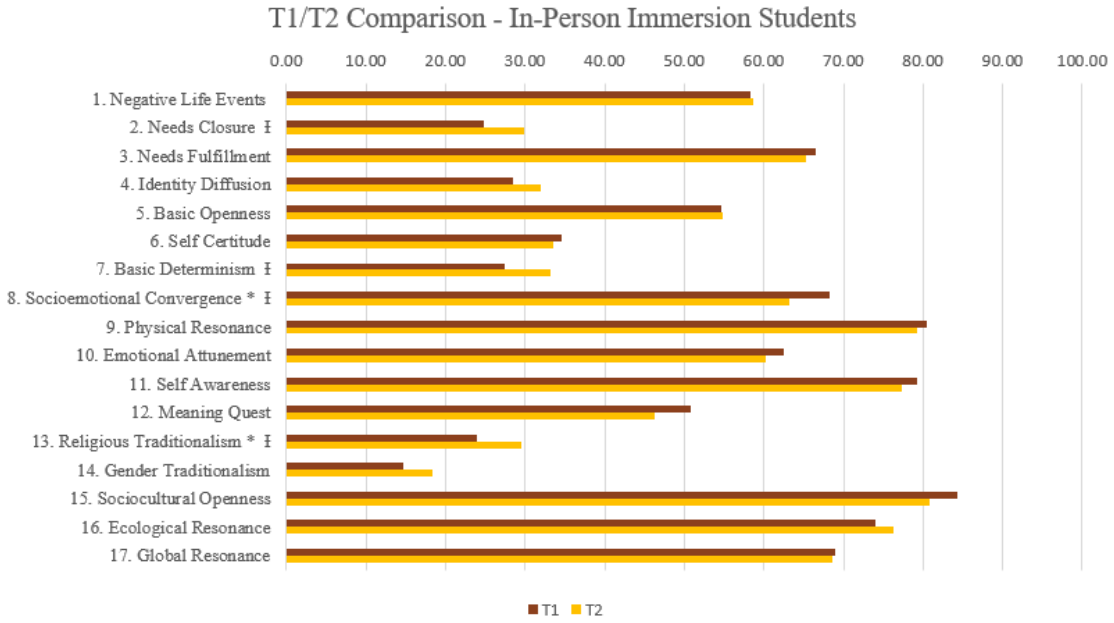
clearly represents the need for additional support (Grant et al., 2021). In administering the BEVI 10 to 22 months past the post-program assessment, past studies have found regression due to backlash to be temporary and a potential precursor to additional positive growth and change as identities resettle and develop further (Wandschneider et al., 2015).

In-Person Immersion Student Results

There were far fewer changes of significance across the BEVI scales for the in-person immersion study abroad cohort as a group (see Figure 18). Comparing in-person study abroad students longitudinally demonstrated statistically significant differences across only two BEVI scales: Socioemotional Convergence and Religious Traditionalism. In-person students scored significantly lower on the Socioemotional Convergence scale, a scale of interest for this study, post-program compared to pre-program, $t_{(45)} = 2.103$, $p = 0.041$. The interpretive difference for this scale is represented by a mean difference of 5.09 ($MD = -5.09$). The Socioemotional Convergence scale is part of the Critical Thinking domain. It captures a person's ability to be aware and understanding of the complexity of others' beliefs and values (Wiley, 2018). Scores may decrease because of programs providing opportunities for learners to encounter significant cultural differences. In addition, the experience of being in a foreign environment may overwhelm coping mechanisms, thus causing a regression on intercultural assessments (Grant et al., 2021) such as this one.

Figure 18

Longitudinal Comparison – In-Person Immersion Students



Note. *Indicates statistically significant differences between T1 and T2.
Ɨ Indicates descriptive differences (*MD* > 5) between T1 and T2.

The Religious Traditionalism scale represents how strongly a person believes in a religious doctrine and the mediation of spiritual force upon events (Wiley, 2018). On the Religious Traditionalism scale, in-person immersion students scored significantly higher on the Religious Traditionalism scale post-program, $t_{(45)} = -2.134$, $p = 0.038$. The change in mean scores between the pre- and post-program assessment for Religious Traditionalism was represented by a mean difference of 5.50 (*MD* = 5.50). High scores on this scale tend to reflect a traditional worldview regarding the nature and purpose of religion (Wandschneider et al., 2015). Scores for in-person immersion study abroad students were only slightly above the average of the scale; however, increases indicate more rigid thinking and potential resistance to difference (Iseminger et al., 2020).

Meaningful unintended change was documented across two other scales for in-person immersion students: Needs Closure (*MD* = 5.17) and Basic Determinism (*MD* = 5.72). As seen with the online students, an increase in Needs Closure scores post-program may indicate

students have reassessed formative events in their childhood and, after a significant cultural event, found they are less satisfied with how their basic needs were met as children.

Basic Determinism measures a person's tendency to prefer simple, dualist explanations for behavior and differences and captures whether a person believes change is possible (Wiley, 2018). The in-person immersion study abroad students scored on the low end of this scale, which is desirable for an institution looking for complex metacognition across the student body (Acheson & Kelly, 2021); however, an increase in scores (*MD* = 5.72) longitudinally indicates a move toward rigidity instead of increased fluidity. This is possibly due to being presented with stressors associated with a challenging cultural environment that have caused regression in this area. As with online students, however, these backlash effects are likely temporary (Wandschneider et al., 2015) but further underline the need for both post-program support to help students through this transitional phase.

Qualitative Results and Analysis

Qualitative results and analysis for the third research question came from two distinct sources. The first data source was semistructured interviews of 23 returned online study abroad students (see Appendix A for complete descriptive statistics on the demographic and academic characteristics of the interview student group). The second data set came from 44 students' responses to three open-ended text questions embedded in the BEVI (see Appendix H for complete descriptive statistics on the demographic and academic characteristics of students completing the BEVI).

Qualitative Interview Data

Most qualitative statements made by the 23 students interviewed were related to Global Access, one of the BEVI scales of interest for this study. Interestingly, this is one of the BEVI scales where meaningful change was not detected longitudinally. These results,

therefore, represent the danger of relying too heavily on self-reported data rather than objective assessment data.

Having returned from his program in Spain, Ethan said he felt more experienced and worldly, and, through his travels, he understood not to judge other people too quickly or assume everyone has the same values. After studying historical events in Spain and meeting Spaniards across different generations, Ethan learned to understand how events can shape your beliefs and values. He recognized homogeneity is not inherent within a culture; the various events in their lifetimes shape people from different generations. This thought process clearly relates to the foundational theories of the EI self (Shealy, 2016). Corrine felt she learned not to rush to judge or be angry with people, because it is essential to listen to other viewpoints. Amber felt the more diverse the education you have received, the better. These statements by Corrine and Amber show growth in critical thinking and tolerance for disequilibrium through thoughtfulness and an appreciation for complexity. A Starbucks College Achievement Plan (SCAP) scholar, Alisha related to some of her regular customers at Starbucks differently and more deeply after studying abroad. Samantha gained a worldview rather than just a view of life from where she lives.

Like Garrett and Meghan, many interviewed students felt they had “stepped out of their comfort zone” and felt more flexible, adaptable, and agile after studying abroad. Bobby learned adaptability and became more comfortable with it, and Zachery appreciated being forced to think another way and adapt to different worldviews. Meghan felt more comfortable following her intuition; Rebecca felt humbler. Sofia felt an “increased confidence in her abilities to handle challenges, and to tackle new experiences, even when she doesn’t know what to expect from them.” She learned she “can do hard things.” Finally, Savanna felt the phrase “life changing” was something people said about studying abroad but that it would never happen to her. But it did, and she shared she feels she knows how far she can push

herself outside her comfort zone and better understands who she is and what she can do when she puts her mind to it. The quantitative BEVI data discussed earlier in this chapter suggest online students were presented with differences while abroad that they found challenging. As a result of this ambiguity, the quantitative BEVI data point to decreased flexibility and increased duality of thinking; therefore, it is likely the interviewed students, although accurately describing how they had "stepped out of their comfort zone," likely overestimated the agility with which they met these challenges.

Qualitative data from the post-program BEVI responses of online study abroad students, although sparse, generally supported data from the interviews, not the quantitative data. A previous BEVI study documented students with more optimal results tended to write more in the qualitative section of the assessment; therefore, the mismatch between the quantitative and qualitative data in this section may be because only students with optimal results responded to this assessment section (K. Acheson, personal communication, July 15, 2021). Feelings of adaptability came through in student comments that were present in the data. For example, one student shared, "Navigating through a different country and culture really allowed me to grow in my ability to be adaptive as well as encouraged me to continue exploring other worlds." Another student shared, "I learned that I am more adaptable than I previously assumed. I can be quite resilient, even though my emotionality has always made me feel the opposite." Not only Tolerance for Disequilibrium, but also an appreciation for the discomfort that comes along with transformational learning, came through from this student: "I have learned that opening yourself up to new and sometimes uncomfortable situations can often time lead to valuable experiences and lifelong friendships." As measured on the Socioemotional Convergence scale, the ability to think through the complexity of circumstance was demonstrated through comments indicating a greater willingness to consider other points of view and realize and identify cultural stereotypes. As with the

interview data, students responding to the qualitative section of the BEVI may be overestimating their growth.

Conclusion

The BEVI provides an institutional profile and the ability to compare groups and subgroups across 17 different scales, providing insight into the beliefs and values held by students and their readiness to learn and experience growth and change. Quantitative analysis of BEVI results for online and in-person immersion students participating in Spring 2019 and Summer 2019 faculty-led study abroad programs demonstrated higher than average scores in the Self-Awareness, Sociocultural Openness, and Ecological Resonance scales. Meaning, the students in this study scored higher than the normed average scores on these three BEVI scales, which represent previous applications of the BEVI in its current version. These scores point to the high levels of care and attention ASU study abroad students pay to themselves and others; their openness to a wide range of cultural, political, and social policies and practices; and their investment in the natural world. The struggles ASU study abroad students have experienced in their lives are apparent through low scores on the Needs Closure scale, representing a challenging upbringing during which core needs were met unsatisfactorily; however, these challenges have given them the experience to appreciate differences, the complexity inherent in problems, and the benefits of fluidity in thinking. Overall, ASU's institutional mission surrounding access and inclusion in higher education, focusing on sustainability and real-world problem solving, is reflected in the institutional profile of this student group.

In comparing pre-program BEVI scores for online and in-person study abroad students, differences began to emerge. Not surprisingly, online students demonstrated they felt they had experienced rougher formative years than in-person immersion students through significantly higher scores in Negative Life Events and Needs Closure. In addition,

differences in Basic Openness and Self-Certitude scales demonstrated online students are less open and honest about their own feelings and have less patience for difficulty than in-person immersion students. Also, online students scored higher on Religious Traditionalism, leading to less tolerance for differences. However, at the same time, online students scored higher than in-person immersion students on the Global Resonance scale, which could mean they are openly seeking access to and understanding of difference.

When analyzing the change in BEVI scores longitudinally, meaningful differences were found for online and in-person study abroad students, indicating change correlated with the short-term, faculty-led study abroad experience. Already high on Negative Life Events and Needs Closure scales, online students' increased scores for these scales at T2 indicate a higher level of dissatisfaction with childhood formative events. Their increased Identity Diffusion scores indicate increased dissatisfaction may also be contributing to decreased feelings of optimism about the future. At the same time, their Self-Certitude scale score increase may indicate confidence in being able to overcome their challenges. Post-program online students became more rigid in their thinking and approached things with a more closed mind and less appreciation for different viewpoints, as shown by increased scores in Gender Traditionalism and decreased scores on Sociocultural Openness and Self-Access. Overall, these results demonstrate the backlash effect in motion.

In-person immersion study abroad student scores demonstrated less volatility in the longitudinal comparison, partly due to their relative starting point on the scales for the Formative Variables and Fulfillment of Core Needs domains; however, similar to online students, in-person students demonstrated increased scores on Needs Closure, indicating they too had revaluated their childhood and had been less satisfied. In-person students also showed increasing rigidity of thinking, decreasing understanding for the complexity of beliefs, and potential resistance to difference through increased scores on Religious Traditionalism and

Basic Determinism scales and reduced scores on the Socioemotional Convergence scale. As with online study abroad students, this regression is consistent with equilintegration theory (EI), the theory on which the BEVI is based, and past studies (Iseminger et al., 2020; Shealy, 2016; Wandschneider et al., 2015).

The two sets of qualitative results associated with this research question seem to contradict the quantitative data while being consistent with each other. Students reported feeling confident in their newfound abilities to adapt to new situations and be flexible and agile; however, the self-reporting of positive growth may have come from higher achievers in the group and may not represent the average. As previously mentioned, the BEVI is face valid; therefore, it is not easy for the participant to ascertain what it is assessing. Interview participants volunteer for the process. It is easy for interview participants to tell the interviewer what they want to hear and over emphasize their individual success in relation to assumed expectations. Therefore, it is important to view the qualitative results within the context of the entire result set to understand the nuances in how the data interact.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

"The decisions I made after that moment . . . were the choices of a changed person, a new self. You could call this selfhood many things. Transformation. Metamorphosis. Falsity. Betrayal. I call it an education."

– Tara Westover, in *Educated, a Memoir*

This exploratory study sought to understand the impact of short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs on online students. The research documents and compares the academic and demographic characteristics of a sample of online and in-person immersion students participating in short-term, faculty-led study abroad; their study abroad motivations; and how the experience changed their beliefs, attitudes, and values. In the context of this study, online learners are students who, prior to study abroad, had taken classes exclusively in an online environment. In-person immersion students in this study represented on-campus learners. Participants represented 221 online and 1,133 in-person immersion students who participated in short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs across multiple international locations, ranging from less than 2 weeks to 8 weeks in length.

A convergent mixed-methods design was employed in this study to confirm and corroborate findings between the quantitative and qualitative data collected in a single phase (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Three sets of quantitative data were analyzed in this study, one for each of the research questions. The first research question was assessed through analysis of institutional data (see Research Question 1). The second research question was considered through pre- and post-program surveys (see Research Question 2). Finally, the third research question was addressed through the Beliefs, Events, and Values Inventory (BEVI), a standardized assessment tool (see Research Question 3). Qualitative data in this study were collected concurrently with the quantitative data. They support the quantitative data by personalizing the student experience and providing student voices to help expand upon and explain quantitative results.

This final chapter summarizes findings related to the research questions and discusses implications for international education and higher education more broadly. I conclude the chapter with recommendations for future research.

Research Questions

Compared with in-person immersion students who study abroad, the goal of this research was to explore and understand online students choosing to participate in in-person, faculty-led, short-term study abroad. The primary research questions are:

1. How do online study abroad students compare across academic and demographic variables with in-person immersion study abroad students?
2. Compared to in-person immersion study abroad students, what motivates online students to study abroad? What expectations do online students have for study abroad concerning their academic and professional goals?
3. Compared to in-person immersion study abroad students, how does study abroad change online students' beliefs, attitudes, and values?

Findings

Finding 1: Online Study Abroad Students and In-Person Study Abroad Students Are Both Alike and Different in Many Ways

The first research question asked how online and in-person study abroad students compare across demographic and academic variables. There are many stereotypes and generalizations in higher education related to online students' demographic characteristics, learning abilities, and rationales for pursuing a college degree. Prior studies have noted online students' profiles and educational motivations (Angelino et al., 2007; Cupitt & Golshan, 2015; Dutton et al., 2002; Kara et al., 2019; Ke & Kwak, 2013; Ortagus, 2017; Wighting et al., 2008); however, to my knowledge, this is the first study of its kind to examine online students in the context of study abroad. Overall, in comparing online and in-person

immersion study abroad students, I found similarities and differences by investigating quantitative data expressed through demographic and academic variables and psychometric assessment (the BEVI). Traditional horizontal inequalities regarding access to study abroad, such as age, gender, and socioeconomic status, are apparent in the online student participation in study abroad in this sample.

An assessment of academic and demographic characteristics identified significant differences between the online study abroad cohort and the in-person study abroad cohort consistent with past research documenting the heterogeneity of online learners (Kara et al., 2019; Rizvi et al., 2019) and their variance from the traditional in-person higher education population (Chen, 2017). Online study abroad students in this study were significantly older than in-person immersion study abroad students, have attended multiple institutions before ASU, and possibly have had periods of nonattendance, consistent with past research on online learners' often circular path to higher education (Kara et al., 2019) and nontraditional adult learners more broadly (Singh et al., 2021). Online study abroad students in this sample were significantly more likely to be White, a finding that supports past research indicating online classrooms are less diverse than physical classrooms (Angelino et al., 2007; Gunawardena, 2014; Ke & Kwak, 2013; Khan et al., 2017) and the impact on ethnicity on study abroad intent (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015). There were no statistically significant differences in gender between the two study abroad cohorts, consistent with research documenting that female students are more likely to study abroad than male students (Salisbury et al., 2011; Stroud, 2010; Van Mol, 2021). When controlling for gender, online study abroad students in this study were statistically significantly more likely to be STEM majors and less likely to be first-generation students. Although online students have not specifically been studied in this context previously, past research correlates female participation in study abroad with higher enrollment in humanities-based majors where

students could potentially see the most benefit (Cordua & Netz, 2021; Hurst, 2019). Although there were significantly more STEM majors in the in-person study abroad cohort, STEM students who studied abroad were more likely to also be online students. Additionally, the impact of woman's societal gender roles on study abroad intent identified in previous studies (Cordua & Netz, 2021) was found in the qualitative data during which female students expressed activities, such as the identification of appropriate childcare and family support activities, as barriers to study abroad.

Online students expressed concerns in interviews related to funding and specifically the perception that study abroad costs were too high, consistent with past research identifying financial concerns and costs associated with studying abroad broadly as barriers to study abroad participation across multiple populations (Janda, 2016; Stroud, 2010; Vernon et al., 2017; L. C. Wang et al., 2016). There were no differences between the two cohorts when considering financial need as a single variable, which aligns with past research identifying a positive relationship between grant-level financial assistance and study abroad participation (Whatley, 2017). When ranking program features, significantly more online students ranked the cost of study abroad to be of lower priority than in-person students. This is surprising given the relative similarity in financial need related to education across the two groups, alongside the perceptions among online students interviewed that studying abroad is prohibitively expensive. The low importance placed on cost related to study abroad felt by online students may indicate the value online students place on the experience that goes above and beyond dollars and cents, or it could be an indicator of high levels of motivation online students feel relative to the opportunity. They may feel it is their "one chance" to make this type of experience happen. Online students sacrifice quite a bit in terms of the typical college-going experience to earn an undergraduate degree while balancing their multiple roles and identities. Compared to in-person immersion students, who could feel they have

many opportunities to pursue a wide range of opportunities over 4 years, online students may consider study abroad to be the highlight of their higher education career and therefore are willing to outlay the funds necessary to have that experience.

Significantly more online study abroad students identified as first-generation compared to in-person study abroad students; however, they were less likely than in-person immersion first-generation students to also have the highest financial need. This result contrasts with research identifying first-generation student status as highly correlated with the highest financial need (Renn & Reason, 2021). However, these results may not be unexpected considering past research identifying a positive correlation between age and study abroad due to increased financial independence (Di Pietro & Page, 2008; Netz et al., 2020). As previously mentioned, in this study, online first-generation students were significantly older than in-person immersion first-generation students.

Data gathered through the BEVI at the pre-program stage offer some understanding of how the previously discussed demographic and academic variables interact with students' beliefs and values to impact their learning. Essentially, the BEVI measures those things that cannot be documented outwardly in institutional data. This study makes a unique contribution to the literature by documenting two types of quantitative differences in the psychometric data assessed through the BEVI between the online study abroad and in-person immersion study abroad students. Online students scored significantly higher on two scales indicating they felt they had experienced greater struggles and traumatic events in their lives thus far (Negative Life Events scale) and felt their core needs, such as affection and attachment, were not satisfactorily met during childhood (Needs Closure scale). Higher scores on these two scales are typically associated with lower degrees of critical thinking and openness to difference (Wandschneider et al., 2015). Students with higher scores on these scales are typically less receptive to and more challenged by a curriculum that exposes them to different

beliefs and values. Group membership in the online study abroad cohort was also statistically tied to higher scores on the Negative Lie Events scale through examination of mean differences for non-White, Pell Grant-eligible, and first-generation students, and through multiple regression along with the Needs Closure scale when controlling for age, gender, ethnicity, Pell Grant eligibility, and first-generation student status. Additionally, through interpretation of additional scale differences, compared to in-person immersion students, online students may be seen to have less patience for difficulty, less tolerance for difference, and more rigid thinking patterns. These results support past research that has identified differences across BEVI scales in in-person immersion students across various socioeconomic factors such as gender, ethnicity, and country of origin (Grant et al., 2021; Iseminger et al., 2020). Additionally, in this study, through higher scores on the Global Resonance scale, online students were openly seeking access to and understanding of differences. This correlates with results from the RQ2 survey, which also indicate online students have greater expectations that they will gain exposure to different cultures through study abroad. These findings are consistent with research on diverse adult students finding they enter the learning space with significant life experiences that influence learning (Chen, 2017). My study makes an important contribution to the literature on diversity among online learners by providing evidence of psychometric, academic, and demographic factors that work together to impact online students' study abroad outcomes.

Qualitative data from interviews of returned online study abroad students further documented online students' intersectional identities (Crenshaw, 1991), consistent with past research on the diversity of life roles held by adult learners (Chen, 2017). Online study abroad students are striving to balance roles such as employee, spouse, and caregiver with the role of student. Two distinct themes emerged from the qualitative research data related to how demographic and academic variables affected participation in short-term, faculty-led

study abroad programming for online students. Real and perceived barriers to participation were either external and related to logistics or internal and related to identity. Identified external barriers to participation included family responsibilities, professional responsibilities, program cost, and program length. Internal barriers related to identity or students' perceptions of themselves were age, online student status, and lack of academic identity. These findings are consistent with findings of a recent comprehensive literature review on challenges facing adult learners in online education in nine countries, finding internal challenges associated with the balance between education, work, and family life, and external barriers related to either job-related or domestic-related challenges (Kara et al., 2019).

Prior to study abroad, this study identified little to no differences in study abroad intentions and expectations between online and in-person students when considered within the framework of the theory of planned behavior (TBP). Data from surveys administered before departure assessed study abroad intentions and expectations across four constructs associated with TBP: personal growth, career goals, academic goals, and family expectations. There were no statistically significant differences when comparing online and in-person student responses across any construct. This indicates although differences exist between the two groups, they had similar intentions and expectations for the short-term study abroad experience. This result is a key contribution of this study to the literature on study abroad intentions. Even with all the academic and demographic differences between the two cohorts, online and in-person study abroad students approached study abroad with similar intentions and goals.

Finding 2: The Diversity of Online Study Abroad Students and Their Varied and Often Challenging Social and Academic Backgrounds Contribute to How and What They Learn During Short-Term Study Abroad Programs

An examination of the post-program data from both the TBP survey used to address RQ2 and the BEVI data used to address RQ3 demonstrates the "what" and "why" behind the differences in study abroad outcomes when comparing online and in-person study abroad students.

The self-reported survey data indicate, post-program, online students felt study abroad had contributed significantly more positively to their personal growth, development of a changed worldview, and growth of intercultural competencies, such as adaptability and comfort with ambiguity compared to in-person immersion study abroad students. After study abroad, online students also continued to score higher than in-person immersion students on the BEVI scale of Global Resonance, indicating a desire to learn about different cultures and share diverse experiences. These results are in line with past research documenting the value of study abroad in contributing to personal growth (C. L. Anderson et al., 2016; Mapp, 2012; Ramakrishna et al., 2016; Ruth et al., 2019) and intercultural competencies (P. H. Anderson & Lawton, 2011; Edmunds & Shore, 2020; J. Jackson, 2008; Nam, 2011; Reiter & Embry, 2016). Qualitative data from interviews of online students also support past studies positioning study abroad as a "cultural eye-opener," providing a more realistic picture of one's cultural abilities (Iskhakova et al., 2021, p. 10). Returned online study abroad students expressed through interviews that they were eager to continue their interactions with diverse cultures, consistent with past studies on students' changed worldviews after study abroad (Goldstein, 2022) and increased willingness to interact with others (Gaia, 2015).

When considering the impact of the short-term study abroad program on online and in-person study abroad students, a deeper examination of the psychometric BEVI data

demonstrates two overarching and significant themes: identity unsettling and a backlash response. Results from all students completing the BEVI post-program demonstrate online students scored higher than in-person immersion students considering mean differences on Identity Diffusion and Meaning Quest scales and scored lower on Basic Openness. These results indicate, post study abroad, online students felt a loss of control in their identity, were searching for an understanding of where they fit into their previous lives, and were retreating into more closemindedness. Assessing only data from matched-pair responses, online students again scored higher than in-person immersion students when considering mean differences in Identity Diffusion, Self-Certitude, Basic Determinism, and Gender Traditionalism. There were also meaningful decreases in Meaning Quest and Sociocultural Openness. In addition to those changes previously mentioned, these changes indicate decreased openness toward different viewpoints and experiences, increased binary thinking surrounding gender and gender roles, and increased resistance to vulnerability in oneself or others.

A likely explanation for these changes is what is often called the backlash effect, a "largely unconscious reaction to social progress" (Faludi, 1991, as cited in Iseminger et al., 2020, p. 10), or resistance to changing shifts in conditions and relationships (Mansbridge & Shames, 2008). These results are consistent with past studies which have identified regression rather than growth because of intercultural learning experiences (Iseminger et al., 2020, Grant et al., 2021, Wandschneider et al., 2015). In this study, online study abroad students experienced culture shock, exhibiting difficulties associated with being placed in a challenging environment that contradicted their worldview. Although this study uniquely documents results for online students, these results showing backlash are in accordance with EI theory (Shealy, 2016) and have been reported previous studies capturing identities in flux immediately after a transformational experience for in-person immersion students (Iseminger

et al., 2020). Previous research also posits this type of disorienting change can occur when adult learners interact with other students with different experiences and interpretations of experiences (Chen, 2017). As online students have not been challenged by difference in the classroom and in the on-campus environment in the same way in-person immersion students have, the backlash effect in this study may also be a reaction to increased diversity in the student cohort and the diverse cultural environment abroad. Although disappointing, past studies also have found this regression a temporary setback to further growth (Wandschneider et al., 2015) and suggested proper support can mitigate this backlash effect and help students work toward resilience and personal development (Grant et al., 2021).

Consistent with past research indicating experiences in the early part of life affect personality development (Zimmermann et al., 2021) and perspective transformation (Chen, 2017), two mediating BEVI scales may help explain why online students experienced the backlash effect: Negative Life Events and Needs Closure. I identified differences in these two scales between online and in-person immersion students in almost all analyses conducted. Assessing all online and in-person students who completed the post-program BEVI, online students scored meaningfully higher (considering mean differences) on both Negative Life Events and Needs Closure compared to in-person immersions students, and statistically higher on Negative Life Events using *t* tests. Negative Life Events was also positively associated with group membership in the online study abroad cohort compared to in-person immersion students when considered using multiple regression analysis. Using only longitudinal data for matched pairs, online students also experienced increases in Negative Life Events and Needs Closure compared to their pre-program scores. Higher scores on the Negative Life Event scale demonstrate greater trauma-related feelings relative to childhood events. Higher scores on Needs Closure are more likely to indicate core needs, such as attachment or affection, were not met adequately during childhood. These two scales are

mediating variables in the BEVI, helping to explain the underlying psychological processes affecting how and what we learn (Wandschneider et al., 2015). In longitudinal comparisons, increased scores indicate existing beliefs are being challenged significantly—the individuals being assessed are in a state of disequilintegration or culture shock (Shealy, 2016). The higher scores on both of the scales for online students are consistent with adult learning research indicating adult learners bring past life experiences to the educational experience that can either enhance or inhibit learning (Chen, 2017).

There was a bright spot in the post-program analysis of online study abroad students for online first-generation students. Compared to online study abroad students who did not identify as first-generation, online first-generation students felt less pessimistic about their childhood events, more confident about their identities, more comfortable with complexity, and more hopeful for the future after studying abroad. Although it is not uncommon for a global experience to cause a reevaluation of the self and past experiences (Iseminger et al., 2020), as posited in past research, the emotional resilience demonstrated by online first-generation students may be indicative of additional layers of strength and adaptability, allowing first-generation students to be uniquely prepared for a disorienting and transformational experience (Rausch, 2017).

In-person immersion study abroad students experienced much less volatility in post-program scores across all BEVI scales than online study abroad students. There were only four BEVI scales with statistically significant or meaningful changes longitudinally for in-person immersion students compared to the eight BEVI scales for which similar changes were documented for online students. However, just as with online study abroad students, the backlash effect was also visible in the in-person immersion students' scores. The post-program analysis found a decline in in-person immersion students' ability to be aware of and understand the complexity of others' beliefs and values, increased rigidity in thinking, and

increased resistance to difference. They also felt increased negativity toward their formative years. As with online study abroad students, this regression was consistent with past studies and with the theory on which the BEVI is based and is consistent with the results of past studies (Iseminger et al., 2020; Shealy, 2016; Wandschneider et al., 2015). One potential explanation for the reduced volatility in in-person students' scores may be that their past experiences allowed them to return to equilibrium more quickly and with less effort. Past research has likened intercultural development to a pendulum swinging back and forth between a focus on the similar and a focus on the different, rather than a straight line moving from one end of a cultural competence continuum to another (Acheson & Bean, 2019). In this study, in-person immersion students' coping mechanisms may be such that they dampen the velocity and amplitude of the pendulum swing.

Overall, insights from this first-in-kind study featuring online students use BEVI data to demonstrate online students approached study abroad with a worldview placing them at risk of having their coping mechanisms overwhelmed by the difference and diversity inherent in the experience. Despite the desire to learn about diversity online students expressed in the RQ2 data and their self-reported gains in global competencies, such as flexibility and adaptability, the BEVI data told quite a different story. This contrast underlines the value of standardized psychometric instruments like the BEVI in assessing outcomes accurately and objectively. Secondly, the study demonstrated how challenging it can be to make demonstrable positive progress in developing a more global worldview, tolerance for diversity, and increased critical thinking skills. These results are in accordance with past research documenting backlash against social growth within in-person immersion study abroad students (Grant et al., 2021), indicating the transformative learning associated with students' identity changes is complex and likely to stimulate resistance (Killick & Foster, 2021). Beliefs and values are well-developed structures representing a unique culmination of

interaction between affective, attributional, and developmental processes (Shealy, 2005, 2016). Building a new structure is neither quick nor straightforward (Grant et al., 2021). Without addressing students' beliefs and values as they exist before study abroad, and without providing space for faculty-led guided reflection and personal analysis during and after study abroad, the potential for mislearning exists (Killick & Foster, 2021). Study abroad programming and pedagogy can introduce what Acheson and Bean (2019) referred to as anchors, grounding students and helping them resist wild swings on the intercultural learning pendulum. Without taking responsibility for guiding students through the reformation of new identities through activities such as guided reflection and personal analysis, promoting transformational experiences such as study abroad may be doing more harm than good for our most vulnerable populations.

Finding 3: Online Students Show No Signs of Academic Deficits Going Into Short-Term, Faculty-Led Study Abroad Programs; However, They Seem to Gain Different and Significant Academic Development Outcomes

A comparative assessment of quantitative academic indicators across the online and in-person study abroad cohorts identified online students in this study as less likely to have enrolled at ASU as first-year students, to have earned significantly more transfer credit hours, and to have had a lower transfer GPA. These data demonstrate online students have taken a different pathway through higher education than in-person students, attending multiple institutions in what is sometimes called swirl, consistent with patterns of enrollment identified in research on adult learners (McGregor, 2018). However, once landing at ASU there were no significant differences in the GPA of the two cohorts, a marker of academic success. Both cohorts had ASU GPAs over 3.4, supporting past research indicating study abroad participation is correlated with academic performance (Luo & Jamieson-Drake, 2015). Although online students had completed significantly fewer credits at ASU by the time they

studied abroad than in-person students, combined with their transfer credits, they were further along in their degree progress than in-person students. This is also demonstrated through the students' class standing. Significantly fewer online students were sophomores and juniors, traditional timeframes for study abroad. There were significantly higher numbers of online students in this study from the arts and sciences colleges and significantly fewer from more structured disciplines such as engineering. This evidence upholds previous research indicating students from flexible degree programs are more likely to study abroad compared to those in structured programs where the cost of stopping out to study abroad is perceived to be too high (Kim & Lawrence, 2021). When ranking program features, online students were significantly less likely to rank the content or subject area of the study abroad program most highly. This contradicts my expectations, as I suspected online learners would have been most interested in specific knowledge transfer related to the immediate application of the learnings, which is often the case in adult learning theories (Halx, 2010). There was no difference between how the two cohorts ranked the applicability of the program's credits to their degree program. To address the degree applicability of study abroad, the literature suggests the importance of planning a designated space in a student's degree plan for study abroad, or a mobility window (Leask & Green, 2020). Based on where online students are in their academic journey, this disciplined approach is likely not to be available to them. Data from this study suggest, to fit study abroad into a compressed academic timeline, online students seek broad-based, multidisciplinary academic programs applicable to a wide range of degrees at the upper-division level.

Although the quantitative indicators demonstrated little academic deficit related to study abroad participation for online students, the internal barriers identified related to identity or students' perceptions of themselves are perhaps distinct and worthy of considerable attention. Qualitative data from interviews of returned online study abroad

students indicated study abroad helped online students develop an academic identity and overcome a deficit mentality associated with online student status. These findings are consistent with the literature indicating the importance of interaction with faculty and peer students in an academic setting where students can prioritize academics over other important aspects of their lives and develop and participate in learner relationships (Killick & Foster, 2021). Through participating in study abroad, the qualitative data demonstrated online students could focus on their role as students in a novel way, corroborating research on adult learners indicating they may experience role strain, or difficulty meeting the demands of their separate roles in their everyday lives (Chen, 2017). As found in past research in which a sense of community and belonging allowed adult students to focus on the learning (B. Davis & Coryell, 2020), online students in this study leaned into their own inquiry and learning, exploring and cultivating a sense of academic self they reported not having encountered previously. In addition, study abroad helped online students overcome a general feeling typical, experiential college-going experiences like study abroad are not for students "like them." These findings broadly support the work of research in this area identifying study abroad academic outcomes such as increased confidence (Anderson et al., 2016) and greater academic focus (Hadis, 2005) as well as the value of peers as co-learners in the academic development of study abroad students (Ruth et al., 2019). Additionally, students commented that study abroad honed their interest in their current major or discipline and potentially graduate school. This is consistent with past research on academic development outcomes in undergraduate faculty-led research programs (Ruth et al., 2021) and high-impact practices more broadly (Kilgo et al., 2015).

Another particularly important aspect of online students' experience with study abroad is the importance of relationships with faculty. When ranking program features, there were significant differences in how online and in-person immersion students prioritized in-

person interactions with an instructor and fellow students onsite, with online students ranking these interactions more highly. Online students were also significantly more likely than in-person students to respond positively to the value of study abroad in helping them develop a closer connection to faculty, both in pre-program and post-program survey results. Differences in how online and in-person immersion students responded to this value statement indicate online students are more likely to approach the study abroad experience from the perspective of intentionally developing a closer relationship with a faculty member of the institution. This finding is a key contribution to the research on study abroad intent. The online students interviewed also communicated they not only studied abroad with the intention of making connections with faculty, but they also had developed strong, often mentor-like relationships with individual faculty because of the program. Many contrasted these relationships with the sense of isolation they felt in the asynchronous nature of their online classes. These data contrast with the literature assuming online students approach education from a transactional perspective rather than a transformational approach based on relationships (Fischman & Gardner, 2020). However, it supports research identifying low interaction with faculty and students and feelings of isolation as top program-related challenges felt by adult learners in online programs (Kara et al., 2019) as well as the results of a national survey of online students in the United States indicating online students are craving engaged interaction with their peers and faculty (Clinefelter et al., 2019). However, it contrasts with previous studies in which in-person immersion student and faculty relationships were not found to extend past the end of the study abroad program (Ruth et al., 2019). Qualitative data also suggested online students felt a greater sense of belonging and a deeper connection to the institution after study abroad because of these relationships. This is consistent with past research finding faculty relationships play a critical role in helping online students feel a sense of belonging at the institution (Perez, 2020; Ruth et al., 2019). Data

identifying online students' intentions to use study abroad as a vehicle for developing relationships with faculty, the duration of those relationships past the study abroad experience, and the impact of those relationships on online students' sense of belonging within the institution are meaningful contributions of this study in understanding online student engagement in higher education.

Finally, online students were significantly more likely than in-person immersion students to report through survey data that study abroad gave them access to academic content directly connected to their major they were not otherwise getting in their regular classes. Online students interviewed expressed their strong appreciation for the experiential nature of study abroad, where they could physically interact with the subject matter, their surroundings, and fellow learners. This is consistent with past research identifying the benefits of active and collaborative learning in high-impact practices such as study abroad (Kilgo et al., 2015; Kuh, 2008) and its appeal to different learning styles (Metzger, 2006). The experiential nature of study abroad also places the learner in the center of the learning process, pedagogy found to be especially important in adult learning theories in which the educator and the student are partners in the learning process (Chen, 2017). These findings contribute to the literature on experiential learning and highlight its relevance for both adult learners and online students.

Finding 4: Study Abroad Can Serve as an Important Career Readiness Activity for Online Students, and Participation and Learnings May Be Enhanced by Direct Employer Support

Students and employers recognize the value of global skills and competencies in increasingly global workplaces and economies. Study abroad has been associated positively with better career prospects, higher wages, and steeper wage growth in the literature (Lörz et al., 2016; Potts, 2015). However, past research also indicates students’ ability to recognize

the connection between study abroad and employability may be affected by their social and academic backgrounds (Netz & Finger, 2016). Based on the demographic and social differences identified between online and in-person study abroad cohorts in this study, I expected there to be differences in how the two groups approached study abroad with an eye toward its impact on career goals. Surprisingly, this study identified no statistical differences in how online and in-person immersion students viewed career goals as a motivating factor for studying abroad when assessed prior to the experience.

When assessed after study abroad, online students were significantly more likely to agree the experience affected their career goals positively. Specifically, they related the skills and competencies they learned to effectiveness in their work. This finding is consistent with adult learning theories suggesting older learners can focus their learning on its immediate application more easily than younger students attempting to realize the possibility of future applications (Halx, 2010). It also supports past research proposing the ever-present work-based identity of adult learners is the identity over which they have the least control (Chen, 2017).

Qualitative data allowed for rich analysis related to the intersection of study abroad and career readiness. Interviews of returned online study abroad students indicated studying abroad allowed them to test their career assumptions in a real-world setting and gain concrete, behavioral-based examples of skills and competencies. This supports past research indicating students placed a high value on study abroad as a skill-building experience (Coker & Porter, 2016) as well as the importance to adult learners of opportunities for real-world problem solving in authentic intercultural interactions (Coryell et al., 2014). Interviewed online students also told me they felt studying abroad was a crucial differentiator when employers assess the value of online education across job applicants. They felt study abroad looked good on a resume and sent a signal that differentiated them as candidates. These

statements support past research demonstrating the value of study abroad and international internships both as skill-building exercises and as a vehicle for communicating those skills to employers (Netz & Finger, 2016; Predovic et al., 2021). Although attitudes may be evolving, employers traditionally have valued in-person learning over online learning, especially when making first-time hiring decisions (Roberto & Johnson, 2019). Data from this study suggest, by combining an in-person learning experience with practical learning related to the specific career pursued, online students may be able to differentiate themselves within a marketplace increasingly filled with online degree completions. Past research has demonstrated the positive association between experiential learning activities and perceived employability is particularly important for equity groups looking to differentiate their capabilities (D. Jackson & Dean, 2022). If study abroad has been criticized as transferring horizontal inequalities in higher education to the labor market (Netz et al., 2020), my study suggests increasing access to study abroad for diverse learners in the online student population may be one way to combat this inequity.

Data from this research also provided the unexpected opportunity to evaluate the value of direct employer support of study abroad through the participation of Starbucks College Achievement Plan (SCAP) scholars. Approximately one third of online study abroad students in this study were also SCAP scholars, making them significantly overrepresented in the online study abroad population compared to the general online population for the same time frame. Starbucks allows SCAP scholars to take time off from professional responsibilities and retain their position, and SCAP includes instructional costs of study abroad in the employer tuition benefit. Interviewed SCAP scholars indicated, if not for that support, study abroad would not have been possible for them due to a variety of barriers. Students also spoke about the importance they placed on the support of their managers in encouraging their overall academic goals as well as peer support within their stores. Within

this program, Starbucks is creating a community of learners contributing to the academic and professional development of their staff. This finding confirms past research finding "decreasing work-study conflict and increasing work-study facilitation" (Clark et al., 2019, p. 71) can lead to increased academic and professional development and remove barriers for nontraditional learners which may translate into significant economic opportunity. This study highlights the value of short-term study abroad as a valuable component of this relationship between student, employer, and higher education.

Many of the SCAP scholars participated in a specific short-term study abroad program in Costa Rica developed in partnership between ASU and Starbucks, focused on sustainable agriculture and coffee-related supply chain issues. Qualitative data suggest SCAP scholars chose this program because it aligned both with their professional and personal interests. Interviewed students commented that they returned to work and immediately applied skills learned while abroad. This program is an example of global Work Integrated Learning (WIL), or "educational offerings that formally integrate academic learning with workplace learning, intentionally helping students connect and derive greater meaning from both" (McRae & Johnston, 2016, p. 340). Although global WIL activities have been found to have a higher impact on skill development than domestic WIL activities (D. Jackson & Dean, 2022), I was unable to find evidence of other global WIL activities, such as study abroad developed in partnership with and financially supported by employers. Recognition of study abroad's value by employers has been found to vary by type, length, and prestigious nature of the experience (Van Mol et al., 2021). Engaging employers in developing specific study abroad opportunities for their employees may lead to more direct value for both parties. As demographics of the student population continue to shift, the ever-increasing presence of the working learner requires a reconceptualization of the integration of working and learning

(Clark et al., 2019). Short-term study abroad programs have a key role to play in this shifting landscape in terms of meeting learners where they are at and in equity building.

Limitations

There were several limitations to the research. First, although ASU is a comprehensive university, this research was conducted at a single institution, so findings may not be generalizable to other institutional contexts in the United States or internationally. With no national or international standardized data collection identifying online student participation in study abroad, I could not identify other higher education institutions with similar populations to study and compare. This limitation could be overcome by additional data collection and transparency in international education data in the future. Additionally, ASU's mission of access and inclusion, despite providing excellence at scale, may affect the composition of the student body such that it is distinctly different from other large research universities, with or without online populations. Yet, by using a rich set of institutional, self-reported, and standardized psychometric data quantitative data, in combination with qualitative data, this study provided a nuanced and contextualized understanding of online students choosing to participate in short-term study abroad.

Second, the number of participants responding to the RQ2 survey and the RQ3 BEVI assessment represented a self-selected sample of learners and a smaller group of respondents than desired. In the BEVI data, this small group size caused me to rely more heavily on comparisons of means tests rather than more sophisticated statistical analyses, which could have produced other significant results. In addition, the multiple regression conducted on the RQ3 data produced weak results due to the small *n*, which are not generalizable outside this group of students. Future studies might address small group size by further partnering with faculty to ensure participation in surveys and assessments, more aggressive follow-up with students, or by reducing the number of assessments to a single method to ensure students do

not get survey fatigue before completing all required steps. Nonetheless, this study modeled how mixed methods research can be applied effectively with a small number of participants.

Finally, due to limited contact with participants after completing the short-term study abroad programs, I could not collect a delayed post-program assessment or a time-3 post-test at a 6-month or 1-year interval. Additional longitudinal data at a period sufficiently distant from the end of the program could be helpful in potentially demonstrating how the passage of time might affect longer term impacts on learning or identity development. Although such limitations are common in international education research due to logistical constraints, results of a delayed post-program assessment for this study could also have been affected by students' worldviews and stress levels at the onset of the global COVID-19 pandemic. Therefore, planning for a delayed post-program assessment, outside of such a force majeure, should be addressed in future research to strengthen conclusions and generalize findings.

Implications for Higher Education

Even before the current global health crisis, students turned to online learning to prioritize education within their busy and multidimensional lives. The COVID-19 pandemic presented an extraordinary and unique opportunity to make lasting, impactful, and fundamental changes to higher education. Suppose educators accept online education is a method to expand access to higher education to diverse learners across a continuum of lifelong learning (ASU, 2018a) rather than simply a way to increase revenue streams (Rovai & Downey, 2010). In that case, educators also need to accept and appreciate the diverse sets of experiences, beliefs, and values online students bring to the educational community. Demographic characteristics, lived experiences, and varied worldviews create diverse cultural capital, the power of which is diminished if not properly recognized and valued from an asset mentality (Killick & Foster, 2021). By positioning online students as an asset within our learning communities, instead of promoting supposed deficits, online students can self-

actualize their strengths and contribute to the learning conversation for all students in new and exciting ways.

Findings from this study showed connecting quantitative institutional data, self-reported variables, psychometric assessment, and qualitative data representing students' lived experiences provides the opportunity for rich analysis and understanding. The convergent mixed methods design was a significant strength of this study. By collecting quantitative and qualitative data using different instruments in a single phase, I cross referenced data and identified instances in which various data sources contradicted or corroborated other findings. As with past international education studies, the mixed-methods research design increases the quality of results and provides a more comprehensive understanding of the global learning being examined (Deardorff et al., 2009). Although limited to a single period and a single comprehensive institution, this study also suggests the benefit of conducting mixed-methods research using longitudinal data from multiple institutions on this topic.

This research has demonstrated higher education must abandon stereotypes and any single story (Adichie, 2009) about online students who may have suffered and benefitted from how their multiple identities have been framed (Killick & Foster, 2021). One example of an existing stereotype may include the story that all online students approach education from a transactional perspective, compared to the transformational view of students who have taken the traditional path to in-person, immersion higher education (Fischman & Gardner, 2020). The single story could be that online students are less competent academically or less able to pay for college or the stereotype that online students are less interested in being a part of a higher education community or less likely to finish their degree. This study has proven online students approach higher education with a wide variety of academic and demographic characteristics paired with a range of rationales. It is time for higher education to embrace diverse perspectives and rid itself of what Chen (2017) calls "historic youth-centricity (p. 3).

Remote learning during the COVID-19 pandemic laid bare the reality that it is the detached, less participatory, and interactive learning associated with transactional learning that is the problem (McMurtie, 2021), whatever the delivery modality (online or in-person immersion)—not the student.

For online students in this study, study abroad allowed them a liminal experience unique in their educational journey, a space apart (Bodinger de Uriarte & Di Giovine, 2020) where they were immersed in an unfamiliar environment, outside previously accepted social frameworks, on the same nascent level as their peers. Thus, it is clear studying abroad is a unique transformative learning opportunity for online students, focused on the centrality of experience, critical reflection, and personal development. The question is how higher education might realize the beneficial aspects of this type of educational experience in other ways.

Over the last 2 decades, conversations have swung back and forth between casting online learning first as something to be feared and then as a lifeline during a public health crisis. This most recent forced experiment in online and remote learning for all confirms Coates et al.'s (2021) claim that "teaching online affords wonderful scale economies and adds qualitative dimensions, but at the same time affirms the human significance of students and teachers coming together to talk, relate, stimulate, and care" (p. 172). I propose the future of higher education lies in combining online and in-person learning with blended or hybrid learning experiences where students and faculty are brought together in unique environments to develop tight-knit learning communities around a specific learning goal. Blended learning is defined as the effective integration of asynchronous online learning and in-person learning (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004), creating a community of inquiry structure where cognitive, social, and teaching identities are all equally present (Dziuban et al., 2016; Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007; Shea et al., 2015). Blended learning values the in-person interaction and

engagement between faculty and students and the pedagogical richness and flexibility of online learning (Rasheed et al., 2020). For online study abroad students, analysis of qualitative data from in-person interviews in this study suggests the in-person aspects of their study abroad experiences contribute to the development of previously unrealized learning relationships (Killick & Foster, 2021) with faculty and other students and a newly discovered sense of academic self. Qualitative data and an analysis of quantitative data from surveys in this study suggest online students also develop a sense of belonging to the institution, experience personal growth, and realize increased self-confidence through study abroad. For some, this was due to the experiential nature of the learning; for others, it was the socioacademic integrative moments (Deil-Amen, 2011) of cultural capital transfer occurring outside formal learning. By melding in-person and online instruction, blended learning provides the opportunity for diverse students at all stages of their learning journey to continue their education in a flexible format that fits with their varied needs and experiences.

Moving forward, higher education must leverage the opportunities presented by this pivotal moment in which faculty, administrators, and students are poised to consider the benefits of online learning and new models to focus on the intentional design of accessible, low-cost, high-value, blended learning experiences that provide opportunities for online students to experience transformational learning. Blended learning can be done in various ways, at either the degree or individual course level. Potential models range from a summer on-campus residential experience for online and in-person students in the same major combined with one or two experiential learning courses to an off-campus camp held before students' first term focused on student engagement and success strategies for a blended cohort of first-time students in the same college—or, more simply, offer students local to the campus the opportunity to mix online and in-person classes each semester. Global blended learning can include study abroad integrated with online academic coursework, collaborative

online learning with blended cohorts of in-person and online students collaborating in virtual spaces, or virtual exchange. Global blended learning could also focus on internationalizing the curriculum taught in in-person immersion and online classrooms, leveraging local diversity to develop global awareness across all students (Leask, 2020). The possibilities are as endless as creativity allows, and multiple models can be designed to meet a wide range of needs.

Regardless of the specific model, for blended learning to succeed, there must be an emphasis on standards of quality associated with developing students' skills and abilities to think critically, communicate effectively, and solve problems (ASU, 2018a). To counteract the narrative focused on graduation rates, tuition dollars, and foundation accounts, the significance of online and blended learning in producing true educational value must be studied, documented, and appropriately communicated to stakeholders, from students and parents to educators and employers. It is time to realize that rather than being a substandard replacement for in-person learning, online learning can result in higher learning outcomes for some students and in some disciplines. For online or blended education to be recognized and portable nationally and internationally, global coordination around regulation and quality assurance (Coates et al., 2021) that transcends national education systems and data infrastructures are necessary. Blended learning's informal learning, development of cultural capital, and skills transferrable across disciplines must also be acknowledged and recognized as markers of quality in formal and informal scholarly networks.

The unintended opportunity to analyze the results of this study specific to students participating in the Starbucks College Achievement Plan (SCAP) also highlights the power of partnership between higher education and employers. ASU and Starbucks promote the SCAP program as a space where "ambition meets opportunity" (Arizona State University, n.d.). The SCAP program was the only way to make higher education work financially and logistically

for many of the online study abroad students I interviewed. Although a central component of the SCAP plan is tuition coverage, benefits of such a program go beyond the financial. SCAP scholars felt their employer supported their educational goals; they felt empowered to initiate conversations regarding balancing work hours and school schedules and prioritizing their education. Some SCAP scholars participated in the short-term study abroad program developed in partnership with Starbucks, focusing on sustainable farming and supply chain; others pursued different programs. Regardless of the academic content of the study abroad program, SCAP scholars spoke about how they applied what they learned while abroad in their interactions with customers and colleagues immediately upon returning to work. This program is a clear example of how employers and higher education can work together to support students in developing skills and competencies for success inside and outside the classroom. With an estimated 14% of the global workforce being forced to change jobs due to how technology is transforming the nature of work (Cukier, 2020), partnerships between higher education and employers needed to upskill or retool workers will be a crucial attribute of future success (Fung, 2020).

As higher education comes to this point in the global COVID-19 pandemic that has forced students, educators, and administrators to develop new ways to communicate, learn, and work online, the lines between online and in-person immersion education are more blurred than ever before. It is time to muster our collective courage as educators and administrators to approach students choosing to engage with higher education online from a position of empathy, reduce barriers to access, and develop specific online student success strategies. These strategies could include specific student success coaching by peer or professional staff for students participating in online education; the conceptualizing of unique, flexible, blended learning models for course taking that could be used across lifelong learning; or faculty mentorship or advising programs. Results of this study demonstrate

online students benefit from faculty interaction and mentorship regarding personal, academic and career growth. Providing opportunities for these interactions to occur outside the study abroad context for online students should prove to be beneficial. Strategies could also include developing shorter credentials related to upskilling or retooling or increasing and deepening employer/education partnerships. This moment of historical disruption provides an opportunity to reconsider how higher education structures itself, builds international connections, and develops relationships to better all levels of society. It is time to embrace the possibilities (Leask, 2020) higher education has been so recently forced to discover regarding how to advance the abilities of all students to work within and across cultural and national boundaries effectively, regardless of the delivery modality through which they choose to engage with the teaching and learning educators so desperately want them to have.

Implications for International Education

As the first to document online study abroad students' characteristics, motivations, and outcomes, this study has many implications for international education practice and policy. This research proved study abroad is a viable internationalization strategy for online students with the potential to help them experience personal growth, develop a changed worldview, discover an academic identity, cultivate academic relationships, and connect global learnings to career goals. As online learning participation grows across the United States and the world, only by intentionally including online students in higher education internationalization strategies can those strategies be considered genuinely comprehensive. Tracking study abroad participation by online students as a distinct population nationally and internationally through such data collection efforts as the Institute of International Education's (IIE) Open Doors report could provide additional layers of rich and exciting data for the field, leading to online student-specific success strategies. Large data sets, such as what IIE could provide, might also allow researchers to focus on the effect of heterogeneity

of study abroad and international education programming within the online population instead of focusing on the average effect on such a diverse population (Netz, 2021).

Based on the learnings of this study, I want to highlight several practical implications and recommendations for international education offices promoting study abroad to online students. By focusing on a systemic approach of access, as opposed to individual accommodation, and deliberate design thinking surrounding study abroad, many of these recommendations will simultaneously benefit both online and in-person immersion students.

International education offices need to make data-driven decisions using mixed-methods research strategies rather than assumptions relying on any existing single stories (Adichie, 2009) about online students' study abroad motivations, expectations, and outcomes. Only by taking a hard data-driven look at study abroad participation at our own institutions can international educators examine study abroad participation on our own campuses through the lens of social selectivity historically present in the field. A multidimensional picture of the student body will facilitate development of more specific and successful enrollment and student success strategies effective for an individual institution. Blending quantitative variables from institutional, survey, and outcomes data to cross-reference and corroborate findings further supports and strengthens the power of the data. Although many international education offices rely on self-reported student results related to study abroad outcomes, incorporating psychometric assessment methods provides a more objective view of outcomes and therefore should be considered. Finally, combining qualitative and quantitative data leads to an even richer understanding of the unique profiles of an institution's student body.

With a richer data set and a more thorough understanding of an institution's unique online student profile, I recommend international education offices initiate and participate in a rigorous discussion and communication campaign, educating the university community about the errors of stereotyping online students and emphasizing the results of mixed

methods research. Secondly, as exposure to an idea contributes to intention and adoption, communicate directly, early, and often with online students about study abroad. Emphasize accessibility and availability of study abroad to the diverse communities and identities online students embody. International offices can help reduce the perceived and real barriers to study abroad for online students by emphasizing the applicability of online students' federal and institutional financial aid to study abroad and by providing resources for online students on how to manage "adulting" tasks remotely while abroad, such as keeping bills and rent paid, setting up families for healthy meals and access to groceries and supplies, and finding childcare. To help online students visualize how study abroad can work for students like themselves, provide student testimonials for a wide variety of students demonstrating how they made study abroad finances and logistics work. Representation of diverse study abroad students' needs should go beyond race and ethnicity and encompass other aspects of students' intersectional personalities, such as age, working status, and family status.

The finding related to direct employer support for study abroad should be explored within specific institutional contexts. I recommend international education offices explore existing institutional/employer relationships to identify opportunities to develop study abroad-specific scholarships for students or career-related, short-term study abroad programs. By supporting study abroad as a skill-building activity across historically disadvantaged student groups, employers can directly contribute to reducing horizontal inequality within the labor market and help students build skills and competencies they might not otherwise have the opportunity to develop. International education offices can highlight the career applicability of study abroad by providing guided reflection activities during and after study abroad to help students verbalize their study abroad experiences, learned skills, and competencies in a language that communicates their value to employers. Practically, as many of today's higher education students are working students, create communication templates

students can use with employers to ask for time off to study abroad or start a conversation about managing work coverage while out of the office for an extended period. By developing a partnership toward the shared goal of developing graduates with 21st-century career skills, international education offices and local employers can help break historical patterns of inequity.

In considering how to develop additional, more accessible models for international education, I recommend international offices consider multiple models for study abroad that include a mix of online, blended, hybrid, and in-person teaching modalities inside and outside regular teaching terms. The specific composition of these programs should be influenced by surveys and focus groups of online learners to understand their specific needs and concerns. Focus the in-person portion of the program onsite on experiential, student-led learning with space for students to develop relationships with each other and faculty members. Build flexible, interdisciplinary study abroad academics applicable to a wide variety of majors where online students can develop skills and competencies transferable to various career fields. Recruit faculty teaching online classes to develop short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs. Encourage those faculty to invite students in their online classes to participate, thus increasing the visibility of study abroad opportunities among faculty and students in the online education space. However, it is vital that new online, virtual, or blended global learning activities do not become the low-cost default for students with high financial need, thus creating a further disparity between those who can afford an in-person experience onsite and those who cannot.

Another important practical implication of this research is that international educators must stop assuming exposure to difference will create positive change for all students automatically. Identity reformation is messy and difficult, and students may be vulnerable to the backlash effect. It is time to have hard conversations on how to frame intercultural

experiences in a way that underlines both the positive and potentially negative effects they can have on students and develop pre- and post-program activities accordingly. To do this effectively, faculty and other trained higher education professionals should be encouraged to conduct pre-program assessment activities (like the BEVI) to understand the specific beliefs, values, and experiences of study abroad cohorts before the study abroad experience. Students' beliefs, values, and experiences will affect how receptive they can be to intercultural learning. Based on those assessments, consider adjusting predeparture and onsite learning and activities accordingly. Finally, develop structured reentry programs designed to help students process their study abroad experience and work through the uncomfortable tension that can accompany transformational experiences and resulting changes in identity and worldview. Without this structured, guided reflection and reassessment of beliefs and values to allow one's sense of self to be rebuilt positively, study abroad may do more harm than good to online and other students who have struggled through difficult life circumstances to reach their higher education goals. As transformational learning is not often immediate, this post-program support may be the most vital stage of the entire experience.

Future Research

This study proved online students differ from in-person immersion students participating in short-term, faculty-led study abroad across some dimensions; however, in other areas, the two cohorts were more similar than might have been assumed. The field must explicitly recognize and count online students within national and international data sets tracking international education activities to understand this population and how studying abroad impacts them fully. International education researchers could then conduct further single-phase and longitudinal studies on online study abroad student success and learning outcomes with expanded data sets. One area to consider is whether study abroad could be identified as a high-impact practice (Kuh, 2008) with specifically correlated effects on online

students' academic success, retention, and graduation rates. Could an in-person study abroad experience be designed as an educational intervention to support online students struggling academically? Do returned online study abroad students have higher persistence and graduation rates? What specific feature of the study abroad experience is most impactful in affecting persistence and graduation rates? What features can be replicated in different learning environments and through activities specifically designed for online students, such as internships, service-learning, or research? Are there specific blended or online global learning models in which online students excel? As Netz (2021) put forth, the effects of each of these questions on individuals, rather than the average group effect, should be considered to maximize the impact of distinct learning opportunities. As the online student population worldwide grows and diversifies, the intersection of global learning experiences, such as study abroad and online learning, is a nascent area of study worthy of significant attention.

Another critical area of future research concerns faculty attitudes surrounding the benefits of having online students in the classroom. Quantitative and qualitative evidence from this study suggests online learners bring diverse backgrounds, perspectives, and experiences to the learning community. How does their participation in the community of learners drive and differentiate the richness of the discussion for all participants? How might learning activities be constructed to maximize online students' participation and interaction? How do faculty feel about teaching in online or blended environments relative to student learning outcomes? Does the evidence from the research support these attitudes? Evidence from such studies could contribute to the ongoing educative conversation within the university community about online students' demographic characteristics, higher education rationales, and success stories.

Much literature has been written on the value of orientation and reentry programming for study abroad students (Chieffo & Spaeth, 2017). The results of RQ3 in this study led me

to wonder about the impact for online study abroad students of predeparture orientation activities focused on understanding how past experiences, beliefs, and values affect intercultural learnings as well as the effects of onsite and reentry activities focused on structured reflection and identity formation. As the presence of the backlash effect was identified in the post-program BEVI results for online and in-person study abroad students, additional research is needed to identify whether this is as temporary as past studies seem to indicate. Does this regression persist for students in both cohorts in a similar way? Or, do specific populations within either cohort struggle more than others? And, how can international education professionals and faculty help students move past this regression? What specific activities before, during, and after study abroad can assist students with the specific personal reflection, critical reflection, and analysis necessary to make demonstrable, positive change? It is possible online students' identities and experiences might uniquely place them in a position to make significant and demonstrable progress in developing changed worldviews resulting from pairing an intercultural learning experience with these structured and supportive activities.

Finally, including blended or in-person learning activities in online degree programs is also worthy of further study. For example, how might bringing online students studying chemistry on campus for a laboratory class that mixes in-person immersion students and online students in a single classroom impact online students' academic success, retention, and graduation rates? How might that interaction impact in-person immersion students' experience? How could blended or in-person learning activities be sprinkled throughout the online degree to keep online students engaged and motivated.

Conclusion

In this pivotal moment in higher education, the opportunity exists to make significant and lasting changes to the structures, methods, and attitudes associated with educating

students within a changing world. Given that online students represent a growing population of learners globally, it is essential to consider specific internationalization methods to benefit this nontraditional population. This research study is the first of its kind to assess the impact of short-term, faculty-led study abroad programs on online learners. When considered on the surface, online students in this study were not that different from in-person immersion students in this study. The two groups also had similar motivations for studying abroad. However, online students were impacted by study abroad in distinct ways. The quantitative and qualitative data support the claim that "who we are affects whether, what, and how we learn" (Wandschneider et al., 2015 p. 165). The knowledge from this understanding provides the power to design specific and personalized learning experiences with maximum impact for diverse learners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Literature Review Sources

Internationalization and International Education		
ACE (2017)	Holtbrügge & Engelhard (2016)	Niehaus & Wegener (2018)
Altbach & Knight (2007)	Houser et al. (2014)	Nyaupane et al. (2011)
Altun (2021)	Hubbard (2019)	P. H. Anderson et al. (2006)
Anderson et al. (2006)	Hudzik & Stohl (2009)	Pascarella et al. (2004)
Bennett (2008)	Hudzik (2011)	Petzold & Peter (2015)
Blight et al. (2003)	Hudzik (2014)	Potts & Kim (2021)
Brandenberg et al. (2019)	Hudzik et al. (2016)	Potts (2015)
Brooks & Waters (2021)	IIE (2013)	Predovic et al. (2021)
Cardwell (2020)	IIE (2015)	Presley et al. (2010)
Chieffo & Griffiths (2004)	IIE (2020a)	Pungas et al. (2015)
Chieffo & Griffiths (2009)	IIE (2020b)	Quan (2018)
Chieffo & Spaeth (2017)	IIE (2022)	Ramakrishna et al. (2016)
Chiocca (2021)	Iseminger et al. (2020)	Rausch (2017)
Coates (2020)	Iskhakova et al. (2021)	Reiter & Embry (2016)
Cordua & Netz (2021)	J. Jackson (2008)	Rhoades (2017)
Curtis & Ledgerwood (2018)	J. Simon & Ainsworth (2012)	Robinson (2021)
Davis (1996)	Janda (2016)	Roy et al. (2014)
de Wit (2002)	Janebova & Johnstone (2021)	Sachau et al. (2010)
de Wit (2013)	Jones et al. (2016)	Salisbury et al. (2009)
de Wit et al. (2015)	Kamdar & Lewis (2015)	Salisbury et al. (2010)
DeLaquil (2019)	Kim & Lawrence (2021)	Saylers et al. (2015)
Di Maggio (2016)	Knight et al. (2020)	Schnusenberg et al. (2012)
Di Pietro & Page (2008)	L. C. Wang et al. (2016)	Slotkin et al. (2012)
Di Pietro (2019)	Lingo (2019)	Stroud (2010)
Di Pietro (2020)	Lörz et al (2016)	Trower & Lehmann (2017)
Donnelly-Smith (2009)	Luo & Jamieson-Drake (2015)	Ullom (2020)
Doscher & Landorf (2018)	Malerich (2009)	Van Mol (2017)
Durbin (2006)	Mankowska (2018)	Van Mol et al. (2021)
Edmunds & Shore (2020)	Mapp (2012)	Vernon & Moos (2017)
Engle & Engle (2003)	Maringe et al. (2013)	Vernon (2017)
Fischer (2021)	McKeown et al. (2020)	Waibel et al. (2017)
Fong (2020)	Metzger (2006)	Wandschneider et al. (2015)
Gaia (2015)	Murphy et al. (2014)	Wang (2017)
Goel et al. (2010)	Nam (2011)	Whatley (2017)
Goldstein (2022)	Naylor & Mifsud (2019)	Whatley et al. (2020)
Gunawardena (2014)	Nerlich (2021)	Wiers-Jenssen et al. (2020)
Gürüz (2011)	Netz & Finger (2016)	Wiley (2018)
H. A. Simon (1955)	Netz (2021)	Zhuang et al. (2015)
Hadis (2005)	Netz et al. (2021)	
Hamir (2011)	Nguyet (2021)	
Haupt & Castiello-Gutierrez (2020)		
Hoffa & DePaul (2010)		
Hoffa (2007)		

Higher Education (General)	Online Students and Online Education	
Beck & Milligan (2014)	African Virtual University (n.d.)	Open University (n.d.)
Blight et al. (2003)	Allen & Seaman (2017)	Ortagus (2017)
Carey (2018)	Angelino et al. (2007)	Renn & Reason (2021)
Deil-Amen (2011)	Beck & Milligan (2014)	Rovai & Downey (2010)
Halx (2010)	Coleman (2014)	Seaman et al. (2018)
Hoggan (2016)	Cupitt & Golshan (2015)	Shea et al. (2015)
Kuh (2008)	Docebo (2017)	St. Kitts Nevis Observer Story Editor (2020)
Mezirow (1997)	Dutton et al. (2002)	University of South Africa (2018)
OECD (2017)	Dziuban et al. (2016)	Villar-Onrubia & Rajpal (2016)
Renn & Reason (2021)	Garrison & Arbaugh (2007)	Wighting et al. (2008)
Roksa et al. (2016)	Garrison & Kanuka (2004)	
Tinto (1975)	Gunawardena (2014)	
Tinto (1993)	Gürüz (2011)	
	Habib et al. (2020)	
Other	Jaggers (2014)	
Ajzen (1991)	Ke & Kwak (2013)	
Crenshaw (1991)	Khan et al. (2017)	
Hudzik & Wakeley (1980)	Li (2021)	
Shealy (2016)	M. Anderson (2015)	
	McMurtie (2017)	
	Niazi (2021)	

Appendix B: Email Invitations for Survey Participation

Pre-Program Recruitment Text

Online Students First Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

Congratulations on your decision to study abroad! As an online student, you are a part of a new and innovative population of students choosing to study abroad. I am also a former online student who left a job and family at home to do my own international learning experience; I know that you are feeling lots of things right now!

I am now pursuing a doctorate in the Internationalization of Higher Education at the Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore in Milan, Italy researching the effects of study abroad on online students. I am also part of ASU's Office of the University Provost and work with the Study Abroad Office and faculty across ASU to globalize the undergraduate student experience.

I am asking for your help in researching online students' motivations and expectations regarding study abroad and how the experience changes them. I am particularly interested in the differences between online study abroad students and study abroad students who have previously studied in on-campus classrooms. In participating in this study, you provide valuable information that may impact programming and preparation for online students studying abroad. The results of the study will be used to develop better study abroad programming at ASU.

I am inviting your participation, which will involve participating in both a pre-program and post-program online survey regarding your motivations, expectations, and experiences. The survey should take you about 45 minutes to complete each time. At the study's completion, you can choose to have the results of your survey sent to you, which will contain valuable information about your skills and experiences. You can also choose to participate in a group debrief session where we can go over your survey and answer any questions you may have.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw from the research at any time without penalty. You also have the right to refuse to answer any question(s) for any reason, without penalty. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you do choose to complete the pre-program and post-program survey by XXX, you will be entered in a drawing to win one of 10 $25 gift cards to Amazon.com. All information will be kept confidential. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications. Results will only be shared in aggregate form and never connected to you as an individual.

If you are willing to participate, please click **here** to start the survey.

I appreciate your time and consideration in completing this survey. If you have any questions about this research, please do not hesitate to contact me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Online Students Second Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

I recently sent you an email inviting you to participate in a research study involving online study abroad students' motivations, expectations, skills, and attitudes. I've already heard from many of your peers and wanted to make sure you had the opportunity to participate.

Participation involves taking both a pre-program and post-program online survey regarding your motivations, expectations, and experiences. The survey should take you about 45 minutes to complete each time. At the study's completion, you can choose to have the results of your survey sent to you, which will contain valuable information about your skills and attitudes. At that time, you will also be entered into a drawing to win a $25 gift card from Amazon.com. The pre-program survey must be taken before your departure for your program and the post-program survey by XXX date.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

Thank you in advance for participating. We believe ASU sends the most online students abroad yearly, compared to other U.S. institutions. Your thoughts and answers are important and can help ASU continue to innovate in study abroad for students like you. If you have any questions about the study or your participation, please do not hesitate to reach out to me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Online Students Third Contact – EMAIL TEXT

Dear STUDENT NAME,

There are only a few more days left before you embark upon your study abroad journey! I know your time is valuable during this period, so I want to keep this short. By responding to this survey with your motivations, expectations, and beliefs, you can help us design innovative study abroad programming for future online students. You've already come this far; will you help future Sun Devils fulfill their study abroad dreams too?

In return for participating in both the pre-program survey and post-program survey, you will be entered into a drawing for a $25 Amazon.com gift card. Just complete the pre-program survey before your departure and your post-program survey by XXXX.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

Let me know if you have any questions or concerns at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

In-Person Immersion Students First Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

Congratulations on your decision to study abroad! You are part of a growing number who recognize the importance of a global education in today's world. At this point in your study abroad program preparation, you are probably excited and a little bit nervous. At one time, I was just like you – ready to embark on my own journey as a study abroad student. Today, I am a doctoral student at Universita Cattolica del Sacro Cuore in Milan, Italy researching the effects of study abroad. I am also part of ASU's Office of the University Provost and work with the Study Abroad Office and faculty across ASU to globalize the undergraduate student experience.

I am asking for your help in researching students' motivations and expectations regarding study abroad and how the experience changes them. The results of the study will be used to develop better study abroad programming at ASU. In participating in this study, you are providing valuable information that may impact programming and preparation of students studying abroad.

I am inviting your participation, which will involve participating in both a pre-program and post-program online survey regarding your motivations, expectations, and experiences. The survey should take you about 45 minutes to complete each time. At the study's completion, you can choose to have the results of your survey sent to you, which will contain valuable information about your skills and attitudes. You can also choose to participate in a group debrief session where we can go over your survey and answer any questions you may have.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw from the research at any time without penalty. You also have the right to refuse to answer any question(s) for any reason, without penalty. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you do choose to complete the pre-program and post-program survey by XXX, you will be entered in a drawing to win one of 10 $25 gift cards to Amazon.com.

All information will be kept confidential. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications. Results will only be shared in aggregate form and never connected to you as an individual.

If you are willing to participate, please click **here** to start the survey.

I appreciate your time and consideration in completing this survey. If you have any questions about this research, please do not hesitate to contact me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

In-Person Immersion Student Second Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

I recently sent you an email inviting you to participate in a research study involving study abroad students' motivations and expectations, skills, and attitudes. I've already heard from many of your peers and wanted to make sure you had the opportunity to participate.

Participation involves taking both a pre-program and post-program online survey regarding your motivations, expectations, and experiences. The survey should take you about 45 minutes to complete each time. At the study's completion, you can choose to have the results of your survey sent to you, which will contain valuable information about your skills and beliefs. At that time, you will also be entered into a drawing to win a $25 gift card from Amazon.com. The pre-program survey must be taken before your departure for your program and the post-program by XXX date.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

Thank you in advance for participating. Your thoughts and answers are important and can help ASU continue to innovate in the area of study abroad. If you have any questions about the study or your participation, please do not hesitate to reach out to me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

In-Person Immersion Student Third Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

There are only a few more days left before you embark upon your study abroad journey! I know your time is valuable during this period, so I want to keep this short. By responding to this survey with your motivations, expectations, and beliefs, you can help us design innovative study abroad programming for the future. You've already come this far; will you help future Sun Devils fulfill their study abroad dreams too?

In return for participating in both the pre-program survey and post-program survey, you will be entered into a drawing for a $25 Amazon.com gift card. Just complete the pre-program survey before your departure and your post-program survey by XXXX. And, remember, you can ask for your personalized report at the end.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

Let me know if you have any questions or concerns at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Post-Program Recruitment Email Text

Online and In-Person Students First Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

Welcome back! I hope that you had a successful study abroad experience. Before you left, you were helpful enough to complete the pre-program survey for my research study. Would you please complete the follow-up post-program survey? The comparison between pre-program and post-program survey is important to identify what you learned and how you've changed.

In return for completing both surveys, you will be entered into a drawing for a $25 Amazon.com gift card. Just complete the post-program survey by XXXX. And, remember, you can ask for your personalized report at the end.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

In a short while, I will also send you an invitation to participate in a voluntary group debrief session. We will gather online to talk about your experiences and go through the results of the survey.

Let me know if you have any questions or concerns at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Online and In-Person Students Second Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

I recently sent you an email asking you to complete the post-program survey for my research study. If you recall, before you left for your study abroad program, you were helpful enough to complete the pre-program survey for my research study. I've heard from many of your peers and wanted to make sure you had a chance to complete the follow-up post-program survey. The comparison between pre-program and post-program survey is important to see what you've learned and how you've changed.

In return for participating in both surveys, you will be entered into a drawing for a $25 Amazon.com gift card. Just complete the post-program survey by XXXX. And, remember, you can ask for your personalized report at the end.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

In a short while, I will also send you an invitation to participate in a voluntary group debrief session. We will gather online to talk about your experiences and go through the results of the survey.

Let me know if you have any questions or concerns at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Online and In-Person Immersion Students Third Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

Time is running out to complete your post-program survey about your study abroad expectations and experiences. If you recall, before you left for your study abroad program, you were helpful enough to complete the pre-program survey for my research study.

By responding to this post-program survey with your expectations and beliefs, you can help us design innovative study abroad programming for the future. The comparison between pre-program and post-program survey is important to see what you've learned. And, remember, you can ask for your personalized report at the end. You've already come this far; will you help future Sun Devils fulfill their study abroad dreams too?

In return for participating in both surveys, you will be entered into a drawing for a $25 Amazon.com gift card. Just complete the post-program survey by XXXX.

STUDENT NAME, follow this link to be taken to the consent form and survey itself. Your participation is voluntary, and you must be 18 years old to participate.

In a short while, I will also send you an invitation to participate in a voluntary group debrief session. We will gather online to talk about your experiences and go through the results of the survey. Let me know if you have any questions or concerns at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at XXX-XXX-XXXX.

Appendix C: Survey for Research Question 2

Thank you for participating in this research study.

1. Read through and click to agree to the consent form below.
2. Answer the five questions below.
3. Click through to the BEVI website and take BEVI survey.

Informed Consent:

Please read and indicate consent below to progress to the survey.

The purpose of this study is to understand the motivations and expectations surrounding study abroad, and how the study abroad experience changes students' beliefs, attitudes, and values. The results of the study will be used to develop better study abroad programming. In participating in this study, you are providing valuable information that may impact programming and preparation of students studying abroad.

I am inviting your participation, which will involve participating in both a pre-program and post-program online survey regarding your motivations, expectations, and experiences. The survey should take you about 35 minutes to complete.

After the completion of the post-program study, you will be invited to participate in an optional online group debrief session. During this session, we will go over the group level results on the BEVI survey for those participating in the session. This session will also serve as a focus group, during which participants can share their experiences and what they learned during their study abroad program with their peers and the researcher. This session is expected to last 1 hour and will be recorded so responses can be analyzed.

In addition to the survey and focus group, the researcher will be requesting access to your ASU data for the purposes of the study including gender, age, ethnicity, residency status, marital status, number of dependents, Pell eligibility, First-Generation student status, ASU college, major, year in school, number of transfer credits, credits completed at ASU, transfer, ASU GPA, enrollment status and high school graduation year. The purpose of this to understand how online students who study abroad differ from in-person immersion students who study abroad. With this data, the researcher hopes to develop better, more effective study abroad programs for specific groups of students.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw from the research at any time without penalty. You also have the right to refuse to answer any question(s) for any reason, without penalty. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, there will be no penalty. If you do choose to complete the pre-program and post-program survey by the stated deadline, you will be entered in a drawing to win one of 10 $25 gift cards to Amazon.com.

All survey responses and ASU data will be kept confidential and anonymous by assigning responses and data an anonymous code and separating identifying details and consent from survey results. However, due to the nature of the focus group format, it will not be possible to allow participants in this online session to remain completely anonymous from either their peers or the researcher. It is for this reason that this activity is optional and is separate from the survey. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications. Results will only be shared in aggregate form. You will never be identified as an individual without your express written consent.

This study will contribute to the existing gap in knowledge regarding the growing number of online students who study abroad; identify student motivations and expectations with regards to study abroad participation and provide additional knowledge as to how study abroad changes students' beliefs, attitudes, and values. Ultimately, this study will provide data on which to base institutional improvements to the study abroad experience for ASU students. There are no foreseeable risks to your participation.

Your responses will be anonymous. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications but your name will not be used. Results will only be shared in aggregate form.

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please contact Jennifer Malerich, PhD candidate at xxxxx@asu.edu.

If you have any questions about your rights as a subject/participant in this research, or if you feel you have been placed at risk, you can contact the Chair of the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board, through the ASU Office of Research Integrity and Assurance, at (480) 965-6788. Please let me know if you wish to be part of the study.

By consenting below you are agreeing to be part of the study.

- I consent
- I do not consent

What attracted you to the specific study abroad program you chose? (Drag and drop statements in order of important, with 1 (one) being the highest ranking.)

Length of time abroad
Cost of study abroad experience
Content/subject Area
Taught by a specific instructor
Opportunity for in-person interaction with students and/or instructor onsite
Online instruction component of the program
Applicability to degree program

Please respond to each statement according to the Likert scale below:

Personal Growth	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Neither Agree nor Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Study abroad will help me become more adaptable and comfortable with ambiguity					
Study abroad will help me grow as a person					
Through study abroad I will gain exposure to different cultures					
Study abroad is an opportunity for me to escape my daily like and/or try something new					
Study abroad will help me develop a different world view					

Please respond to each statement according to the Likert scale below:

Academic Goals	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Neither Agree nor Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
Study abroad has a strong connection to my major of study either in the academic content or the destination					
Study abroad gives me exposure to academic content I have not getting otherwise through my classes					
Study abroad will allow me to advance toward meeting my degree requirements more quickly					
Study abroad will help me develop a closer connection to my faculty and ASU					

Please respond to each statement according to the Likert scale below:

Career Goals	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Neither Agree nor Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
A study abroad program will help me advance my professional goals more quickly					
Skills obtained through study abroad will allow me to be effective in my work					
Study abroad will give me a competitive edge in the job market					

Please respond to each statement according to the Likert scale below:

Family Expectations	**Strongly Agree**	**Agree**	**Neither Agree nor Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Strongly Disagree**
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my personal development					
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my academic growth					
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my professional development					
My family encourages me to go on a study abroad program					

Taking the Beliefs, Events, and Values Inventory
Follow the steps below to complete the BEVI:

1. Access the following secure URL – https://www.bevi-s.com/login.aspx
2. Enter the word ***participant*** under the username and the word ***bevi*** under password
3. Click through the instruction and consent pages after reading them
4. Choose "No, I want to submit a new BEVI" when asked, even though it may be your second time (end of the semester); you would only choose "Yes" here if you started to take the BEVI but were interrupted, and now wish to finish a previous attempt
5. Complete the Background Information
6. Choose **Arizona State University** as your institution from the dropdown box. For program, choose **Short Term Study Abroad** from the dropdown box
7. IMPORTANT: for your ID, please your full ASURITE email address (asurite@asu.edu) – this is the only way you can receive a narrative report of your individual results

Respond to ALL the questions on the BEVI quickly with your first instinct – don't overthink them! The survey takes most people 25-40 minutes to finish. Email Jennifer Malerich at xxxxx@asu.edu if you have any issues.

The BEVI is designed to assess the many different ways in which people see the world (i.e., different value and belief systems). After completing a series of background questions, you will be asked to respond to items covering a very wide range of issues and topics. You may have different reactions to different items. Some of these items will seem directly related to learning, but some may not; some items may seem straightforward whereas others may seem ambiguous. Because this survey is assessing many complex and interrelated factors, all these items, as well as the background questions, are relevant to who learns what and why, and under what circumstances – so please answer all questions! **Although different people may respond in different ways to these items, please know there are no "right" or "wrong" answers on the BEVI.** Since we often differ in our beliefs, values, and life experiences, it is both common and expected that one person may strongly agree with an item whereas a different person may strongly disagree with that same item.

If you find yourself wanting more info about the BEVI before you take it, you can watch a short video about it: https://www.youtube.com/watch?reload=9&v=Dlidr9TipIw&feature=youtu.be

Appendix D: Email Invitations for Interview Participation

First Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

Welcome back from your study abroad experience! My name is Jennifer Malerich, and I am a PhD student conducting a research study called "The Impact of Short-Term Study Abroad on Online Learners." I am contacting you today to ask if you would be interested in being interviewed about your study abroad experience for my research. The aim of my study is to understand what motivates an online student to study abroad and how that experience changes them. And I want to know about you and your experience! Your feedback will be used to pave the way for more online students to have a study abroad experience.

Would you be willing to chat with me? If so, please click the link below to indicate the times you would be available. A variety of interview times are available throughout the day to try and meet all schedule and time zone needs. And, if none of these meet your needs, just let me know! All students interviewed will receive a $5 Starbucks gift card in exchange for their time. Interviews should take about 45 minutes.

The interview will be conducted online and will be audio recorded so I can be fully present with you and not miss details by trying to take too many notes. However, you will never be identified as an individual without your express written consent.

If you have any questions or concerns before deciding to participate, please contact me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at (XXX) XXX-XXXX.

If you prefer not to receive any additional communications regarding this study, please email me, and I will remove you from the distribution list.

Second Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

My name is Jennifer Malerich, and I am a PhD student. I recently sent you an email asking if you would agree to be interviewed regarding your study abroad experience as an online student. I'd love to hear from you why you chose to study abroad and how ASU can better support online students in the study abroad process.

Would you be willing to chat with me? If so, please click the link below to indicate the times you would be available to chat with me. A variety of times are available throughout the day. All students interviewed will receive a $5 Starbucks gift card in exchange for their time. Interviews should take about 45 minutes.

The interview will be conducted online and will be audio recorded so I can be fully present with you and not miss details by trying to take too many notes. However, you will never be identified as an individual without your express written consent.

If you have any questions or concerns before deciding to participate, please contact me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at (XXX) XXX-XXXX.

If you prefer not to receive any additional communications regarding this study, please email me, and I will remove you from the distribution list.

Third Contact – Email Text

Dear STUDENT NAME,

Time is running out for us to get together and talk about your study abroad experience as an online student! I am a PhD student conducting a research study called "The Impact of Short-Term Study Abroad on Online Learners," and I want to know about you and your experience! The aim of my study is to understand what motivates an online student to study abroad and how that experience changes them. Your feedback will directly contribute to helping to make study abroad possible for more online students in the future.

Would you be interested in being interviewed about your study abroad experience for my research? If so, please click the link below to indicate the times you would be available to chat with me. If you don't see a time that works for you, just let me know so we can set something up! All students interviewed will receive a $5 Starbucks gift card in exchange for their time. Interviews should take about 45 minutes.

The interview will be conducted online and will be audio recorded so I can be fully present with you and not miss details by trying to take too many notes. However, you will never be identified as an individual without your express written consent.

If you have any questions or concerns before deciding to participate, please contact me at xxxxx@asu.edu or by phone at (XXX) XXX-XXXX.

If you prefer not to receive any additional communications regarding this study, please email me, and I will remove you from the distribution list.

Appendix E: Individual Interview Protocol

Part I: Instructions

Good morning (afternoon). My name is Jennifer Malerich. Thank you for participating in this interview. The purpose of this interview is to understand more fully your motivations and expectations for participating in study abroad, how that experience may or may not have changed you, and how ASU could more fully support online students studying abroad. There are no right or wrong, or desirable or undesirable, answers. I would like you to feel comfortable with saying what you really think and how you really feel.

Recording Instructions:

If it's okay with you, I'd like to record our conversation. The purpose of this recording is to ensure that I get all the details but at the same time am able to carry on a conversation with you in an attentive manner. All your comments will remain confidential. The results of this study may be used in reports, presentations, or publications. You will never be identified as an individual without your express and written consent.

Do you agree to be recorded for this purpose? Yes/No

(Record function will only be turned on at this point.)

Part II: Interview

Q1. Why did you want to study abroad?

Probe: Did you have any specific goals or reasons you wanted to study abroad? Did you have any hesitations? If, so what were you concerned about?

Q2. What attracted you to the study abroad program you choose?

Probe: Were certain aspects like timeframe, cost or content important to you? What was the most important thing about the program when choosing to study abroad?

Q3. Thinking back to when you were trying to decide whether to study abroad, tell me about some of the expectations you had about the study abroad experience?

Probe: What did you expect to learn? How did you think study abroad would affect you career readiness? How did you expect to develop as a person? What did your family think about your plans to study abroad?

Q4. How did the program meet, or not meet, your expectations?

Probe: Were there specific aspects that you were pleased with or disappointed by?

Q5. How do you think you might use what you learned from your study abroad experience?

Probe: Do you feel like you learned anything relevant to your job or your degree? Did the program meet your academic goals? How did the program meet your expectations with regard to your career plans?

Q6. How do you feel like you have changed, or not changed, because of the experience?

Probe: What did you learn about yourself from your experience?

Q7. How can ASU better support online students who want to study abroad?

Probe: What do you wish ASU had done better to meet your needs as an online student?

Q8. As an online student what, if any, other activities or programs do you feel could have given the same or similar global skills as study abroad?

Probe: Looking back on your study abroad experience, are there other activities you could have participated in as an online student that would have met your expectations?

Q9. How has your study abroad experience impacted, or not impacted, your desire to finish your academic degree?

Probe: Are you more motivated to continue taking classes at ASU? What about the study abroad experience motivates you continue to work on your academic degree?

Q10. How has the study abroad experience impacted, or not impacted, your relationship with Arizona State University?

Probe: Do you feel more like a Sun Devil now? If so, why?

Q11. Had you had the opportunity to come on campus in Arizona to participate in a residential experience, do you feel that this would have had the same impact on you as your study abroad experience has?

Probe: Why is an international experience like study abroad particularly important for online students?

Q12. Speaking to other online students, what would you tell them about study abroad?

Probe: Would you recommend study abroad to online students, and why?

Q13. Is there any other information regarding your experience you think it would be useful for me to know?

Part III: Debriefing

Thank you very much for your time this morning (afternoon). Your time is very valuable, and I appreciate you taking time out of your day to provide feedback. Again, the purpose of this study is to better understand online students' motivations and expectations for studying abroad and how the experience may change them. Additionally, I'd like to understand how ASU can better support online students who wish to study abroad. Your responses will be kept confidential, you will only be identified as an individual with your express and written consent.

Again, thank you for participating.
(Record function turned off at this point).

Appendix F: ASU College/School Translation to Generic Academic Unit

ASU College/School Name	Academic Unit
Edson College of Nursing and Health Innovation	Nursing and Health Sciences
Fulton Schools of Engineering	Engineering
Graduate College	Graduate College
Mary Lou Fulton Teachers College	Education
New College of Interdisciplinary Arts and Sciences	Arts and Sciences
Sandra Day O'Connor School of Law	Law
School of Sustainability	Sustainability
The College of Liberal Arts and Sciences	Arts and Sciences
The College of Health Solutions	Nursing and Health Sciences
The College of Integrative Sciences and Arts	Arts and Sciences
The Herberger Institute for Design and the Arts	Design and the Arts
The School for the Future of Innovation and Society	Arts and Sciences
The Walter Cronkite School of Journalism and Mass Communication	Journalism
Thunderbird School of Global Management	Business
W.P. Carey School of Business	Business
Watts College of Public Service and Community Solutions	Public Service

Appendix G: Detailed Quantitative Analysis of Survey Results for RQ2

Personal Growth Survey Results for RQ2

Table G1

Personal Growth Survey Item 1 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Personal Growth								
Study abroad will help/helped me grow as a person								
	Pre-Program Survey *				Post-Program Survey *			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	88.10%	77.10%	79.30%	11.00%	88.40%	70.20%	73.40%	-18.20%
Agree	11.90%	21.00%	19.10%	-9.10%	11.60%	25.70%	23.20%	14.10%
Neither agree nor disagree	0.00%	1.10%	0.90%	-1.10%	0.00%	2.90%	2.30%	2.90%
Disagree	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.60%	0.50%	0.60%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	0.80%	0.60%	-0.80%	0.00%	0.60%	0.50%	0.60%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G2

Personal Growth Survey Item 1 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Personal Growth						
Study abroad will help me grow as a person						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	87.5%	90.6%	3.1%	73.3%	67.5%	-5.8%
Agree	12.5%	9.4%	-3.1%	23.3%	25.8%	2.5%
Neither agree nor disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	5.0%	2.5%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses. Ɨ Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post- program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G3

Personal Growth Survey Item 2 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Personal Growth								
Study abroad will help/helped me develop a different worldview								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	82.10%	73.70%	75.40%	8.40%	76.80%	66.70%	68.50%	10.10%
Agree	16.40%	23.30%	21.90%	-6.90%	20.30%	27.60%	26.30%	-7.30%
Neither agree nor disagree	1.50%	2.30%	2.10%	-0.80%	2.90%	4.80%	4.40%	-1.90%
Disagree	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.30%	0.30%	-0.30%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	0.80%	0.60%	-0.80%	0.00%	0.60%	0.50%	-0.60%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G4

Personal Growth Survey Item 2 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Personal Growth						
Study abroad will help me develop a different worldview						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	87.5%	78.1%	-9.4%	63.3%	62.5%	-0.8%
Agree	12.5%	18.8%	6.3%	28.3%	30.0%	1.7%
Neither agree nor disagree	0.0%	3.1%	3.1%	2.5%	5.8%	3.3%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses. Ɨ Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post- program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G5

Personal Growth Survey Item 3 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Personal Growth								
Study abroad will help/helped me become more adaptable and comfortable with ambiguity								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey *			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	68.70%	65.60%	63.30%	3.10%	73.90%	61.30%	63.50%	12.60%
Agree	22.40%	28.20%	27.10%	-5.80%	20.30%	29.80%	28.10%	-9.50%
Neither agree nor disagree	9.00%	5.30%	6.10%	3.70%	5.80%	6.70%	6.50%	-0.90%
Disagree	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	1.30%	1.00%	-1.30%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	0.80%	0.60%	-0.80%	0.00%	1.00%	0.80%	-1.00%
Total (*n*)	67	261	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G6

Personal Growth Survey Item 3 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Personal Growth						
Study abroad will help me become more adaptable and comfortable with ambiguity						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	71.9%	75.0%	3.1%	60.8%	57.5%	-3.3%
Agree	25.0%	18.8%	-6.2%	31.7%	33.3%	1.6%
Neither agree nor disagree	3.1%	6.3%	3.2%	6.7%	5.8%	-0.9%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	2.5%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses. Ɨ Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post- program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G7

Personal Growth Survey Item 4 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Personal Growth								
Through study abroad I will gain/gained exposure to different cultures								
	Pre-Program Survey*				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	94.00%	82.40%	84.80%	11.60%	85.50%	78.40%	79.70%	7.10%
Agree	4.50%	16.00%	13.70%	-11.50%	13.00%	18.70%	17.70%	-5.70%
Neither agree nor disagree	1.50%	0.80%	0.90%	0.70%	1.40%	1.60%	1.60%	-0.20%
Disagree	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.00%	0.60%	0.50%	-0.60%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	0.80%	0.60%	-0.80%	0.00%	0.60%	0.50%	-0.60%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G8

Personal Growth Survey Item 4 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Personal Growth						
Through study abroad I will gain exposure to different cultures						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	96.9%	87.5%	-9.4%	78.3%	72.5%	-5.8%
Agree	3.1%	12.5%	9.4%	20.0%	24.2%	4.2%
Neither agree nor disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	2.5%	1.7%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ł Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G9

Personal Growth Survey Item 5 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Personal Growth								
Study abroad is an opportunity for me to escape my daily life and/or try something new								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	74.60%	72.10%	72.60%	2.50%	82.60%	75.90%	77.10%	6.70%
Agree	19.40%	23.30%	22.50%	-3.90%	11.60%	21.30%	19.50%	-9.70%
Neither agree nor disagree	4.50%	3.10%	3.30%	1.40%	5.80%	1.90%	2.60%	3.90%
Disagree	1.50%	0.80%	0.90%	0.70%	0.00%	0.30%	0.30%	-0.30%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	0.80%	0.60%	-0.80%	0.00%	0.60%	0.50%	-0.60%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G10

Personal Growth Survey Item 5 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Personal Growth						
Study abroad is an opportunity for me to escape my daily life and/or try something new						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	71.9%	84.4%	12.5%	71.7%	70.0%	-1.7%
Agree	18.8%	9.4%	-9.4%	25.0%	27.5%	2.5%
Neither agree nor disagree	6.3%	6.3%	0.0%	2.5%	1.7%	-0.8%
Disagree	3.1%	0.0%	-3.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.8%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ⱨ Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Career Goals Survey Results for RQ2

Table G11

Career Goals Survey Item 1 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Career Goals								
Study abroad will give me a competitive edge in the job market								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	50.70%	46.20%	47.10%	4.50%	53.60%	38.70%	41.40%	14.90%
Agree	31.30%	31.70%	31.60%	-0.40%	24.60%	38.10%	35.70%	-13.50%
Neither agree nor disagree	13.40%	18.70%	17.60%	-5.30%	21.70%	17.50%	18.20%	4.20%
Disagree	4.50%	3.10%	3.30%	1.40%	0.00%	4.80%	3.90%	-4.80%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	0.40%	0.30%	-0.40%	0.00%	1.00%	0.80%	-1.00%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G12

Career Goals Survey Item 1 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Career Goals						
Study abroad will give me a competitive edge in the job market						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	62.5%	56.3%	-6.2%	45.0%	45.0%	0.0%
Agree	28.1%	16.6%	-11.5%	35.0%	36.7%	1.7%
Neither agree nor disagree	9.4%	28.1%	18.7%	17.5%	15.0%	-2.5%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.5%	3.3%	0.8%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ɨ Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G13

Career Goals Survey Item 2 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Career Goals								
Skills obtained through study abroad will allow me to be effective in my work								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey *			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	65.70%	57.60%	59.30%	8.10%	59.40%	48.90%	50.80%	10.50%
Agree	17.90%	31.70%	28.90%	-13.80%	34.80%	35.60%	35.40%	-0.80%
Neither agree nor disagree	13.40%	9.90%	10.60%	3.50%	5.80%	11.10%	10.20%	-5.30%
Disagree	1.50%	0.80%	0.90%	0.70%	0.00%	3.80%	3.10%	-3.80%
Strongly disagree	1.50%	0.00%	0.30%	1.50%	0.00%	0.50%	0.50%	-0.50%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G14

Career Goals Survey Item 2 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Career Goals						
Skills obtained through study abroad will allow me to be effective in my work						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	71.9%	68.8%	-3.1%	53.3%	50.0%	-3.3%
Agree	18.8%	28.1%	9.3%	38.3%	35.0%	-3.3%
Neither agree nor disagree	9.4%	3.1%	-6.3%	8.3%	11.7%	3.4%
Disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.3%	3.3%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ł Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G15

Career Goals Survey Item 3 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Career Goals								
A study abroad program will help me advance my professional goals more quickly								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	56.70%	47.30%	49.20%	9.40%	53.60%	44.40%	46.10%	9.20%
Agree	20.90%	27.10%	25.80%	-6.20%	29.00%	29.80%	29.70%	-0.80%
Neither agree nor disagree	14.70%	21.80%	20.40%	-7.10%	17.40%	19.40%	19.00%	-2.00%
Disagree	6.00%	3.10%	3.60%	2.90%	0.00%	5.10%	4.20%	-5.10%
Strongly disagree	1.50%	0.80%	0.90%	0.70%	0.00%	1.30%	1.00%	-1.30%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G16

Career Goals Survey Item 3 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Career Goals						
A study abroad program will help me advance my professional goals more quickly						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	71.9%	50.0%	-21.9%	45.8%	52.5%	6.7%
Agree	12.5%	31.3%	18.8%	30.0%	29.2%	-0.8%
Neither agree nor disagree	12.5%	18.8%	6.3%	21.7%	13.3%	-8.4%
Disagree	3.1%	0.0%	-3.1%	1.7%	5.0%	3.3%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.8%	0.0%	-0.8%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ⱨ Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Family Expectations Survey Results for RQ2

Table G17

Family Expectations Survey Item 1 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Family Expectations								
My family encourages me to go on a study abroad program								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	55.20%	55.70%	55.60%	-0.50%	53.60%	56.50%	56.00%	-2.90%
Agree	25.40%	24.80%	24.90%	0.60%	21.70%	21.30%	21.40%	0.40%
Neither agree nor disagree	11.90%	11.50%	11.60%	0.40%	11.60%	14.00%	13.50%	-2.40%
Disagree	6.00%	4.20%	4.60%	1.80%	5.80%	5.70%	5.70%	0.10%
Strongly disagree	1.50%	3.80%	3.30%	-2.30%	7.20%	2.50%	3.40%	4.70%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G18

Family Expectations Survey Item 1 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Family Expectations						
My family encourages me to go on a study abroad program						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	53.1%	59.4%	6.3%	56.7%	57.5%	0.8%
Agree	31.3%	18.8%	-12.5%	26.7%	23.3%	-3.4%
Neither agree nor disagree	9.4%	15.6%	6.2%	10.0%	11.7%	1.7%
Disagree	6.3%	0.0%	-6.3%	3.3%	3.3%	0.0%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	6.3%	6.3%	3.3%	4.2%	0.9%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ł Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G19

Family Expectations Survey Item 2 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Family Expectations								
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my personal development								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	55.20%	53.80%	54.10%	1.40%	63.80%	62.20%	62.50%	1.60%
Agree	23.90%	29.40%	28.30%	-5.50%	10.10%	24.40%	21.90%	-14.30%
Neither agree nor disagree	20.90%	11.50%	13.40%	9.40%	15.90%	9.20%	10.40%	6.70%
Disagree	0.00%	3.40%	2.70%	-3.40%	5.80%	2.20%	2.90%	3.60%
Strongly disagree	0.00%	1.90%	1.50%	-1.90%	4.30%	1.90%	2.30%	2.40%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G20

Family Expectations Survey Item 2 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Family Expectations						
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my personal development						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	53.1%	68.8%	15.7%	59.2%	62.5%	3.3%
Agree	28.1%	9.4%	-18.7%	26.7%	22.5%	-4.2%
Neither agree nor disagree	18.8%	18.8%	0.0%	10.0%	10.0%	0.0%
Disagree	0.0%	3.1%	3.1%	2.5%	2.5%	0.0%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	2.5%	0.8%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ł Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G21

Family Expectations Survey Item 3 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Family Expectations								
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my academic growth								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	47.80%	48.50%	48.30%	-0.70%	56.50%	54.40%	54.40%	2.10%
Agree	23.90%	29.00%	28.00%	-5.10%	17.40%	26.70%	25.00%	-9.30%
Neither agree nor disagree	25.40%	15.30%	17.30%	10.10%	15.90%	15.20%	15.40%	0.70%
Disagree	0.00%	4.60%	3.60%	-4.60%	5.80%	2.90%	3.40%	2.90%
Strongly disagree	3.00%	2.70%	2.70%	0.30%	4.30%	1.30%	1.80%	3.00%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G22

Family Expectations Survey Item 3 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Family Expectations						
My family thinks a study abroad programs is valuable for my academic growth						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly agree	53.1%	62.5%	9.4%	52.5%	55.0%	2.5%
Agree	18.8%	18.8%	0.0%	27.5%	25.0%	-2.5%
Neither agree nor disagree	25.0%	15.6%	-9.4%	15.8%	15.8%	0.0%
Disagree	0.0%	3.1%	3.1%	2.5%	1.7%	-0.8%
Strongly disagree	3.1%	0.0%	-3.1%	1.7%	2.5%	0.8%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ł Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G23

Family Expectations Survey Item 4 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – All Groups

Family Expectations								
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my professional development								
	Pre-Program Survey				Post-Program Survey			
	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)	Online	In-Person Immersion	Total	Difference (Online vs. In-Person)
Strongly agree	47.80%	43.90%	44.70%	3.90%	52.20%	50.20%	50.50%	2.00%
Agree	25.40%	28.60%	28.00%	-3.20%	24.60%	26.00%	25.80%	-1.40%
Neither agree nor disagree	20.90%	18.70%	19.10%	2.20%	14.50%	19.40%	18.50%	-4.90%
Disagree	4.50%	6.10%	5.80%	-1.60%	4.30%	3.50%	3.60%	0.80%
Strongly disagree	1.50%	2.70%	2.40%	-1.20%	4.30%	0.90%	1.60%	3.40%
Total (*n*)	67	262	329		69	315	384	

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing online study abroad and in-person study abroad student groups. Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Table G24

Family Expectations Survey Item 4 Online and In-Person Immersion Responses – Group C

Family Expectations						
My family thinks a study abroad program is valuable for my professional development						
	Online Students *n* = 32			In-Person Immersion Students *n* = 120		
	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change	Pre-Program	Post-Program	% Change
Strongly Agree	46.9%	59.4%	12.5%	48.3%	50.8%	2.5%
Agree	28.1%	21.9%	-6.2%	29.2%	26.7%	-2.5%
Neither agree nor disagree	15.6%	15.6%	0.0%	16.7%	18.3%	1.6%
Disagree	9.4%	3.1%	-6.3%	4.2%	2.5%	-1.7%
Strongly disagree	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.7%	1.7%	0.0%

Note. *Indicates significant differences between values when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses.
Ł Indicates significant differences between responses at the construct level when comparing pre- and post-program survey responses Statistically significant differences were measured by Mann-Whitney *U* test.

Appendix H: Research Question 3 Student Academic and Demographic Characteristics

	Online Students			In-Person Immersion Students		
	Group A Pre-Program Only *n* = 31	Group B Post-Program Only *n* = 15	Group C Pre- & Post-Program *n* = 13	Group A Pre-Program Only *n* = 97	Group B Post-Program Only *n* = 71	Group C Pre- & Post-Program *n* = 46
Gender						
Female	64.5%	93.3%	92.3%	67.1% *	63.4% Ł	84.8%
Male	35.5%	6.7%	7.7%	30.9%	36.6%	15.2%
Unknown	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Age						
Mean	29	28	32	21	21 Ł	23
Median	27	26	30	20	20	20
Mode	22	25	24	20	20	20
Standard Deviation	6	5	11	5	2	7
Variance	37	29	120	29	6	50
Range	23	21	33	39	13	33
Minimum	20	21	22	18	18	18
Maximum	43	42	55	57	31	51
Ethnicity						
American Indian/Alaska Native	0.0%	0.0%	15.4%	3.1%	1.4%	2.2%
Asian	12.9%	0.0%	0.0%	8.2%	9.9%	6.5%
Black/African American	3.2%	6.7%	0.0%	2.1%	2.8%	4.3%
Hispanic/Latino	12.9%	20.0%	7.7%	20.6%	31.0%	23.9%
International	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Native Hawaiian/Pacific Islander	3.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Two or More Races	16.1%	13.3%	7.7%	6.2%	5.6%	2.2%
Unspecified	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.4%	0.0%
White	51.6%	60.0%	69.2%	58.8%	47.9%	60.9%
Federal Pell Grant Recipient						
Yes	32.3%	53.3%	61.5%	27.8%	47.9%	39.1%
No	67.7%	46.7%	38.5%	72.2%	52.1%	60.9%
First-Generation Student Status						
First Generation	29.0%	26.7%	46.2%	20.6%	33.8%	17.4%
Not First Generation	54.8%	53.3%	46.2%	60.8%	56.3%	71.7%
Unknown	16.1%	20.0%	7.7%	18.6%	9.9%	10.9%
Arizona Resident Status						
Resident	9.7%	26.7%	23.1%	76.3%	76.1%	67.4%
Nonresident	90.3%	73.3%	76.9%	23.7%	23.9%	32.6%
Academic Career						
Undergraduate Student	83.9%	80.0%	84.6%	96.9%	98.6%	95.7%
Graduate Student	16.1%	20.0%	15.4%	3.1%	1.4%	4.3%
Class Standing						
Freshmen	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	3.1%	0.0%	0.0%
Sophomore	12.9%	6.7%	0.0%	13.4%	12.7%	10.9%
Junior	25.8%	46.7%	30.8%	29.9%	33.8%	34.8%
Senior	41.9%	26.7%	53.8%	50.5%	52.1%	47.8%
Post-Baccalaureate Undergrad	3.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.2%
Nondegree Undergraduate	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Graduate	16.1%	20.0%	15.4%	3.1%	1.4%	4.3%

	Online Students			In-Person Immersion Students		
	Group A Pre-Program Only *n* = 31	Group B Post-Program Only *n* = 15	Group C Pre- & Post-Program *n* = 13	Group A Pre-Program Only *n* = 97	Group B Post-Program Only *n* = 71	Group C Pre- & Post-Program *n* = 46
First Term Enrollment Status						
First-Year	19.4%	6.7%	7.7%	83.5% *	84.5% Ł	60.9%
Transfer	64.5%	73.3%	76.9%	13.4%	14.1%	32.6%
Unknown	16.1%	20.0%	15.4%	3.1%	1.4%	6.5%
College/School						
Arts and Sciences	54.8%	60.0%	69.2%	42.3%	53.5%	41.3%
Business	9.7%	0.0%	0.0%	15.5%	5.6%	4.3%
Design and the Arts	6.5%	0.0%	0.0%	4.1%	5.6%	15.2%
Education	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	2.1%	7.0%	2.2%
Engineering	3.2%	0.0%	7.7%	16.5%	15.5%	13.0%
Graduate College	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Journalism	0.0%	0.0%	7.7%	3.1%	1.4%	2.2%
Law	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%
Nursing and Health Sciences	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	9.3%	8.5%	10.9%
Public Services	3.2%	26.7%	7.7%	4.1%	1.4%	8.7%
Sustainability	12.9%	13.3%	7.7%	3.1%	1.4%	2.2%
ASU Earned Credit Hours						
Valid	31	15	13	97	71	46
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	39.52	35.67	34.38	61.80 *	63.00 Ł	51.41
Median	41.00	38.00	30.00	63.00	63.00	47.50
Mode	9.00	.0[a]	12.00	32.00	31.00	60.00
Standard Deviation	25.09	22.39	19.02	30.95	28.59	25.42
Variance	629.72	501.24	361.76	958.20	817.63	646.29
Range	100.00	69.00	61.00	127.00	109.00	123.00
Minimum	8.00	0.00	12.00	12.00	6.00	0.00
Maximum	108.00	69.00	73.00	139.00	115.00	123.00
ASU Cumulative GPA						
Valid	31	14	13	97	71	45
Missing	0	1	0	0	0	1
Mean	3.34 *	3.36 Ł	3.77	3.62	3.48	3.60
Median	3.45	3.45	3.83	3.76	3.63	3.75
Mode	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Standard Deviation	0.53	0.64	0.25	0.43	0.53	0.40
Variance	0.28	0.40	0.06	0.18	0.29	0.16
Range	1.88	2.15	0.68	1.79	2.09	1.58
Minimum	2.12	1.85	3.32	2.21	1.91	2.42
Maximum	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Transfer Credits Earned						
Valid	31	15	13	97	71	46
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	35.93	34.35	49.03	15.82 *	15.36 Ł	26.34
Median	35.50	42.50	54.00	7.00	3.00	10.00
Mode	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Standard Deviation	31.97	25.29	36.35	22.19	22.12	34.32
Variance	1022.29	639.48	1321.23	492.39	489.26	1178.15
Range	148.00	64.00	98.30	99.00	66.00	153.30
Minimum	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Maximum	148.00	64.00	98.30	99.00	66.00	153.30

	Online Students			In-Person Immersion Students		
	Group A Pre-Program Only *n* = 31	Group B Post-Program Only *n* = 15	Group C Pre- & Post-Program *n* = 13	Group A Pre-Program Only *n* = 97	Group B Post-Program Only *n* = 71	Group C Pre- & Post-Program *n* = 46
Transfer GPA						
Valid	25	11	11	63	36	33
Missing	6	4	2	34	35	13
Mean	2.57	2.84	2.74	3.51	3.46	3.37
Median	2.54	2.75	2.84	3.67	3.53	3.68
Mode	2.54	2.00	2.03	4.00	4.00	4.00
Standard Deviation	0.65	0.66	0.58	0.56	0.52	0.70
Variance	0.43	0.43	0.34	0.31	0.27	0.49
Range	2.95	2.00	1.91	2.65	1.76	2.94
Minimum	0.75	2.00	2.03	1.35	2.24	1.06
Maximum	3.70	4.00	3.94	4.00	4.00	4.00
Years Since High School Graduation (as of 2019)						
Valid	26	12	11	93	67	41
Missing	5	3	2	4	4	5
Mean	10.35	9.00	13.91	3.52	2.90 Ł	4.98
Median	9.00	8.50	13.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mode	5.00	8.00	5.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Standard Deviation	5.89	2.92	8.90	5.20	2.30	7.25
Variance	34.72	8.55	79.29	27.08	5.31	52.62
Range	23.00	10.00	32.00	39.00	11.00	33.00
Minimum	3.00	3.00	5.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum	26.00	13.00	37.00	40.00	12.00	34.00
Starbucks College Achievement Plan Participant						
Yes	41.9%	46.7%	38.5%			
No	58.1%	53.3%	61.5%			

Note. *Indicates significant difference between values when comparing pre-program only (Group A) to pre- and post-program only (Group C) groups.
Ł Indicates significant difference between values when comparing post-program only (Group B) to pre- and post-program only (Group C) groups.
Blank values indicate the variable was not applicable or not collected for that cohort.

Appendix I: Research Question 3 Pre-Program BEVI Assessment Scales and Subgroups

	Online Students Aggregate Group *n* = 44	*MD*	In-Person Students Aggregate Group *n* = 143
BEVI Scale			
Negative Life Events *	71.20	12.06	59.15
Needs Closure *	40.43	11.33	29.10
Needs Fulfillment	67.27	1.24	66.03
Identity Diffusion	41.45	5.72	35.73
Basic Openness	51.25	8.11	59.36
Self-Certitude	42.14	6.40	35.74
Basic Determinism	37.86	3.84	34.03
Socioemotional Convergence	65.75	1.17	66.92
Physical Resonance	80.93	0.62	80.31
Emotional Attunement	60.43	3.44	63.87
Self-Awareness	77.84	2.21	80.05
Meaning Quest	57.14	4.07	53.07
Religious Traditionalism	39.07	8.11	30.96
Gender Traditionalism	20.00	1.85	21.85
Sociocultural Openness	82.91	1.36	81.55
Ecological Resonance	74.91	0.79	75.70
Global Resonance	72.14	6.13	66.01

	Online Students			In-Person Students		
	Gender			Gender		
BEVI Scale	**Male** ***n*** **= 12**	**Female** ***n*** **= 32**	***MD***	**Male** ***n*** **= 37**	**Female** ***n*** **= 106**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	68.67	72.16	3.49	54.92	60.62	5.70
Needs Closure	46.00	38.34	7.66	24.97	30.54	5.56
Basic Openness	41.92	54.75	12.83	58.59	59.62	1.03
Self-Certitude	43.17	41.75	1.42	30.70	37.50	6.80
Basic Determinism	46.42	34.66	11.76	41.54	31.41	10.13
Socioemotional Convergence	61.67	67.28	5.61	63.95	67.95	4.01
Religious Traditionalism	40.42	38.56	1.85	26.51	32.51	6.00
Ecological Resonance	77.33	74.00	3.33	75.14	75.90	0.76
Global Resonance	66.08	74.41	8.32	59.89	68.14	8.25

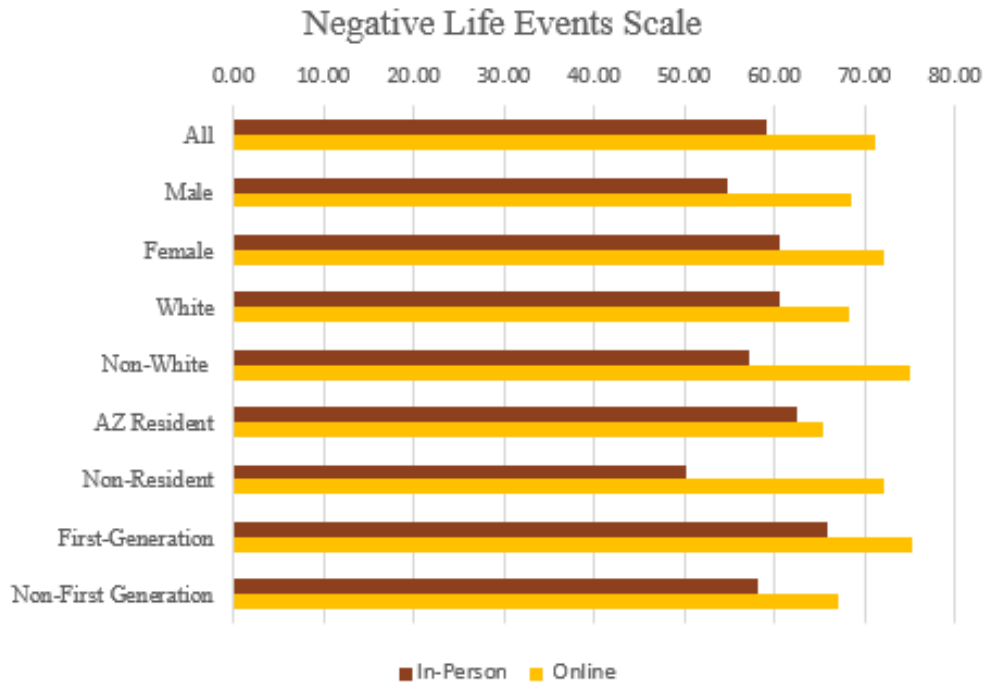
	Ethnicity			Ethnicity		
	White ***n*** **= 25**	**Non-White** ***n*** **= 19**	***MD***	**White** ***n*** **= 25**	**Non-White** ***n*** **= 58**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	68.24	75.11	6.87	60.52	57.14	3.38
Needs Closure	40.36	40.53	0.17	30.05	27.71	2.34
Basic Openness	53.24	48.63	4.61	62.92	54.14	8.78
Self-Certitude	39.68	45.37	5.69	34.61	37.40	2.78
Basic Determinism	40.00	35.05	4.95	34.79	32.91	1.87
Socioemotional Convergence	64.28	67.68	3.40	67.35	66.28	1.08
Religious Traditionalism	37.76	40.79	3.03	27.84	35.53	7.70
Ecological Resonance	72.28	78.37	6.09	75.40	76.14	0.74
Global Resonance	68.12	77.42	9.30	64.98	67.52	2.54

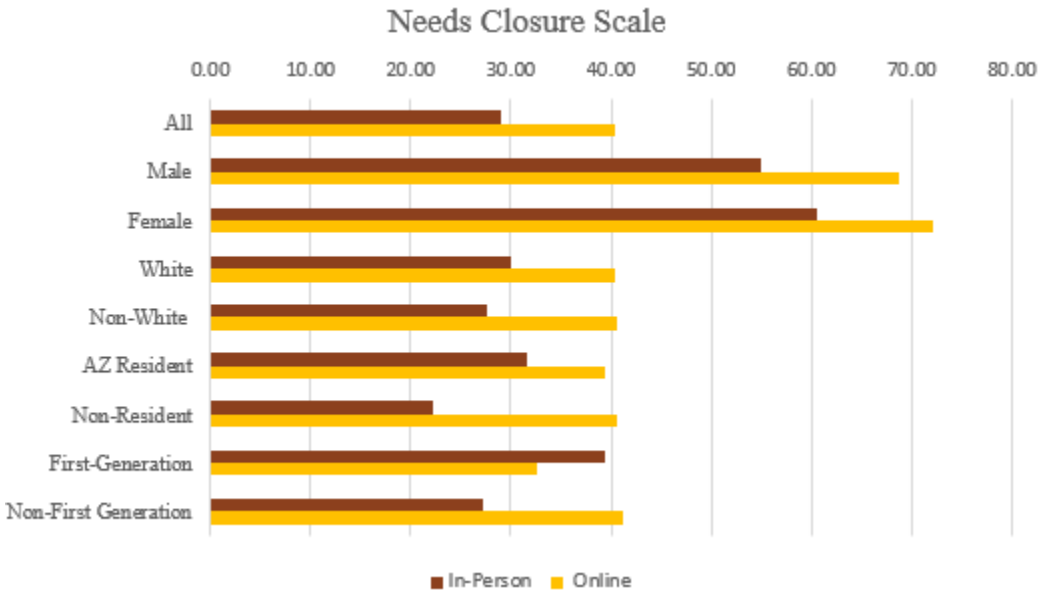
	Arizona Residency			Arizona Residency		
	Nonresident ***n*** **= 38**	**AZ Resident** ***n*** **= 6**	***MD***	**Nonresident** ***n*** **= 38**	**AZ Resident** ***n*** **= 105**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	72.13	65.33	6.80	50.13	62.41	12.28
Needs Closure	40.61	39.33	1.27	22.32	31.55	9.24
Basic Openness	51.47	49.83	1.64	53.89	61.33	7.44
Self-Certitude	45.08	23.50	21.58	35.45	35.85	0.40
Basic Determinism	40.13	23.50	16.63	30.61	35.27	4.66
Socioemotional Convergence	66.87	58.67	8.20	67.05	66.87	0.19
Religious Traditionalism	40.95	27.17	13.78	28.16	31.97	3.81
Ecological Resonance	77.76	56.83	20.93	77.63	75.00	2.63
Global Resonance	72.71	68.50	4.21	65.42	66.22	0.80

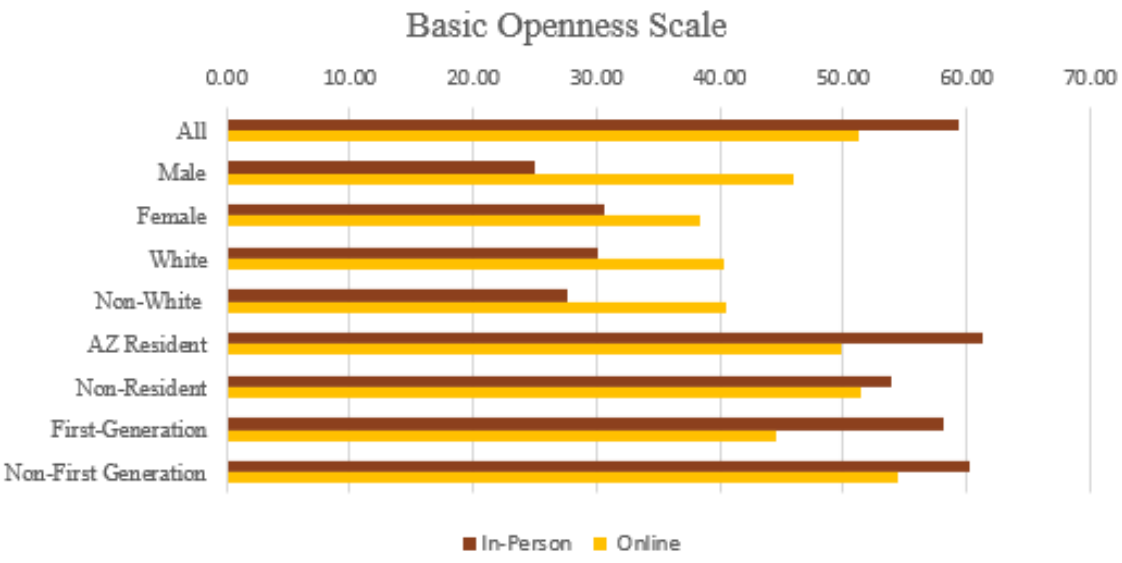
	First-Generation Student			First-Generation Student		
	Not First Generation ***n*** **= 23**	**First Generation** ***n*** **= 15**	***MD***	**Not First Generation** ***n*** **= 92**	**First Generation** ***n*** **= 28**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	67.00	75.40	8.40	58.25	66.00	7.75
Needs Closure	41.17	32.53	8.64	27.20	39.43	12.23
Basic Openness	54.35	44.60	9.75	60.22	58.11	2.11
Self-Certitude	44.70	32.60	12.10	35.08	38.39	3.32
Basic Determinism	39.09	30.93	8.15	33.11	41.43	8.32
Socioemotional Convergence	69.57	67.93	1.63	69.43	59.18	10.26
Religious Traditionalism	32.26	39.93	7.67	29.89	36.46	6.57
Ecological Resonance	79.04	73.67	5.38	77.41	69.43	7.98
Global Resonance	73.65	78.27	4.61	67.82	61.04	6.78

	Academic Level			Academic Level		
	Undergraduate ***n*** **= 37**	**Graduate** ***n*** **= 7**	***MD***	**Undergraduate** ***n*** **= 138**	**Graduate** ***n*** **= 5**	***MD***
Negative Life Events	73.16	60.86	12.31	59.62	46.20	13.42
Needs Closure	38.59	50.14	11.55	29.47	18.80	10.67
Basic Openness	50.62	54.57	3.95	59.97	42.40	17.57
Self-Certitude	44.95	27.29	17.66	35.80	34.00	1.80
Basic Determinism	36.08	47.29	11.20	34.68	16.00	18.68
Socioemotional Convergence	66.49	61.86	4.63	67.30	56.40	10.90
Religious Traditionalism	39.08	39.00	0.08	31.27	22.40	8.87
Ecological Resonance	73.73	81.14	7.41	75.08	92.80	17.72
Global Resonance	73.49	65.00	8.49	66.23	59.80	6.43

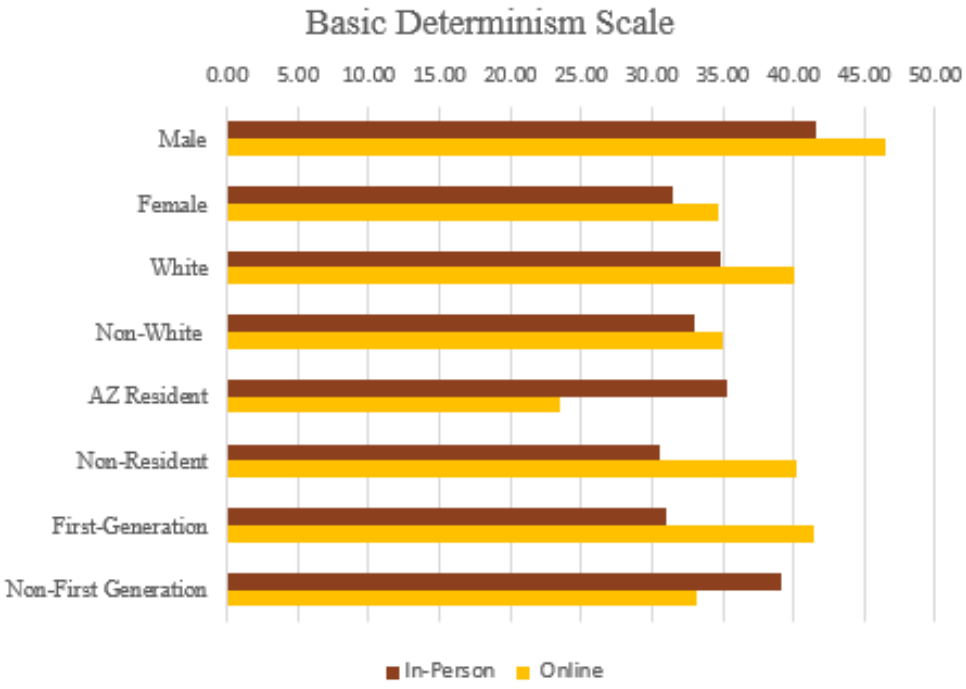
Appendix J: Research Question 3 BEVI Scale Graphs – Institutional Profile by Subgroups

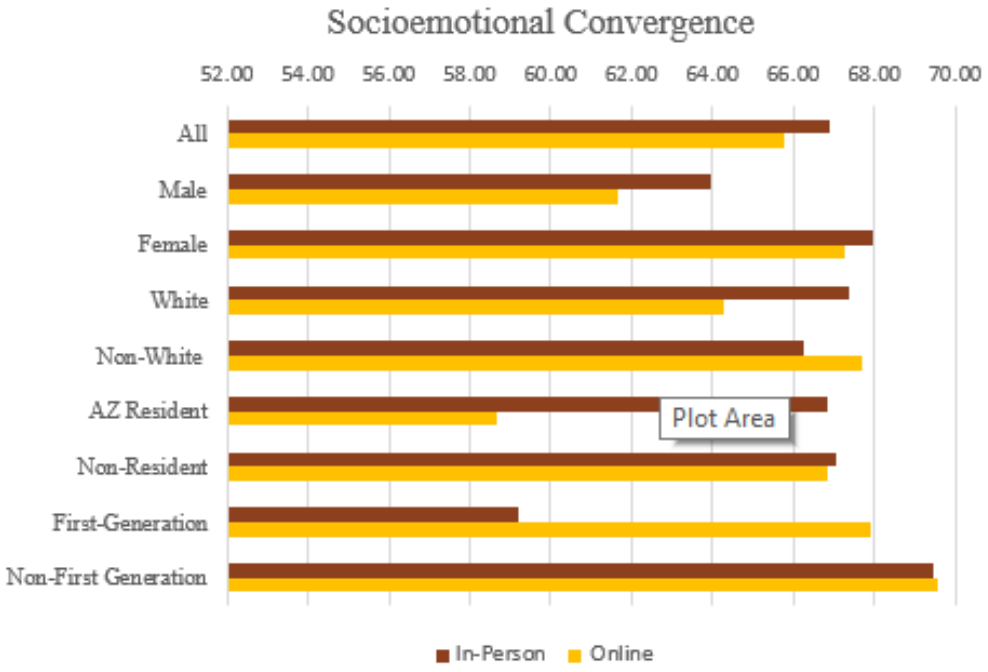


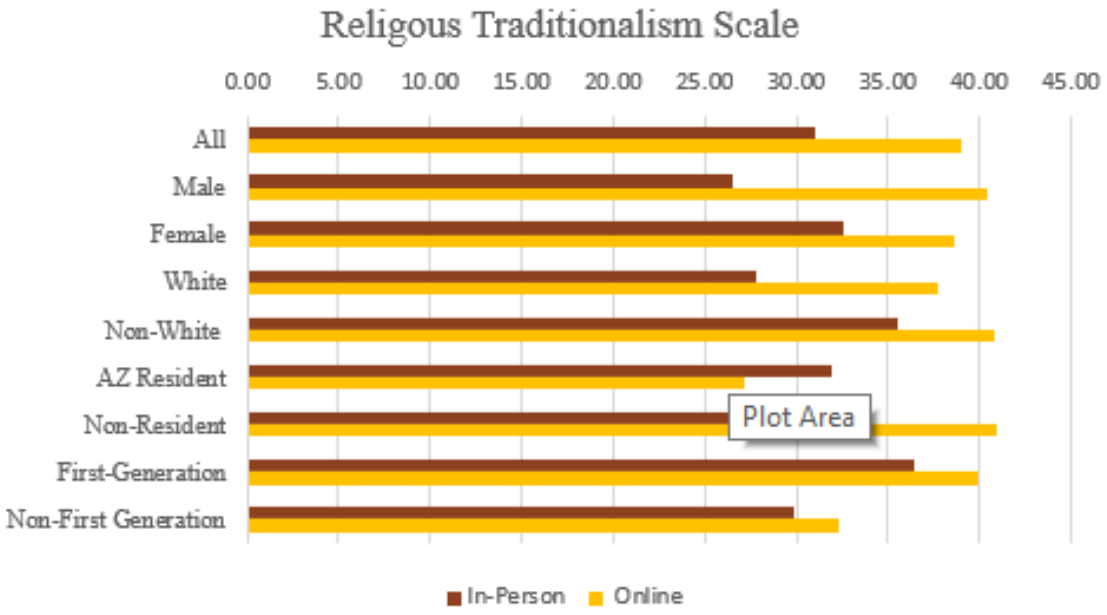



Basic Openness Scale
0.00
10.00
20.00
30.00
40.00
50.00
60.00
70.00
All
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
In-Person
Online

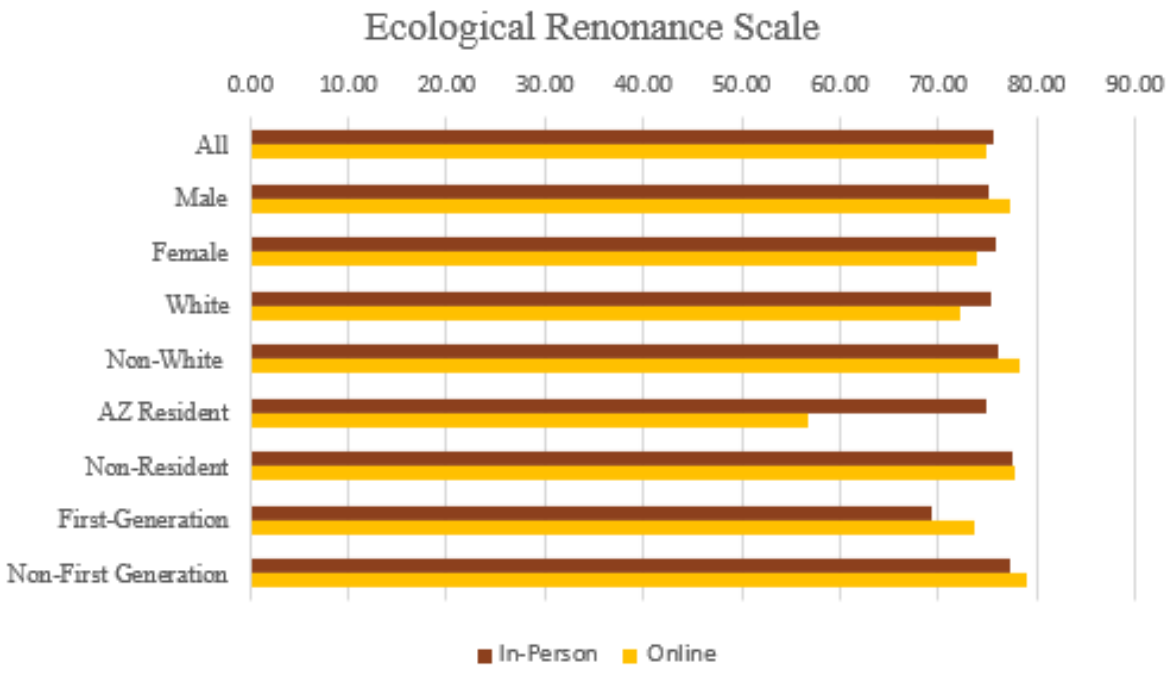

Self-Certitude Scale
0.00
5.00
10.00
15.00
20.00
25.00
30.00
35.00
40.00
45.00
50.00
All
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
In-Person
Online


Basic Determinism Scale
0.00 5.00 10.00 15.00 20.00 25.00 30.00 35.00 40.00 45.00 50.00
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
In-Person
Online


Socioemotional Convergence
52.00 54.00 56.00 58.00 60.00 62.00 64.00 66.00 68.00 70.00
All
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Plot Area
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
In-Person
Online


Religous Traditionalism Scale
0.00
5.00
10.00
15.00
20.00
25.00
30.00
35.00
40.00
45.00
All
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
Plot Area
In-Person
Online


Global Resonance Scale
0.00
10.00
20.00
30.00
40.00
50.00
60.00
70.00
80.00
90.00
All
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
In-Person
Online


Ecological Renonance Scale
0.00
10.00
20.00
30.00
40.00
50.00
60.00
70.00
80.00
90.00
All
Male
Female
White
Non-White
AZ Resident
Non-Resident
First-Generation
Non-First Generation
In-Person
Online