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**A CONTEXT, CATEGORIZATION AND
MEASUREMENT OF
INTERNATIONAL LEARNING OUTCOMES**

by

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Abstract

The movement of scholars to centres of learning – academic mobility – predates both the nation state and the university. As notions of statehood evolved, the state assumed responsibility for educating its citizenry, authority which has stood the test of time. Institutions evolved relying on external support in exchange for suasion over what was taught and to whom, evolving a dynamic symbiosis as all players realized positive outcomes from their engagement in education. In today's more complex context, each player continues to realize value in supporting education and in supporting international student mobility.

This dissertation places the activity of mobility in historical, political, educational and global contexts that illustrate the evolving role of the state in supporting higher education, and the state's continuing attempts to influence the course of education through the more modern activity of student mobility.

Trends such as globalization and massification are addressed, as is internationalization, to explain the rationale of the state for this continued engagement and the motivations of primary stakeholders – the state, the institution and the individual – to support study abroad. Positive outcomes are achieved by all players, hence their ongoing support. But what are these outcomes?

A continuum of potential international learning outcomes is established from which the primary stakeholders choose hoped-for outcomes to motivate their engagement; these include economic and linguistic imperatives as well as intellectual, social and personal/attitudinal outcomes.

The literature review leads to a methodology and research instrument used on a population of sojourners to test for the achievement of these outcomes and if achievement is significantly and causally related to the study abroad activity itself, or perhaps to some other variable.

Data are conclusive and corroborate previous studies in showing positive intellectual and personal outcomes. Recommendations are made on the current research and for other research topics germane to the field of outcomes study.

Of import is an exploration of the data's applicability for practitioners in pursuing outcomes-motivated programming, and the adaptation of new mobility models to replace much of the laissez-faire mobility programming common today, towards achieving sought-after outcomes and the internationalization objectives of institutions.

Keywords

International Learning Outcomes, Study Abroad, Internationalization, Student Mobility, Globalization.

Dedication

This dissertation and the work invested in it are dedicated to three very important women in my life:

To my late grandmother, Erna Martin, who encouraged me throughout and who was proud to know that she might see me be the first in the long line of family to achieve this honour; I know she's watching.

To my mother, Lydia Martin, who besides feeding, clothing and guiding me for more years than she may care to remember, supported me and would have been as proud of her youngest if this were never written.

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List of Abbreviations

ACCC	Association of Community Colleges in Canada
APEC	Asia Pacific Economic Community
AUCC	Association of Universities and Colleges in Canada
BCCIE	British Columbia Centre for International Education
CATS	Credit Accumulation and Transfer System
CBIE	Canadian Bureau of International Education
CHEC	Canada Higher Education Committee
CIDA	Canadian International Development Agency
CMEC	Council of Ministers of Education in Canada
CSFP	Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan
DAAD	German Academic Exchange Service: <i>Deutscher Akademischer Austauschdienst</i>
DFAIT	Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade
EAIE	European Association of International Education
EC	European Community
ECTS	European Credit Transfer System
ECU	European Currency Unit
EFTA	European Free Trade Area
ERASMUS	EC Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students
EU	European Union
GOC	Government of Canada
HRDC	Human Resources Development Canada
IEAC	International Educators Association of Canada
ICCS	International Council for Canadian Studies
IDRC	International Development Research Council
IMHEP	International Mobility in Higher Education Program
MERCOSUR	Southern Cone Common Market
MRC	Medical Research Council
NAFSA	Association of International Educators
NAFTA	North American Free Trade Agreement
NSERC	Natural Science and Engineering Research Council
OAS	Organization of American States
OLMP	Official-Language Monitor Programmes
PBEFHQ	<i>Bourses d'été pour francophones hors Québec</i>
RAMP	Regional Academic Mobility Program
SLBP	Summer Language Bursary Programmes
SSHRC	Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council
STEP	Science and Technology with European Partners
UCTS	University Credit Transfer System
UMAP	University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

Chapter 1: Introduction

Those who like to feel they are always right and who attach a high importance to their own opinions should stay at home.

Aldous Huxley, *Jesting Pilate*

There are problems in international education. The field is growing dynamically and the number of students pursuing extended or brief periods of study in different countries is increasing annually and by large numbers. While most of these mobile students are ‘free-movers’, or students pursuing degrees on their own and in their choice of institution, destination and discipline, it remains that many other of these students are mobile under formal exchange or study abroad programs organized by their home universities and institutions or countries. The foundations and architecture of this mobility have not grown as dynamically its size, which has allowed us glimpses of these problems in international education.

The first problem is one of context. It arises in that many of the practitioners who design, manage and lead these programs have no appreciable prism through which to view the activity of international education, no context in which to engage; that is, there is little or no widespread appreciation of the role of education in society, let alone of the place of an international educational experience on university age students. The weight of educational history and philosophy that got the students into school, the forces of globalization and internationalization that got them to the airport, are lost in the logistical need to get them buckled into their seats and counted. There is little appreciation even within the field and amongst practitioners for the context in which international education

practitioners operate. In this dissertation we will identify the key stakeholders in the activity of international mobility and will attempt to create a context, or at the least initiate discussion towards the creation of a context, that can be shared by practitioners.

A second problem arises in the articulation of goals and the concomitant design of programs to achieve these goals. Most post-secondary institutions engage in a numbers game of sorts; we want to send more students abroad and recruit more students to study with us, and larger numbers are a very public benchmark of success; but why do we want to do this? If we ignore for the moment the financial imperative of student recruitment, common sense and most practitioners will suggest that there are positives to be gained through a period of study abroad. Many will be able to articulate some likely outcomes of the international experience, such as increased second language ability, student levels of self confidence or feelings of independence. But few would be able to articulate an exhaustive listing of these potential outcomes, and few exhaustive listings would be identical. The importance of a common and exhaustive list of these outcomes – which we shall refer to hereonin as international learning outcomes – is fundamental in the design of international programming. It is no longer sufficient to merely send students abroad; we would not know how to assess success in a program if we do not know what we are hoping participants gain. It is easy to count heads, but we need to design programs that will enable participants to achieve specific outcomes, and a first step in that process is the creation of a common and exhaustive set of potential learning outcomes, one that is not yet part of the vernacular of the profession. We attempt such to create such a set in this dissertation, again in the hope of encouraging discussion and a common parlance amongst practitioners.

The third and final problem that we will address in this dissertation is the measurement of these desired learning outcomes. In the same way that we need to articulate our goals and desired outcomes before we can assess program success, we also need to be able to measure the actual and real acquisition of these outcomes in individuals in order to know if the program is a success, and if so, for whom? And if not, why not? While increasing academic and research attention is being paid to the measurement of these outcomes, explication and reporting are only recently finding forums through which to publish; there is little methodological commonality in the research; and, as in any field, the quality of some research leaves much to be desired. It is critical, however, is to increase the breadth and diversity of this research attention, and to disseminate more widely the findings. Every practitioner in the field of international education – and they must number in the tens of thousands across the globe – has a research study walking into and out of their offices on a daily basis, and there are countless pre- and post-test studies, interviews and case studies, longitudinal studies, and other relevant qualitative and quantitative research studies that can and should be pursued as the field matures and needs to rely on a growing corpus of knowledge. In this dissertation we have addressed the problem of measurement with a discussion, rationalization and adoption of a specific methodology, we have contributed to the growing body of studies through primary research on a diverse body of study abroad participants – one that corroborates some previous existing studies but further and uniquely delves into the issue of causation and motivation in more detail than has yet been done – and ultimately suggests avenues for new and follow-up research that might encourage others.

Tour Guide

It is becoming common in certain disciplines such as in cultural studies to allow a little or unknown author or researcher to introduce himself early in a work. This helps to alert readers to the context and tradition from which the work arises, and further to establish the credentials of the ‘tour guide’ in leading the readers along the avenues and pathways that must necessarily follow. Your researcher has been active in international education for some twenty-five years, beginning as a teacher of English as Second Language both at home in Canada and abroad in the early 1980’s, and then teaching literature, communications, writing and linguistics at the college level in Vancouver for several years. Thereafter ensued overseas engagement for several more years on a CIDA-funded development project in both the hinterlands and capital of Indonesia, with involvement focusing on teacher training and curriculum development in support of a large-scale fellowship mobility program. By 1990 Simon Fraser University had recognized the dearth of its international programming and responded with a new position ultimately offered to me whilst still in the field; I returned to Vancouver to engage in the creation of international student support and international mobility programming, and have remained in various iterations of this position at the University since; the University started with a one-person operation in 1991 and has since grown to an office of over twenty staff and an impressive array of mobility, recruitment and retention programming. My involvement since the beginning has been in the creation and administration of the office and a wide array of activities therein: the University’s mobility programs, for staff, students and faculty, including its award-winning field school programs; negotiation and administration of the University’s domestic and

international linkages; authoring and management of successful proposals for Trilateral North America and EU-Canada mobility schemes; initiation and management of the University's international recruitment activity and the language and advising support integral to that activity. Outside of the University I currently chair provincial (BC Centre for International Education: BCCIE) and federal (Canada Special Interest Group, NAFSA) international education organizations, am involved in active leadership (Canada Higher Education Committee: CHEC) or membership (International Educators Association of Canada: IEAC) in others, and am an active participant, presenter and instructor for conferences and training activities with the European Association of International Education (EAIE).

In terms of these activities outside the University, I have also engaged in a number of consultancies for external agencies such as BCCIE and HRDC, for example investigating and proposing other models of mobility, and exploring the feasibility of formal regional mobility programming in Asia and the Pacific. In this context I also was engaged as the primary researcher for a study assessing international learning outcomes through tracking *post facto* the winners of a British Columbia government-funded awards program to assist BC students in studying overseas. I was hired as the principal researcher by BCCIE to conduct this study, with assistance from a co-researcher Ms Shaheen Nanji, a colleague from International Programs in Continuing Studies at SFU. Together we drafted various iterations of the questionnaire that were then vetted and finally approved by BCCIE. Responses were returned to that organization in its capacity as the administrator of the awards program, they were tabulated and returned to me with original response questionnaires, and a summary report was provided to the organization.

The original intent of the activity was to issue a larger and more formal research report, but unfortunately, before this could be undertaken, base funding was withdrawn from BCCIE and no further support could be given to its research and publication agenda; these data were to languish unanalysed and unused. With the understanding and permission of the Board of BCCIE, the Office of Research Ethics at SFU and my own supervisory committee, it was agreed that, as principal researcher, I could mine this valuable data for the purposes of the current dissertation and the results are before you.

The growth in the field of student mobility, and the general tendency of the field to gauge success by head counts, or quantitatively rather than through a combination of quantitative and qualitative criteria, has shaped much of my current thinking; it greatly inspired the enthusiasm, research and discussion in this work. I believe the final work will have great relevance for practitioners in the field, in order to assist them to contextualize their activities and rethink programming, but will also be a valuable contribution to the growing corpus of research that will inform policy, procedure and program design in the field of international education.

Preliminary Discussion

The idea that an educated public leads to a prosperous and stable society, and that therefore education is a desirable goal for a people, dates back at least to Confucius some 2500 years ago. The ancient Greeks promulgated the idea and it is maintained today; “education is an essential part of strong, open societies. It is the cornerstone of an informed citizenry, the basis for democracy and stability, and an essential element for the full respect of human rights and human security” (Axworthy 3). Education is, conveniently, also “the key not just to harmony, good government and peace but to

economic progress” (“The Great Learning” 73). With the advent of globalization and the growing interconnectedness of world economies and economic blocs, the attraction of this idea has grown tremendously. It has become imperative for advanced governments to support the creation of a ‘globally-literate’ population, one that with ease can cross economic, geographic, cultural and linguistic boundaries. Governments of advanced economies stress the importance of education and international mobility for their respective populations and work forces. The more complex a society, the more there is to learn, and the more there is to learn across borders and cultures. The more advanced the economy, the more its government attempts to create a more educated and mobile population, and to make its population more conversant with the cultures, languages and potential trade opportunities of other equally advanced economies and economic blocs, in addition to supporting a more diverse and pluralistic demographic at home; the latter is necessitated by unidirectional global migrations and by immigration policies in the North as economically-successful Western nation states need to address their own aging populations at home, a phenomenon that is coupled with levels of domestic affluence that discourage large families, further eroding the tax base and diminishing the labour and consumer pool. The developed economies have the wherewithal to shape their populations and to guide them in what, how and where they learn. There are, however, often structural, constitutional or jurisdictional impediments to a state’s support of international academic mobility, and these must be addressed.

The world’s population is more mobile today than ever before in modern history. This mobility is inextricably linked to the accelerating forces of globalization, that phenomenon describing the interconnectedness of economies and the flow of

information, goods, capital and labour across borders. Globalization is a process rather than an outcome. It is not new in itself, but rather dates back hundreds of years at least to the spread of colonial empires under the great European powers and the trade and migration fashioned under them. But a number of factors are introducing a new age of ‘borderlessness’: these include record post Cold-War economic growth which has been encouraged by investment in formerly closed states, by an increase in the flow of services and goods – including oil – across fewer and more porous borders, all aided by relative world peace and a world-wide drive towards prosperity and consumerism, which itself is abetted by media globalization and saturation of markets by those market-friendly states, forces, corporations and entities deemed ideological winners in the Cold War. Other factors include the creation and power of trans- and supra-national trade blocs; the rise and influence of global media; the demise of physical or territorial threat for most nation states; the global flows of capital, production and distribution, information and populations; and the creation of powerful multinational empires. These phenomena are facilitated by a stunning growth in technology which have compressed “the time and space aspects of social relations.” Globalization “encompasses contradictory trends [. . .] such as cross-border flows of undocumented workers and modern communications with instantaneous speed, [. . .] and is partially beyond the control of effective state regulation.” (Mittelman 16)

Globalization is not new; what is new is the post-Cold War scale and speed of change, wrought by advancing technology and the increased, rapid and often unmanageable movement of information, capital, goods and people. The movement of people sees migrants and immigrants flocking to North America, Western Europe and to

the other more developed economies; millions of refugees are fleeing local conflicts to the safety of neighbouring countries and established democracies; skilled and unskilled workers are following capital and the promise of employment to economies that can support them; tourism has become one of the world's largest industries, a mainstay for many economies, and tens of millions of travellers are clogging airports and encouraging a boom in hotel construction, tourism training, rapid growth, the erosion of traditional cultures, and unbridled environmental change; with advances in transportation technology, business travel has increased across the globe.

Another component of this exodus is the mobility of students; unprecedented numbers are mobile across the globe. Exact statistics and numbers are difficult to compute, given that a large number of students travel abroad outside the scope of organized programmes and cross regional borders without the need for student visas. However, it is clear that “student mobility has been growing steadily ever since the end of the World War II, but more particularly so during the last two decades: from one million in 1985 to over 1.5 million in 1995.” (UNESCO unpaginated) Indications are that this figure was close to two million in 1999 and continues its incremental rise. This means that almost 2% of the world's 100 million post-secondary students are presently studying outside of their home country (“Free Degrees to Fly”, 67). A recent IDP Education Australia report ([Global Student Mobility 2025](#)) predicts “that by 2025 almost eight million students will be educated trans-nationally.”

Higher education is now more international – or rather, home to more mobility – than at any time since the Middle Ages, and certainly on a much larger scale today. The market place for ‘free-moving’ students – or those moving of their own volition, and

paying their own freight – has grown by up to 7% per year, and annual world tuition fee income alone from those students is now approximates \$30 billion (“Free Degrees to Fly”, 67). Former Canadian Minister for International Trade Sergio Marchi stated that “the North American education sector alone is a \$700 billion industry. In 1995, the World Bank approved nearly \$3 billion in education-related contracts. And in 1994, international students contributed \$2.3 billion, or the equivalent of 21,000 jobs, to our [Canadian] economy.” (CBIE, 1981: 16) These figures may be low; a more recent study commissioned by the British Columbia Centre for International Education (BCCIE) states that the “international education sector injects some \$2 billion of direct economic benefit in to the economy of British Columbia each year. This amount balloons to over \$6 billion when those direct dollars work their way through the economy.” (BCCIE 2) This is accomplished with only 8% of Canada’s population and a commensurate number of Canada’s foreign students.

These figures do not account for that huge number of students moving within and between trading blocs as a part of formal mobility schemes. For example, within the European Union, the ‘domestic’ mobility scheme coined Erasmus continues to experience strong growth (9.4% in academic year 2003/2004)¹. The program presently involves approximately 2200 post-secondary institutions in 31 countries and since its inception, in 1987, over 1.2 million students have participated in its study abroad programming, and last year alone more than 150,000 students participated. The goal is to have 300,000 Europeans annually moving within the (expanded) European Union by the year 2011.

¹ <http://www.aca-secretariat.be/04news/NLFebruary05.htm#Erasmus%20:%20student%20and%20teacher%20mobility%20rose%20by%20almost%2010%25%20in%202003/2004>

However, many of those students studying outside their home countries do so seeking expanded access to educational opportunities often unavailable at home, and are mobile on their own and outside the scope of a formal mobility scheme. Many seek access to the English-taught education they see as essential to thrive in the new economy. They seek – or are encouraged to seek – an international learning environment that will better accommodate them to the changes being fashioned by globalization and better position them well to deal with business partners from other countries, cultures and languages. They are the foot soldiers of globalization, part of the global exodus of migrants and workers, of refugees and tourists, of investors and business people, of students. “Just as globalization has let capital and labour search the world for the best deal, the same is happening with students [and] academics.” (Free Degrees to Fly, 67)

The concentrations of students and directions of student movement are telling. When students are mobile of their own volition, they will move one of three directions, in terms of the North and South polarity commonly used to classify the world and its countries: North to North; South to North; or South to South.

The vast majority of these students are moving from the South to the North. However, if students are participating in formal and state-sponsored mobility schemes, such as Erasmus or the European-United States consortia agreements, they move in one direction: North to North. Outside of a modest number of South-supporting fellowship schemes sponsored by aid agencies and donor banks, there is very little support for formal schemes to move North students South, or vice versa. The North is supporting mobility for its own agenda, and those from the South with the means are voting with their feet and looking North as well.

Figures support the indications of a growing concentration in terms of the destinations of those students. “In 1996, about 65% of the world total of foreign students were enrolled in five countries only, viz.: United States, France, Germany, the United Kingdom and the Russian Federation” (UNESCO unpaginated). Half of all foreign students enrolled in just the top three destination countries. Over 110,000 European students are studying in Britain, on top of over 38,000 students from China and countless others from East and Southeast Asia. In 2003 there were over 60,000 students from China in the United States. The highest number of students studying abroad in the nineties came from the developing countries of East Asia and Oceania, which accounted for 23% of the world’s total of international students, and in recent years the number of students from China and India able to afford to study abroad and, in the case of China with permission to travel, has increased dramatically. It is apparent that the overwhelming flow of students from the developing world is in the direction of English-speaking countries in the West, notably to the United States and the United Kingdom. If a country is unwilling to properly educate its own students, globalization has encouraged them to move elsewhere; if German universities are full and unresponsive, we should see a number of German students in the United Kingdom and Canada. If Hong Kong refuses to build enough capacity for its students, it should be no wonder that the brain drain is exacerbated and the best minds and those able to afford the exercise move on to study in America.

The majority of these mobile students study independently in programs that they have sought out on their own or have been recruited to; these are normally full degree or diploma students, and to a lesser extent, students participating in shorter-term study

abroad or intensive language training programs. Others are participating in formal exchanges or linkages that have been established by their home institutions, such as through bilateral student exchanges, or through formal consortium arrangements, such as those existing within the European Union (EU), within the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) countries, or between Canada or the U.S. and the members of the EU. These students participate on a shorter term, normally one or two semesters, and as a rule return home to complete their program requirements.

Student mobility from both developed and developing economies is made possible either through the use of students' own resources, or those of their families; or through development or aid grants, scholarships and fellowships. Many of those mobile on formal programs within and between the developed economies, most notably in Europe, are participating with federal support that subsidizes their mobility within the confines of existing formal consortia agreements. Some constituencies within these jurisdictions – nation states in Europe, provinces and states in Europe, Canada, Mexico and the United States – also make available government grants or scholarships in support of the study abroad activity. In order to assist in the internationalization process, some institutions offer incentive grants or bursaries to their students participating in formal institutional exchange relationships.

Additionally, growing numbers of students from the developed world are also mobile, moving within, to, from and between the Americas, Europe and Asia. Those moving within and between Europe and North America are often participating on bilateral exchanges (where fee payment at home is reciprocated and not a part of the entrepreneurial equation) or on formal large-scale consortia-based mobility programmes;

these first emerged in the European Union in the form of inter-European grants towards fostering academic linkages between member universities and their populations, both staff and student. As the EU evolved and grew to become a trading bloc approaching the size, clout and stature of the United States, those two economies entered into a pilot EU-US consortium exchange arrangement. Both Brussels and Washington would foot their sides of the bill in support of programming that would create a number of consortia; these consortia would need to involve institutions in at least three states (US) or nation states (EU) and the bulk of the money used to support these exchanges would need to be spent on the mobility of students, not staff or faculty; less well-funded programmes would take care of faculty mobility and none but a few bilateral relationships (funded through organizations such as the British Council in Britain and the German Academic Exchange Service [DAAD] in Germany) would address issues such as staff or researcher mobility. Both Brussels and Washington fronted funds towards three-year programmes that, in order for proposals to be successful and access the grants, would need to address issues of sustainability after funding was withdrawn. Preference would be given to consortia that addressed curriculum and exchange issues of technology transfer, trade and business. The EU-US program was formalized in 1995.

In 1990 Canada and the European Community (EC) Member States entered into the 'Transatlantic Declaration' that made specific reference to strengthening mutual cooperation in various files which directly affect the future and present well-being of their citizens, "such as exchanges and joint projects in education and culture, including academic and youth exchanges" (Report of the Joint Committee 2). Soon thereafter Canada and the EU entered into their own consortia exchange agreement along similar

lines as the EU-US program, an agreement was signed in 1995, implemented in 1996, and soon expanded to allow access to countries in Central and Eastern Europe as well, countries which, conveniently, have either just joined or were lining up for membership in the EU trading bloc.

Some few years after the three nations of North America inked the NAFTA trade agreement, 1995 also saw a similar mobility program introduced 'trilaterally' into North America, with each successful program requiring the participation of institutions in at least two Canadian provinces, two American states and two Mexican states; a similar preamble was given in the terms of reference that preference would be given to proposed consortia that addressed curriculum and exchange issues of technology transfer, trade and business, although all would be considered. New proposals have been solicited either annually or biennially since 1995 for both the EU and the North American consortia programs. Ottawa has also recently funded studies assessing the feasibility of new academic mobility consortia arrangements with South America (MERCOSUR) and the Asia Pacific (APEC). So it is apparent that the state, be it federation or nation state, maintains an ongoing interest in higher education, in mobility within higher education, and does so for strategic reasons.

Institutions have also embraced the global flow of students, whether through formal mobility programming or increasingly in the recruitment of full fee-paying students. Partly to offset the loss of decreasing state subsidies, and partly to help 'internationalize' their campuses, institutions of higher education have responded by embracing this exodus of students in an entrepreneurial fashion, by recruiting them and

then charging them full cost recovery tuition fees, which the students are able and willing to pay.

But there is a dynamic tension within the higher education institution that rebels against a purely mercenary approach to the international; there is a deep-seated longing for the nostalgic ideal of a global community of scholars, of the universality of education, one that does not sit well with bald entrepreneurialism of student recruitment, one that reels at the excesses of the market place and responds to received wisdom on the perils of globalization, child labour and sweat shops and the perception of the international student as a cash cow. There has to be more to the international than merely recruiting rich students from the South.

And so we have the academic response to globalization, coined ‘internationalization’. It is an attempt to make international the curriculum, to infuse an international component into all aspects of the campus and campus life, the student body, the faculty and staff, the classroom and the library, and often most importantly in mobility programming, in giving our own students the opportunities to engage in the world in the same way that the international full degree fee-paying students are engaging in our home institutions and cultures; in so doing, it is argued, we can better accommodate the needs of increasingly diverse student populations at home and better prepare our graduates – both domestic and international – for the new global economy and for living in an increasingly cosmopolitan society, where tolerance of diversity and the ability to work and live across cultures will be indispensable skills. It is a response; globalization has encouraged the exodus and internationalization is trying to make it

more palatable, trying to turn it around and make it more in keeping with the traditional goals higher education has set for itself.

As such it is important to note that globalization and internationalization are not synonymous, although they are often erroneously used as synonyms; they are related trends, but in many ways mutually exclusive. A clear understanding of their differences is essential, and a clear articulation of the goals and objectives of an internationalization strategy are needed. A very real obstacle is that the two trends are often confused in the minds of government supporters and institutional practitioners, and this affects the variety and types of international mobility programming supported and made available on a formal basis; a detailed discussion of these two forces will take place in Chapter Three.

But crucial to the exodus of students, and to the support of both the state and the institution, is the end game of the activity, the anticipation of the result. The state has long supported and controlled education and its institutions, and the institutions have evolved relying on this external support in exchange for suasion over what was taught and to whom. Each player in the equation then realized valuable outcomes in supporting or delivering education. Now, in a more modern context, both players in a more complex equation continue to realize value in supporting education as well as value in supporting international academic mobility. Student mobility is the most visible international activity and often the most easily understood international activity of the institution. It will be shown that both the state and the institution support formal mobility programming, and as such both must anticipate some positive result from their support.

For a full understanding of the issues and the forces at play, it is important to establish both a background and a context for this discussion, and to draft an architecture for the research.

Establishing an historical background is necessary in order to understand the forces that have traditionally both supported and guided education, in terms of both funding and content. The state and the church have jockeyed for control over the activity – and indeed continue to do so in a number of countries and even here in Canada and in other Western democracies through private and denominational institutions – and they have jockeyed over the activity in order to dictate what is taught, to whom and in what fashion; this much remains unchanged. Institutions have managed to forge varying levels of autonomy beneath the weight of these higher authorities but must often deal around the margins and in the details rather than in the larger questions of content, focus and activity.

Globalization has added a further economic imperative for the state to attempt suasion over education and to attempt to direct the composition of the next waves of its work force; a discussion of this phenomenon is also essential to an understanding of study abroad and the outcomes from this activity. A related trend is the massification of higher education, which also plays a huge role in the evolution of higher education, and of mobility, as post-war social change and demographics have democratized the activity of higher education, and by extension participation in the activity of an international education. Globalization has necessarily influenced the commodification and massification of higher education, and both have influenced the related academic response of internationalization. As such, all three trends will be explored in detail as a

means to explain the motivation of the state – and by extension the institution – for continued support for and involvement in higher education, and more recently in international mobility.

We must also explore the motivation of the individual to engage in the activity of study abroad. The assumption is that some gain, some positive outcome, is achieved by all players, or stakeholders, hence their ongoing support or engagement. These gains, this impact, is what we call the International Learning Outcomes that all stakeholders in the equation anticipate. There is no free lunch and neither the state nor the institution is supporting academic tourism; but what are these outcomes that they anticipate? The assumption is that some gain, some positive outcome, is achieved by all players, hence their ongoing support.

Potential outcomes are discussed at length and an exhaustive listing and categorization are here established, a set of potential study abroad outcomes; from this set the three primary stakeholders – the State, the Institution and the Individual – each consciously or not chooses a subset of hoped-for outcomes, overlapping sets as it were, to motivate or justify their involvement and support. There are economic and linguistic imperatives, as well as intellectual and personal; some are concrete and some less so. We present a matrix that details the broad categories of potential outcomes and prioritizes this list for each stakeholder; it becomes quite apparent that the state, the institution and the individual are anticipating differing outcomes from their support of study abroad, or put another way, are pursuing different ends through the same means.

Outcomes research is an emerging area in the field of international education, and is important as the field evolves from purely qualitative research and reporting towards a

more mature and hybrid mix of qualitative and quantitative, as a means to truly measuring outcomes in the field and using these data to construct better and more effective programming.

An exploration of the literature helps establish a discussion and allows us to explore various methodologies and embrace a single methodology; of great importance is a discussion of the subjectivity of data – especially in this instance of self-reported and attitudinal change of subjects – and we conclude that much if not all data are subjective and it is only through the accumulation of a corpus of relevant and related findings that we can truly assess gains and impact on personality and personal change. Embracing such an argument, we have devised a research instrument to test whether these outcomes are in reality being achieved; there is further discussion as to whether the achievement of these outcomes is significantly and causally related to the study abroad activity itself or perhaps have a causal relationship with some other variable.

As a primary tool to explore attitudinal change as a result of the study abroad period we have used a five-point Likert scale to assess achievement or growth of a certain number of international learning outcomes. The Likert scale has evolved into probably the most common instrument to test attitude and attitudinal change and performed well with the scope and population of the present research.

Data were formidable and conclusive and essentially corroborate the results of most previous qualitative and quantitative studies in showing the positive effects – both intellectual and personal – of a period of study abroad. Recommendations are made as to how to improve the current research as well as on other research topics germane to the field of outcomes study.

There were weaknesses in the research, although none profound enough to weaken the relevance of the results. Perhaps the most serious limitation in this research would also have been the most difficult to overcome, specifically to control the large number of variables that are potentially causative or motivating in nature. We can conclude from the current research and from other research studies that the study abroad population achieves certain outcomes which are not shared by the stay at home population. However, what has been little tested is the motivation for having these students participate in the first place. Again, this is a self-selecting population that by most measures may already possess qualities not shared by the general student population, and this possibility alone poses the question whether some of these outcomes might have been achieved regardless of participation. Future studies might devise some control group mechanism of an equally-motivated population that does want to study abroad. For the purposes of this research, however, there was no control group, and in fact the control group for much study abroad research remains the stay at home population, a fact which may be unfair to both populations and should be addressed in future studies.

A second limitation was that, problematically, the questionnaire also asked the respondents if they had anticipated such effect(s) before departure; in that sense a pre-test would have been desirable but was unfortunately not possible with this population and study. There was no pre-test, and it would have been desirable to assume a more longitudinal approach, to be able to ask the same students the same or similar questions on two occasions, before and after participation, and thus to potentially observe more minute changes in the self-assessments of their growth.

That said, the response rate was exceptional and the results achieved exceeded the researcher's expectations of positive perceptions of participant outcomes.

Of lasting import from the research is an exploration of the data's relevance and applicability, of how practitioners might use outcomes as the impetus for new program design. Outcomes-motivated programming and the use of a mobility model such as that presented here might go even further than much of the laissez-faire mobility programming common in the field in achieving sought-after outcomes for both mobile and non-mobile students, and for the furtherance of internationalization objectives of the institutions. This is not a novel concept, and some institutions and programs are already reverse-engineering their programs in order to achieve specific outcomes through specific courses, activities, recognition, programming, etc, and this needs to permeate program development and modification to the point that it becomes the norm rather than the exception.

Summary

Chapter One serves as an Introduction; it attempts to provide a brief background to the issues we are addressing in this research and dissertation, and will hopefully provide a road map of sorts for the balance of this work.

Chapters Two and Three are meant to establish the broader context for this dissertation, an architecture if you will; they begin with the provision of an historical context and go on to explore in detail both globalization and internationalization and their role in influencing the activity of study abroad. We will then explore the means through which the state supports higher education and international mobility, using a comparison

of two federations – Canada and the European Union – and highlighting the constitutional hurdles they must face to engage in the activity, and the economic rationale they use to justify their engagement. The chapters then articulate, through brief profiles of three post-secondary institutions in British Columbia – a university, a university college, and a community college – how governments and institutions both understand and respond to the challenges of globalization and internationalization, through their support for student mobility programming. Ultimately Chapters Two and Three prepare us for all that follows; they establish that for various historical and current reasons, there are vested interests in higher education and in the activity of study abroad. These are made manifest in expectations, the expectation of some outcome, some specific impact that all stakeholders anticipate.

Chapter Four then pursues the broader discussion of these outcomes, of international learning outcomes, arguably the prime reason for stakeholder support from both state and institution, as well as from the participants themselves. The discussion explores what these hoped-for outcomes are and how a period of study abroad might help realize them.; each of these interests has some specific gain it anticipates in this gain is what we call International Learning Outcomes. It sets the stage for an articulation and codification of what these outcomes are, and introduces a matrix from which stakeholders will prioritize those outcomes they anticipate or support through the study abroad activity. This inventory of outcomes is a first attempt to make an exhaustive matrix of potential outcomes, an attempt to categorize them, as a means to work towards more overtly outcomes-motivated programming and program assessment.

Chapter Five establishes a research methodology and a rationale for using that methodology; it explains and justifies the research instrument created and used and goes on to explore the research conducted for this dissertation; a detailed questionnaire was administered to recipients of a prestigious study abroad award. One constituency actively supporting the internationalization process in the province of British Columbia is the British Columbia Centre for International Education (BCCIE), which for over a decade supported the outward mobility of its students through a grant program. Since 1990, the BCCIE grant program has assisted over 400 British Columbia post-secondary students from colleges, universities, university colleges and institutes to study at institutions in countries across Latin America, Asia and the Pacific. These award recipients were student residents of British Columbia successful in their application to a prestigious awards program; they all met rigorous selection criteria in terms of grade point average, overseas program and relevance of destination country and institution. We go on to discuss the choice of research instrument – the weaknesses and the strengths of that chosen for this study – and the research options available to assess phenomena such as attitudinal and life change and then describe the population of respondents to the questionnaire.

Chapter Six briefly revisits anticipated International Learning Outcomes and pursues further discussion of the motivations that individuals possess in order to spur them on to participation; specifically, how relevant might some of these motivations might be? How much of the participants' motivation to study abroad is a cause for anticipated change and how much is the effect of previous experience or other motivations? Does the high achievement of certain anticipated outcomes by the

sojourner population have more to do with previous make-up than it does with engagement in the activity itself? This discussion is followed by a detailed analysis of the results of this research and suggestions for the applicability of the findings.

The Conclusion in Chapter Seven raises certain questions and makes recommendations for further research. A practical result of the current work is its strong support for more and more advanced outcomes-motivated programming; practitioners must work backwards from anticipated outcomes towards program development, and it is no longer sufficient to merely send students abroad and hope that something positive accrues. We then propose a new set of guiding principles that reflect sound internationalization principles, and exemplify these through the introduction of a model for the 'next generation' of mobility programs, one that might better address the achievement of international learning outcomes as well as institutions' internationalization objectives.

Chapter 2: The Context of History and Politics

When knowledge is extended, the will becomes sincere.

When the will is sincere, the mind is correct.

When the mind is correct, the self is cultivated.

When the self is cultivated, the clan is harmonised.

When the clan is harmonised, the country is well governed.

When the country is well governed, there will be peace throughout the land.

Confucius

In the introductory chapter we established the structure for this dissertation, and provided an argument that showed the need for background and for a context for further discussion; these are needed to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the issues and influences at work on international student mobility and, by extension, the acquisition of international learning outcomes. In order to do this we must first here address the history of education, and of educational mobility, and follow that discussion with an exploration of some of the current trends shaping education, most notably globalization, massification and internationalization. We will explore these trends in some detail, in order to more explicitly establish and document stakeholder and participant expectations of the outcomes of an international education experience. The final component of this context we must build will result from a look at the various manifestations of government support for educational mobility; we will place those into the context of international mobility, with the realization that their logical inclusion in this discussion is as a result of both the historical influences and the more current trends that have led to their inclusion

in the discussion. For this purpose we will describe, compare and contrast two different federal systems, those found in Canada and in the growing European Union, to look at both the rationale behind and the expression of educational mobility programming.

Ultimately, it is hoped that this current chapter functions as a preparation for all that follows; it establishes that for various historical and current reasons, there are vested interests in higher education and in the activity of study abroad. These influences include the weight of history and tradition in support of education; they include the ongoing and dynamic tensions of often extra-jurisdictional state support for higher education in evolving federations; and perhaps most importantly these influences include the more modern trend of globalization and related trends of massification and internationalization. It is hoped that these three disparate discussions will form a compelling context through which to view the activity of study abroad and the stakeholders' anticipation of gaining some specific outcomes as a result of this activity.

Historical Context

The history of higher education has seen almost constant discussion about what education is for, and who should support it. It has seen an age-old struggle between the Church and the State to control the activity and thus control what is taught and to whom. Recurring tensions include the debate between merit versus equality, maintaining past tradition or embracing change and innovation, "differentiation of functions among higher education institutions versus homogenization in a world of mass access" (Kerr), and the historical tension between nationalism and internationalism. We suggest that the world of higher education is presently in an outward-looking mode, that institutions and the governments that support them are searching out international partnerships and new

modes of cooperation and exchange. Higher education is being encouraged to seek out these new avenues of international cooperation by the governments that fund them and draft their governing policies as well as by the governments of those federal states that need to encroach upon internal and constituent jurisdictions in order to offer support; the rationale of these governments for doing so is economic, a response to global competition. History has seen both outward-looking and inward-looking phases in the evolution of higher education; it has seen both government and church offer various rationale for supporting higher education and academic mobility, and global economic factors are merely the most current rationale. In the prologue to “Higher Education Cannot Escape History”, educational historian Clark Kerr cites three phases in the history of education, and proposes that we are in the latter:

- a first, **convergent** phase, characteristic of higher education in the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance, when universities were truly international through the universality of their scholarly pursuits, the commonality of the programmes and the international composition of their staff and students;
- a second, **divergent** phase, roughly covering the period 1800 to World War II, when higher education institutions saw their functions shifted primarily towards serving the interests of nation states and the development of national identities. As a result, international pursuits were less of a priority; and,
- the current, **reconvergent** phase, which started after World War II, and is characterized by a return to universalism, under the impact of a whole range of external and internal factors (1994).

These “external and internal factors” in the current reconvergent phase are largely reactions to globalization and the continuing efforts of the state to direct the course of higher education in a changing world. While Aristotelian and Platonic ideals have come

and gone in favour, it is indisputable that existing traditions of state support for education are to be found in their writings; while the rationale for continued state support may be debated or couched in less offensive terms, it is still clearly to the benefit of the state – and not only to the benefit of the individual – that education be available from or supported by the state, as it increasingly is on a universal basis. It is therefore understood that the state has some role in deciding “what should be taught, in what spirit, and with what form of organization? [...] The society that mankind will inhabit in the 21st century is being shaped by new and powerful forces that include the globalization of economic activity, [and] the growing importance of knowledge as a prerequisite for participation in fundamental human activities” (UNESCO 1997: 7).

Plato argued that it is the role of the state to educate its citizenry; his dictum that the state should educate each individual ‘for the place and work to which he is best fitted’, and Aristotle’s supportive assertion that the state should educate its citizenry to play their parts in society, mesh seamlessly with the increasing role of developed federal states in encouraging and supporting mobility in this new global context. It is understood that the state has some role in deciding “what should be taught, in what spirit, and with what form of organization,” and the state is currently exercising that right in support of moving students and scholars (Ulich 4).

Mobility predates the university. It is only since the end of World War II, however, that nation states and governments have actively supported mobility through, for example, early and visionary programs such as the Fulbright Scholarship. These programs were devised to help post-war economies reconstruct and to encourage the intercourse of citizens and cultures. Their underlying premise was that better knowledge

of and between countries and cultures, and increased trade, would never allow a repeat of the horrors of previous wars. More recent state-funded programs link trading blocs and large economies as well as constituencies within federations, such as the nation-building exercise within the European Union that is supporting the mobility of tens of thousands of European students annually.

With the advent of globalization, it has become imperative for the developed economies to support international academic mobility for the next wave of their work forces. Governments increasingly need to promote the creation of a globally-literate population. The more complex a society is, the more there is to learn, and complex societies must grapple with issues of population size, diversity, aging and demographics; with the weight of their own histories and cultures; with internal and external trade, trading partners and economies; with borders, friends and foes; with evolving legal and justice systems; with changing needs of and resources for their social and education systems.

While some argue that universities have always been international institutions, globalization is altering the manner in which governments support education, especially in the international arena, and which programs they choose to support. It is also altering how universities examine the support they receive, and how they make decisions about which support and programs they choose to pursue in the face of declining resources. Even in those jurisdictions with a tradition of private education, government support buttresses institutional programming. The role of government in supporting education, and in influencing its directions, is in many ways fundamental to modern concepts of

education. “All modern states underwriting education systems insist on having some say in the character formation of their future citizens” (Burrige 30).

Student and scholarly mobility have historically been an integral factor and force in higher education. An historical look at education – and at the rationale for the support and intervention of the state in higher education – is essential to an understanding of globalization and the integrally-linked trend of the internationalization of higher education, a movement sweeping post-secondary institutions across the globe.

The historical perspective here presented is by no means an exhaustive record of the growth of education, but rather a cursory review of education’s history as it pertains to the control of the state over the activities of education and of mobility and the salient points in this dissertation.

If we reference Kerr’s three phases in the history of education, the first convergent phase began before there was a formal university structure, before nation states existed and thus before state support could influence education. In fact, international (student and scholarly) mobility predates the existence of universities themselves. Compellingly, it can be argued that without international mobility, and the consequent flow of ideas and scholars across cultures throughout the centuries, we would have no universities nor much educational progress at all. A “history of educational progress must be in part a history of civilization itself” (Cubberly 12). We inherited writing from the Phoenicians, our alphabet from Greece via the Romans, math and science from the Saracens, the Middle East and South Asia, and our language from the turbulent intercourse of cultures in Europe.

Despite great Asian and Middle Eastern influence, and the independent growth of learning in the East, modern Western education is based largely upon the model that evolved in Europe and finds its roots in Ancient Greece, in the Hellenistic tradition. A world existed in which there was no formal education. Tradesman begat tradesman, soldier begat soldier. Before 500 BC, as education evolved it was the purview of only the families of the ruling classes, those with Athenian citizenship; as this was relaxed to include all the free inhabitants of Attica, including the commercial classes, there was a rapid increase in the power and culture of Athens. As power evolved to Athens, so did the classes that needed education, and Athens became a centre of learning, where “students of all ages and nationalities thronged her streets” (Walden 52); it became “the school not only of Greece but of the entire world” (Capes 3).

In Athens the Sophists were at first freelance teachers, but the growing need for education and the Sophists’ need for both legitimacy and fees ultimately required them to form classes. They taught that ‘man is the measure of all things’ and can decide for himself issues of morality. Protagoras is quoted by Plato as saying ‘if he comes to me he will learn that which he comes to learn’. Isocrates began to diverge from traditional Sophist teaching and evolved the manner of instruction from training to argumentation, so that students could think clearly and express ideas properly, and this manner of instruction evolved into the Rhetorical schools.

Into the climate set by the Sophists came the first of the great educational theorists, Socrates (470-399 BC), who rebelled against the Sophists’ limiting philosophy and the potentially self-serving argumentation of Isocrates; he argued ‘know thyself’, that man has more in common with others than unique to himself and that this shared tradition

should be inculcated, that the problems of everyday morality (Philosophy) were paramount to Sophistry and Rhetoric. There were universal laws and principles. Knowledge is virtue and virtue is knowledge and virtue can be taught. From him evolved the Philosophical Schools. These two divergent schools coalesced into the University of Athens in approximately 200 BC.

Plato (427-347 BC) was a student of Socrates and the teacher's views informed much of the student's philosophy, especially in The Republic, where Plato advocated state schools in his discussion of how the perfect state might be achieved. For Plato, the education of the individual was integrally linked to and with society and he espoused an educational system entirely controlled by the State, "in which each individual would be educated for the place and work for which by nature he is best fitted" (Duggan 31). And so a debate emerged already as to whether education should help one earn a good living and contribute to society or merely help one to live a good life? "Full development can only come about in and through the life of the city-state, while the character of the state itself is dependent upon the quality of education of its citizens, and education must be adapted to the needs and the potentialities of the different types of people that comprise it." (Lawrence 26).

For Plato education was the 'science of right choice' that would allow men to make right decisions and be good citizens. The more education for which a man showed he was capable, the more opportunities and the greater roles in the governing and service of the state would he be given access to. For Plato, as for Wordsworth, 'the child is the

Father of the Man". For Plato the Office of the Minister of Education should be the greatest of all the great offices of state.²

Aristotle (384-322 BC), a student of Plato and himself a foreigner in Athens – perhaps one of the first foreign students on record – argued that man is a physical, moral and mental animal and that education should reflect this. While he differed from Plato on some fundamental issues, he agreed that education was integrally tied to the life of the community and that the ideal of education was the new man, “fully developed in all his powers, able to play his part in society” (Burridge 33). He agreed with Plato that the education of its citizens is the primary means of securing the welfare of the state. Man was essentially a political animal “born for citizenship” (33). A primary function of education was the creation of a community. (An interesting and related sidebar is that Aristotle used to lecture walking around rather than standing still, and as a school developed around him it became known as the *peripatetic* school of philosophy.)

With the introduction of new ideas and the influence of other cultures, by 350 BC Greece had evolved what is fundamentally the system of education in use today: primary education for students of years 7 to 13; secondary education, 13 to 16; and higher or university education, for those years after 16. Alexander the Great conquered and unified the western Orient and the eastern Mediterranean, and Greek knowledge followed his armies in their further conquests. “Greek language and Greek culture conquered the minds of man more effectually than their arms had conquered government” (Duggan 48). By 146 BC Greece was under Roman control; by great paradox, Greek influence over

² It is interesting to note that many of history’s great educational thinkers, such as Locke, Rousseau, Dewey and the Greeks Socrates, Plato and Aristotle, have also been political theorists.

culture and education in the Mediterranean would never have been accomplished without the Romans, who adopted the Greek model and used their empire to establish it as the education model for the Western world.

Supported education was proselytised with the growing Church throughout the expanding Roman Empire, and in fact the very strength and breadth of the Empire allowed the missionary work of the Church to flourish. Education more than any other legacy survived the Roman take-over of Greece and ultimately became key to the longevity of the Roman Empire; it was central to the battles over the division of Church and State. It supported then challenged both religion and empire until we have today, outside of a small number of Islamic theocracies, a reasonably clear separation between Church and State in the support of education, although there are often malleable boundaries between the two in many nation states, including Canada.

The Church evolved its own systems of education, stressing a moral and religious pedagogy as opposed to the earlier pagan traditions of bodily training, art and philosophy that it slowly usurped. Its teachings spread throughout the empire under a stability enforced by armies of men from many nations, now for the first time working and living together and fostering a concept of one humanity, a *genus humanum*. Most prone and receptive to receive the teachings and instruction were the growing cities, which evolved diocese and soon became the home of bishops, cathedral Churches and then, to support the Churches, cathedral schools to train new clergy, each under its own administration.

The first monasteries were established by 330 AD and as their number grew across the continent, each lived under its own rules. In 529 AD St. Benedict fled the corruption of the city and founded a monastery in Southern Italy, where he developed

what became the Rule of Benedict, a code of 73 articles detailing the organization and administration of the monasteries and the lives of the monks. Benedict's Rules were rapidly adopted by most other monasteries, in effect creating the first form of educational governance in the West. The monasteries became the publishing houses, libraries, schools and focal point for literary activity of the Middle Ages.

Between the cathedral schools and monasteries there was firm control over all education in the early Middle Ages. The late 9th Century saw the emergence of the chivalric schools attached to the courts, schools in which knights were taught the rudiments of love, war and religion. The growth of this tradition introduced new schisms between Church and State in the control of education.

By the 12th Century there was a fundamental calm in the landscape and mindset of Europe. Norse attacks had ceased; stability was returning to the continent and allowed the rebirth of a civil and intellectual society; populations were growing, and there was confidence that civilization would continue. Saracen learning infiltrated Europe through Moorish Spain, and the Crusaders returned from the Middle East with contact and ideas from the Greeks and the Arabs, and with copies of Aristotle's works and those of the other philosophers; they returned seeking solutions to problems and answers to questions they had never before posed. This relative stability in society, and the resultant need for the Church to develop more rational and systematic methods of stating doctrine, evolved the method or school of Scholasticism, which in many ways marked the end of the Middle Ages. Scholasticism was in essence a marriage or harmonizing of faith and reason, one which would ultimately pit reason against authority. Logical analysis displaced previous methods of pedagogy; argumentation was applied to both the subject

matter as well as the form of argumentation. This analytical method allowed for two sides to every argument, and with the revival of nominalism under William of Occam, in many ways encouraged the birth of modern science and paved the way for the Renaissance.

The end of the Middle Ages also marked the birth of a class of scholarly men, the growth of centres of learning, and by the 13th Century the rise of the first universities in Bologna and Paris. These early universities and their progeny (Oxford from Paris, Cambridge from Oxford, Padua from Bologna, Leipzig from Prague, etc.) were chartered by King, Pope or Emperor and were ostensibly free from Church or local political influence or dominion. Students came from afar, giving birth to the precursor of the modern faculty, the “nations”, grouped as often along disciplinary lines as across cultural lines or through allegiance to a certain school or scholar. The scholar or his discipline was the attraction to the university, not merely education in the abstract. The privileges granted to students and scholars at universities were virtually identical to those granted to the clergy, who had inherited these same rights from the teaching class under the Roman Empire.

The Renaissance (or ‘rebirth’) first flowered in Italy; it was a 300-year period in Western Europe that marked a revival of art, literature, and learning. It is now seen as the period of transition between medieval and modern Western Europe. With the return of the Crusaders, greater interest had developed in secular affairs, for living in this world and not the next; economic stability and prosperity had taken root, the world was opening with the discovery of new lands, and an educational shift began towards looking at the humanities of Greek and Roman literature rather than solely the divinities of current

education. Medieval universities had been utilitarian and produced theologians, lawyers and doctors; they also functioned as a training ground for teachers, politicians and men of business. The fall of Constantinople had allowed access to the large library in its School of Higher Learning, consisting of ancient Greek and Hebrew manuscripts. Scholars fleeing the Turkish invasion of 1453 took books with them into Europe. These manuscripts created a rebirth of interest in classical philosophy and learning, spurred on by the belief that the Greek and Latin classics contained most of the lessons one needed to lead a moral and effective life. The idea of 'art for its own sake' was novel, but the study of Greek, Latin and Hebrew were associated by many in the Church with paganism and heresy.

Universities were publicly-funded institutions and were largely expected to produce professionals. Art was not a profession, and most universities were reluctant to embrace this new field of studies. To accommodate the new learning, the aesthetic sensibilities of the Renaissance were then promoted by the patronage of powerful men and tyrants in the cities who developed court schools and academies. But despite the resistance of the universities, the humanities did eventually enter the university curriculum. The printing press was invented in 1450, resulting in a rapid drop in the price of the printed word and access for a greater number of people and, to a degree, a modicum of democratization of education.

Another important shift from the Middle Ages to the Renaissance occurred in the demographics of the university. Universities were new in the Middle Ages and were considered to be 'international', in their convergent phase, more connected to each other rather than to their host nations, with students and scholars often moving with ease and

with regularity from one school to another. The Renaissance then ushered in a period of nationalism in many countries in Europe, due in large part to the expansion of European culture through the acquisition of colonies and the religious conflicts between Catholic and Protestant nations. Schools became more closely connected with their host states. They began to rely on their host governments for funding, which in turn strongly controlled them. “Queen Elizabeth I, of England, for instance, tried to control virtually all the operations of universities in England. She set a dress code for students and masters, and wanted to be in control of when lectures were scheduled, what degrees were granted to whom, and what was taught at the school, and what disputations were allowed.” (Rudy 67)

Relations between Church and scholars were never simple, for the humanists evolved their own views on theology. Some criticized important Church doctrines or institutions that lacked biblical or historical support; others supported views that had the Church fearing they were in danger of becoming pagans. Real confrontation came in the later 16th Century, as the Church faced the new challenge of Protestantism. Elsewhere, especially in Spain, the Inquisition scrutinized the orthodoxy of instruction at universities. Disputes or even questions of Church doctrine could result in torture and death at the stake. Naturally, universities in Spain became quite conservative. Similar attitudes prevailed in other Catholic countries; Copernicus and Galileo, for example, both suffered from clerical persecution, and were kept from teaching their scientific findings. In Leipzig a whole faculty was fired and rehired as the religion of the ruling classes wavered.

The Enlightenment followed. Also known as the Age of Reason, it was the dominant intellectual movement of the 18th century. Fundamental beliefs included faith in the supremacy of human reason, that people, through the use of their reason, could find answers to their questions and solutions to their problems. Insisting that human institutions should conform to logic and reason, they challenged traditional Royal and Church authority and called for the end of the old regime.

As colonization of the new world proceeded, imperialist countries needed to train new administrators, government officials and other professional people in and for the colonies. It is at this point in history that the evolution of universities branches out dramatically. In Latin America, for example, in 1551, the Spanish Council of the Indies authorized the creation of two universities, in Lima and in Mexico, both needing imperial and papal approval. Under Spain's colonial control, 25 universities were eventually operating in the Americas, all associated with one of the Catholic orders: the Franciscans, Dominicans or Augustans. The organization of these colonial Spanish schools was modelled on the University of Salamanca (initially an Arab school). These schools were meant primarily to produce priests for the New World. In the Portuguese colony of Brazil, no universities were established, as young scholars were expected to return to Portugal for higher education.

Attitudes differed in the North American colonies. In the thirteen British colonies that formed the United States, money was allocated for local universities and colleges as soon the settlements were established. The Puritan settlers were largely religious refugees, and part of their intent in moving to America was to set up a theocracy. Education was therefore one of the areas over which they wanted control. In the same

way, only much later, Quebec demanded control over education before it would become signatory to the new Canadian constitution, as it deemed correctly that the links between education and culture were fundamental.

In 1636, 400 pounds was designated for the establishment of a Puritan college in Boston; two years later John Harvard died and left an additional 800 pounds and his large library to the school. The college required that students be fluent in Latin and some Greek before they began their studies; it was based on the model of Oxford and Cambridge in England. Academies then also sprang up around the Southern British colonies. In 1751 Benjamin Franklin helped to establish the Philadelphia Academy. The middle of the 18th Century saw the creation of a series of colleges and academies; other universities were opened outside of the Puritan tradition. These schools were secular, liberal and more modern, and were modelled on the University of London. Among these were the College of New Jersey (Princeton University), King's College (Columbia University), The College and Academy of Philadelphia, and Queen's College (Rutgers University). Changing attitudes towards religion in higher education came in 1779 when Thomas Jefferson intervened for the state and revised the curriculum of William and Mary College in Virginia by discontinuing the chair in divinity as a subject not compatible with freedom in a republic.

In French North America the university system was strictly controlled by the Catholic Church. The first school of higher learning, the Grande Seminaire, was established in Quebec City, by Bishop Laval in 1663, and was intended as a local training school for priests. When Quebec was ceded to Britain, the French schools found themselves without the financial support previously available from the French

government, funding support not replaced by the British. Thus the first universities in French Canada were anglophone schools modelled on the Scottish universities. The British had already established universities based on the old English model some time earlier. The three King's Colleges were founded in the late 18th and early 19th century. By Confederation in 1867, seventeen degree-granting institutions existed in the founding provinces.

Examples abound across the globe of differing education systems initiated and supported by differing religious, political or colonial imperatives or by more local imperatives of culture, poverty or sustainability. These differing models of university education and state support for education have evolved with the footprint of colonialism, and undeniably with the new world adopting and adapting the European models of their colonizers to their own needs.

Virtually all governments have supported and continue to support higher education, albeit for a variety of reasons unique to each: professionals are needed to run cities, societies, hospitals and armies; research and development are needed to fuel economies, education, and culture as well as to sustain power; cultural growth is essential for nation-building; international prestige is often at stake.

Industry supports targeted research and programs. Students support their own education through tuition and ancillary fees. Universities are thus forced to accommodate a number of contradictory constituents and supporters. Despite rhetoric to the contrary, ideas of academic freedom and a universality of knowledge and scholars are utopian and have been largely illusory since the early days of education; some body, be it

State or Church, industry or student, has always controlled or influenced what is taught at universities.

These evolving views of who should control and support education, and of what education is and does, have always been part of the equation. “Once regarded as an essentially conservative, culture-preserving, culture-transmitting institution, the educational system now tends to be viewed as the master determinant of all aspects of change” (Coleman 3). Despite the structure of the state, be it republic or federation or theocracy, be it far right to far left on the political spectrum, a commonality to all functioning states can be found in their support for the education of their peoples, and their control of what is offered as education to their peoples.

Political Context

Federalism and State Support for Education

In order to better appreciate some of the manifestations of state control and suasion over education, it will be illustrative to look at such influence in two different types of federations. Close to half of the world’s population and over half of its land is controlled by federations of various stature, size and power. Understanding political jurisdiction over post-secondary education in a federation is integral to our understanding of the use of education and mobility programming by the federation or its constituent parts.

Some argue that federalism is a concept yet in search of a meaning. For the purposes of this paper, however, we will use the definition offered by K.C. Wheare that a ‘federation’ or ‘federal system’ is “an association of states, which has been formed for

certain common purposes, but in which the member states retain a large measure of their original independence” (1). “The balance between the general government and the local authorities is cast in terms of rights, powers and judicial determinations” (Tarlton 31). The powers, relative authority and autonomy of the member states (or constituents), and the relative control and powers of the central government – in short, the type and manner of association – can and does vary dramatically across the federal systems in existence and creates what we might refer to as a ‘spectrum of federalism’. Canada and the EU are fundamentally different federations, at opposite ends of this spectrum of federalism, yet both are shifting towards the same centre; there is as yet no clear model of federalism that will accommodate and encompass the myriad forms of federal systems we find existing, evolving and being created on the globe; Canada and the EU contrast as dissimilar examples or disparate models of federalism.

Canada is a nation state with a strong central government that over time is, often reluctantly, devolving powers to the provinces and, for the sake of national unity and peaceful domestic relations, allowing them to be increasingly autonomous over ever more jurisdictions. But even as the provinces have historically had authority over post-secondary education, the nation’s capital Ottawa continues to influence the activity to meet its own agenda and in a complex formula has traditionally transferred monies to the provinces for social programming such as post-secondary education and health.

Europe is in the dynamic process of nation building, and some argue evolving towards nation state status itself; it is a growing number of autonomous nation states that is gradually ceding powers to the emerging central government in Brussels and Strasbourg, in the form of monetary policy and currency, taxation, a common foreign

policy and both a defence policy and unified or coordinated armed forces, a constitution, and most certainly in higher education, where mobility programs internal to the EU are being used to break down long-standing linguistic, economic and cultural borders within the Union as well as with trading partners such as NAFTA.

Under most federal systems, the central government is responsible for foreign policy, defence, taxation and economic policy, criminal law, etc. In many federations – including Canada, Australia, the United States and Switzerland – responsibility for what might be called ‘social services’ such as health and education, policing and child welfare, have been ceded to the regional or provincial governments. There are various reasons for this, including regional diversity and both historical and cultural concerns, but one of the prime reasons may be that these are expensive programs to oversee, in terms of capital and equipment costs and also in terms of large human resource costs. Thus central governments have ceded management of these areas to the regional governments in exchange for sometimes generous and sometimes frugal grants to run them. Richer jurisdictions within federations are often less reliant on central government largesse than are the poorer jurisdictions (Newfoundland in Canada for example, or some of the poorer cantons in Switzerland), but the very existence of poorer jurisdictions goes far in explaining the grant-giving role of the central government in a federation.

It is the practice in federal and even in many unitary states to devolve some social administration to local authorities. The difference between the two is that in the federal system, there is always the potential for (destructive or creative) tension concerning the legislative power of the two (or more) governments involved, and it must be decided

which level has what authority. Once made, a division of power is generally strictly adhered to.

Wheare argues that, the older the federal system, the less likely it is to have central authority over social services such as education (145). The American constitution makes little reference to social affairs other than addressing the “general welfare of the United States.” The Swiss constitution of 1848 allowed the federal government to establish a federal university and a federal polytechnic but responsibility for all other education would remain with the cantons. Canada in 1867 drafted a Constitution that kept policy over social issues – including education “subject to certain safeguards” – largely under regional/provincial control. Australia’s 1900 constitution generally followed suit, with the federation reserving for itself slightly more powers than it did in Canada. It would seem at first glance that the federal governments were content to leave social issues with the regions and were, as Alexander Hamilton put it,

to be exercised principally on external objects as war, peace, negotiation and foreign commerce; with which last the power of taxation will, for the most part, be connected. The powers reserved to the several states will extend to all the objects which, in the ordinary course of affairs, concern the lives, liberties and properties of the people and the internal order, improvement and prosperity of the state (cited in Wheare 147).

Interestingly, as these various federations have evolved, the central governments’ powers over the social sphere have systematically and generally increased, at the expense of the constituent parts, through both legislative means and through financial inducements and control. There is now a better understanding of the relationships between a state’s social and economic well-being. The relative and increasing expense of social services has meant that the constituent parts do not always have the financial

wherewithal to properly fund and manage programs so that by “indirect means of financial penetration, the general government enters the sphere of social services” (150).

Regional, cultural, geographic, religious or linguistic differences in a federation often dictate that control over education resides with the constituent parts rather than with the centre or federation, where more local control can address local concerns and those of minority populations. The converse may also be true, for example, where the anglophone or Protestant student in Quebec might fare better were education policy dictated from Ottawa rather than from Quebec City; as such, in Canada and Switzerland the federal governments guarantee access to linguistic or religious minorities and then let the provinces or cantons implement these guarantees. In the Canadian constitution (Section 93) there is allowance for intervention and enforcement (‘remedial action’) into provincial policy should guaranteed safeguards not be implemented. Furthermore, in all federations the central government makes some ‘direct contribution’ towards post-secondary education, “either by directly carrying out educational work or by financing its conduct in others” (154). Blatant examples include the creation of Canberra’s Australian National University or Zurich’s Swiss Polytechnic; less obvious examples include the research dollars, scholarships, student loans and operating grants doled out from federal capitals to individuals, institutions and provinces or states; in art and library collections; in agricultural, vocational or technical research and education. Interestingly in the Canadian context, with declining provincial budgets and often frozen or declining financial support from those with constitutional responsibility to fund the activity, some institutions receive more money through direct ear-marked federal programming than they do from the provincial grants meant to be used for operational purposes; less money

is transferred to the provinces from Ottawa for the purposes of operating post-secondary institutions, and less discretion is given to the provinces on how they can spend that money. From the other hand Ottawa bypasses the provinces altogether to directly fund specific activities at the universities.

But federalism is “a process rather than a static pattern of government, [...] the process of achieving a union of groups which retain their identity” (Birch 6). Some factors impede and others encourage integration, in some cases contributing to the building of the nation state and others to more international integration. Influencing that process and as outcome from that process are several factors – external and internal, social, cultural and economic – and since the end of the Cold War the effects of and reaction to globalization have been paramount in both defining and redefining the federations of Canada and the EU. “The factors most commonly identified as creating the conditions for federal integration are the expectation of economic advantage and the existence of social and cultural bonds which generate a feeling of community” (7). It is the expectation of economic advantage which has allowed the constituent governments in these federations to turn a blind eye to central trespass into their jurisdictions.

The Canadian Experience

The Dominion of Canada was born on March 29th, 1867, when the British North America Act received Royal Assent. The Act came into effect on July 1st of that year and Sir John A. Macdonald became the prime minister. The country’s constitution was repatriated to Canada in 1982 under the Constitution Act. Authority for post-secondary education had been granted to the provinces during discussions surrounding that first constitution. In order for Quebec to be signatory to the Act, federal authorities bowed to

its argument that education was part of culture and, as the provinces were to be responsible for culture, so would they be for education. The federal government would maintain its powers of taxation but would send back to the provinces monies collected for post-secondary education and health in the form of transfer payments.

In the original British North America Act of 1867, and under the more recent Constitution Act of 1982, power to make laws “in and for each province” in education matters rests exclusively with the provinces. There is no central ministry of education in Canada. However, “there is nothing in the constitution to prevent the Canadian government from making gifts to any group or institution whatsoever” (Trudeau 85). As such it can be argued that there is a safeguard built into the federal system so that the centre can encroach upon any constituent jurisdiction it deems worthy. The Department of the Secretary of State co-ordinates federal involvement in post-secondary education.

Trudeau argued that, in the Canadian context, there are times when encroachment upon jurisdictions (federal upon provincial and vice versa) may be justified, and most where it would not be justified, but that it is “up to the voters to elect, at the federal level, a government that will do its duty as far as national defence is concerned, and, at the provincial level, men who will give education the priority it requires” (81). He outlines what might be justifiable reasons for university education to fall under “concurrent federal jurisdiction” in order to “undertake immediately an enlargement of our cultural horizons, or to co-operate in the large-scale production of technicians to come to grips with our own underdeveloped state, our economic rivals, and our ideological enemies” (83). In short, in response to globalization.

The collaborative tensions of federalism, however, can be seen in this dilemma. Whether from Ottawa or the provinces, it is the same country being governed; Ottawa is not a foreign capital. Even when it uses its 'own' money, Ottawa is using tax money from the same pockets from which the provinces solicit their tax revenue; there is only one tax payer. Absolute and discreet differentiation between federal and provincial authority thus becomes less possible. Where encroachment into another's jurisdiction becomes excessive, unwarranted or unjustified, on the one hand nationalist or separatist tendencies would prevail and lead to separatism or, on the other hand, federal or national tendencies would prevail and lead to a unitary state. As such the basis of the federation must rest on collaboration, and the collaborative tensions must be creative and not destructive.

Much of the collaborative goodwill and creative collaborative tension in the Canadian federation has rested upon the annual transfer payments made from Ottawa to the provinces in support of health and education. The fiscal conservatism of the 1990's saw these transfer payments towards education largely disappear, however, and what money remained to the provinces was more specifically ear-marked and legally had to be spent on post-secondary education, or health, or whatever specific activity Ottawa demanded; no longer did the provinces have the authority to channel these funds where it felt appropriate. The provinces felt that they were finally assuming full fiscal as well as exclusive policy authority over post-secondary education. After assuming power in 1993, the federal Liberal government began dramatically decreasing transfer payments to the provinces. In 1994/95 these were at \$18.7 billion dollars and by 1997/98 had been decreased to \$12 billion (Ashlee 110). Citing a 1998 report from the Canadian Labour

Congress, Ashlee states that “reports show that the Federal government, since 1993, has cut billions of dollars from Federally-sponsored training and post-secondary education budgets, and that the \$6.3 billion in cuts to training and post-secondary budgets will be more than double the \$2.5 billion endowment for the Millennium Scholarship Fund ([...] which started in 2000 and offers 100,000 scholarships of \$3000 per student)” (110). In fact, “the federal government is spending about \$1.7 billion less today [...] as of April, 2005 [...] on transfer payments to the provinces for post-secondary education than a decade ago, even though enrolment is up.”³

Despite cutting core funding to the provinces in support of post-secondary education, the federal government instead is by-passing the provinces and making funding available through other avenues; it is offering direct incentives to students in the form of scholarships and loans; it is offering direct incentives to institutions in the form of research dollars and grants; it has created an expensive network of Canada Research Chairs and the Canada Foundation for Innovation; further, it is also offering funding directly to institutions in support of international mobility programming. One example is this Millennium Scholarship program, widely hailed by the universities and by the federal government itself, yet generally dismissed by the provinces as something that might have achieved more if the funds were channelled through provincial capitals. The 1999 federal throne speech pledged to help stem the brain drain (another manifestation of globalization) and, through the Canada Foundation for Innovation, established 1200 new research chairs at Canadian universities; the new chairs are funded through the Natural

³ In 2005 dollars, Ottawa now supports post-secondary core operational budgets with funds transferred through the provinces at about \$4.5 billion. (Schmidt)

Science and Engineering Research Council (NSERC), the Medical Research Council (MRC), and the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSHRC).

Despite its lack of jurisdictional authority and decreasing monetary contributions through the provincial coffers, as exemplified in the erosion of federal transfer payments in support of post-secondary education, the Canadian federal government has over time and through various other mechanisms exerted growing influence over post-secondary education. Through issues of aboriginal treaty it is responsible for education to Native Canadians. Expanding education programs in federal prisons, including both vocational training and some university-level programs, are under federal authority; so is education for the Canadian Armed Forces and education at Canadian military bases throughout Europe; so is training for the Canadian Coast Guard.

It further exerts powers of suasion over post-secondary education through the funding of its extensive research programs, primarily through the MRC, NSERC, and SSHRC. Other grants towards specific geographic areas or specific disciplines, the federal student loans program, and funding support aimed towards special programs such as multiculturalism and bilingualism also allow for federal influence. The federal departments of fisheries and agriculture, for example, have made specific grants to some universities, under the argument that for those purposes and in those areas “the federal government has (concurrent) constitutional jurisdiction; so that there can be no question of denying its right to give grant, or even to legislate in those areas, any more than in the establishing of military colleges” (88).

Recent decades have also seen increasing federal influence over post-secondary education in the central government’s capacity as authority over international trade and

foreign policy and through various ministries, departments and agencies as diverse as the Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT), Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC) and Immigration Canada; the country has entered into political axes and trade agreements such as the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) and the Asia Pacific Economic Community (APEC) as well as that with the European Community; in each case, soon after joining these economic/political blocs, Ottawa has made available substantial levels of support for new programs centred on international post-secondary mobility. Canada has joined in exchange consortia with the EU, with Mexico and the United States in support of NAFTA, and informally with APEC through UMAP (University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific). Formal programs are under consideration with economic blocs such as APEC and MERCOSUR, as is expanded programming into Eastern Europe and the Baltics, all new or potential EU members. Guidelines for existing programs unabashedly state that preference in the decision-making process will be given to those consortia established in areas such as business, trade, and technology transfer, and with a language training component where required.

Had Canada's founding fathers a better idea of the pivotal role that an educated populace and university-level research would play in the future economic health of their country, they might not have so easily ceded constitutional authority over education to the provinces; they did. The Canadian federation is becoming increasingly decentralized and federal authorities are in need of ever bigger sticks and sweeter carrots to exert influence over post-secondary education. So they use authority over international trade and foreign policy to influence post-secondary education, to encourage and direct

mobility, and to exert ever more control over higher education as a means of achieving the economic aims of the central state through an educated and globally-literate work force.

Despite impressive numbers of mobile students across the globe, Canada remains a bit player in this exodus; fewer than 1% of its university students typically participate in formal international exchange programs and fewer than 3% of its university students study outside the country, the great majority of these in the United States (Canadian Internationalist 1).⁴ Canada is trying to remedy that status but it lacks the history and example of strong federal support towards such mobility programming that has been exhibited by other developed countries and economies. CBIE (1999: 2) cites a study showing relative per capita support for international education initiatives by several OECD countries, as follows and using Canadian \$:

- Australia: \$9.07
- Japan: \$4.94
- United States: \$4.70
- Germany: \$3.02
- Netherlands: \$2.86
- Canada: \$0.80

Canada's major trading partners are involved in rapid increases in their support for research and technical cooperation in key emerging markets; Canada is playing catch-

⁴ It is of interest to note that "some 25,000 Canadians are studying abroad, but of these 22,000 are in the U.S." (Canadian Internationalist 2). It can be argued that, for a Canadian student, the cultural impact of studying in the United States is minimal, and this large number then begs the question of whether this is really study abroad? ... or whether this large number studying in the United States is really contributing to the internationalization of the Canadian campus and student population.

up and the last decade has seen the introduction of a number of mobility programs; increased support is targeted towards existing and new initiatives.

It should be clearly noted that this mobility of students is not similar to other initiatives that support the recruitment of full fee-paying international students; the latter is encouraged on the basis of favourable balances of trade (to the community and to the institutions charging differential or international fees to non-domestic students) and the philanthropic ideals of creating international goodwill, tolerance and the establishment of life-long relationships encouraging both friendship and trade. The former involve the reciprocal exchange of students (and programs, curricula and technology) so that 'they' learn more about 'us' while here and 'we' learn more about 'them' while there.

Historically, the federal government has sponsored domestic Canadian mobility programs, in its quest to buttress its policies of bilingualism and the ongoing activity of nation building; these include the Summer Language Bursary Programs (SLBP), Official Language Fellowships, Official-Language Monitor Programs (OLMP), and the Bourses d'été pour francophones hors Québec (PBEFHQ). These programs are funded through the Department of Canadian Heritage in conjunction with the Council of Ministers of Education in Canada (CMEC), which includes cabinet-level representation from each of the provinces. Additionally there are several programs jointly funded by the federal government and its provincial counterparts, such as the French Minority Language Program and the Federal-Provincial Fellowship Program in Saskatchewan. The SLBP have encouraged and supported Quebecois students to study English outside their province and anglophone Canadians to study French inside Quebec, supporting both the policy of bilingualism and the hope that greater personal connections will dampen the

fervour of the separatist cause in Quebec. This program is blatantly a program in nation building and is maintained partly due to the nation's occasionally tenuous hold on unity; even so it is presently much less of a drain on the nation's finances than are the international mobility programs. By contrast, the bulk of the money currently being spent by Brussels on academic mobility is being spent 'domestically' within the EU, as that federation is still in the early stages of nation building.

The Canadian Bureau of International Education (CBIE), the Association of Universities and Colleges in Canada (AUCC), the Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC) and other Canadian non-governmental organizations (NGOs) have lobbied and presented policy papers and strategies towards massive increases in federal support for international mobility, citing globalization, technology and Canada's competitiveness as the rationale for these increases. Its most recent strategy document (CBIE 1999) outlines the need to use international learning to achieve three fundamental goals:

- "Build a critical mass of human resources in Canada that can understand and interact effectively with today's and tomorrow's international partners;
- Enhance Canada's capacity to generate and apply new knowledge through international research and technical cooperation; and
- Make Canada a partner of choice with international decision-makers" (4).

Key principles driving this strategy will be "coherence, sustainability, accessibility, reciprocity and flexibility," all mandated and funded from Ottawa and not from the provinces actually responsible for post-secondary education.

CMEC has further developed a “Pan-Canadian Protocol on the Transferability of University Credits” to help dismantle long-standing barriers towards internal or domestic mobility. A more detailed discussion of the transferability of university credits takes place in the section on the European Union, which faces even greater obstacles in its quest for uniformity and ‘domestic’ recognition of academic credentials. CMEC argues that “just as barriers to inter-provincial trade are being reviewed on a pan-Canadian basis in order to make Canada more competitive economically, so, too, must barriers that restrict student mobility be addressed to make the most effective use of the nation’s human potential” (2). Encouraged by its support and success for domestic academic programs, the federal government is now sponsoring a number of programs at the international level.

Ottawa has for many years sponsored the teaching of Canadian Studies at foreign universities, using federal funds channelled through the International Council for Canadian Studies (ICCS). It supports the Government of Canada (GOC) Awards program and helps disseminate information on the Foreign Government Awards programs, offering direct support to DFAIT’s policy of encouraging both faculty and student mobility into and out of Canada; the former program enables foreign nationals to study or conduct research at Canadian institutions; the latter awards are offered in reciprocity of the GOC awards and allow Canadians to pursue studies abroad. The Canadian government pays more than its own way in the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan (CSFP) – which encourages academic mobility within the Commonwealth – as well as in the Canada/China Scholars Exchange Program, again jointly funded between the two participating governments. Bilateral funding also

supports the Canada-Taiwan Scholarship Program. Other federally-funded programs include the Organization of American States (OAS) Fellowships, DFAIT Awards through the Faculty Enrichment Fund to encourage Mexican and US scholars to travel to Canada, Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) Awards for Canadians, International Development Research Council (IDRC) Doctoral Research Awards as well as a number of other smaller bilateral jointly-funded relationships.

The majority of these programs are funded entirely by the Canadian federal government or are bilateral nation-to-nation agreements and as such fall outside the scope of this discussion; we are not addressing these and the other often large bilateral and multilateral aid programs used by nation states (e.g., Monbusho in Japan, Fulbright in the US) to foster the one-way movement of students and scholars to or from the funding state; rather we are dealing with issues and programs of reciprocity that see a two-way movement of students and scholars – most often on an equal financial footing – so that both host and home institutions and states reap equal benefit and assume equal cost in the exchange.

There are three major international mobility schemes funded directly from Ottawa through HRDC; they fall under the rubric of the International Mobility in Higher Education Program (IMHEP) and include the major mobility consortium programs with Europe and within North America (NAFTA) as well as a smaller program with Taiwan.

The Canada-European Community Programme for Cooperation in Higher Education and Training is called a ‘small-scale initiative’. In 1997 alone there were approximately twenty active consortium arrangements between Canadian and European universities, constituting an investment of over \$2.5 million on the Canadian side alone

(at \$140,000 per 1996 program [HRDC 2000 unpaginated]), matched by the European side to support their universities' involvement. A later submission deadline in 1998 (with support for each project at \$160,000 for both 1997 and 1998 programs [HRDC 2000 unpaginated]) introduced an additional 12 new successful consortia at an investment of close to \$2 million, for a total of over 30 funded projects (AUCC 1). There are now annual deadlines for the program, funding is now given for four years instead of three, and an additional twelve programs are accepted each year, at \$200,000 per program for an additional investment of approximately \$2.5 million. Between 400 and 500 incoming and outgoing students are involved (or 'mobile') each year in this program. There are other initiatives that are even 'smaller scale' such as the STEP program (Science and Technology with European Partners). STEP is administered by AUCC and funds 14 projects annually (@ \$5000 each) tenable at either a European or Canadian university but with the intent of consolidating pure or applied science, as well as engineering projects with European partner universities.

There are also annual competitions for the NAFTA trilateral program. Early contests saw Canadian support of \$120,000 per successful program (for a total of close to \$3 million), rising to \$160,000 (close to \$4 million) (HRDC 1999) and now at \$200,000. This program is funded respectively by the three North American governments and also moves between 400 to 500 students annually.

Using HRDC funding, Ottawa recently explored an expansion of its support for regional mobility programming and studied the establishment of similar and parallel consortia-based exchange relationships with new regions including APEC, the Nordic countries, Central and Eastern Europe, and South America. These and the other

programs detailed above are largely examples of federal states or economic blocs and regions (Canada and the US in NAFTA, the EU, Scandinavia, MERCOSUR, APEC, the emerging economies of Central and Eastern Europe) using national or supra-national governance over trade, foreign policy and economic issues to support post-secondary mobility schemes outside of their normal jurisdictions.

Ottawa is not supporting mobility out of philanthropy. Its long-standing and growing domestic mobility programs are reinforcing a sometimes tenuous hold on the federation, instilling bilingualism and notions of both national pride and culture into a diverse and geographically-widespread population. Canada indicated its intention to join NAFTA in 1989 and joined soon thereafter. Within five years it had entered into its first large international mobility program, that within the NAFTA economic bloc.⁵ Canada's support for formal international mobility programs is directed towards the mobility of students to and from existing and potential trading blocs; both the volume of traffic and the expense of existing and proposed programs support this assertion. Current investment alone towards international mobility consortia projects totals over \$15 million (HRDC 1999), and with the likely addition of new programming in Scandinavia, Eastern and Central Europe, South America, Asia and the Pacific, annual federal expenditure on these initiatives is likely to quadruple in the short term. The Government of Canada further expends funds through programs offered through AUCC, DFAIT, CIDA, HRDC, and IDRC, such as ICCS, CSFP, OAS Fellowships, Government of Canada Awards, Foreign Government Awards, Commonwealth Scholarships, the Commonwealth of

⁵ Interestingly, Maastricht was signed in 1991, at approximately the same time as the NAFTA accord, and Canada entered into the EU-Canada mobility program approximately one year after it joined the North American mobility program.

Learning, and a number of bilateral awards such as the Canada-Taiwan Scholarship Program and the Canada-China Scholars Program. In Canada, higher education is a provincial responsibility; Ottawa's support for the activity is 'subject to certain safeguards' but this support is being greatly exercised in support of the central government's international political and economic agenda.

The European Experience

The European Union continues its east-ward expansion, with new member states buying wholesale into many previously-established protocols, treaties, and declarations surrounding education and training; while other facets of integration – such as some social policies, and certainly fiscal policies and agricultural subsidies for example – have been hotly debated and negotiated by incoming members, there has been widespread acceptance of education and training policies and in activities such as student mobility and the integration of higher education systems that work towards social cohesion within the new Europe. Founding and long-standing members of the EU as well as all new members have endorsed the Lisbon Strategy, which states that the European Union “must become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world capable of sustainable economic growth with more and better jobs and greater social cohesion” (European Council, Lisbon, March 2000). “To achieve this ambitious goal, Heads of States and Government asked for ‘not only a radical transformation of the European economy, but also a challenging program for the modernization of social welfare and education systems’. In 2002, they went on to say that by 2010, Europe should

be the world leader in terms of the quality of its education and training systems.”⁶

International mobility is a given and internationalization strategies are shared by members, endorsed by nation state governments and subsidized by Brussels. This despite a great diversity in the systems of governance between the nation states, and a great variety in terms of levels of government responsible for post-secondary education.

Rather than exhaustively compare the systems of all current members states, information which is easily accessible, for the purposes of this discussion it is sufficient to look at the federation upon its inception; its continued growth only highlight and supports the points here made. Each founding member had its own unique post-secondary education system. It is of interest that a central or national body oversees post-secondary education in nine of the original eleven EU countries, while that responsibility is governed by constituent parts of federations in only Belgium and Germany.⁷ Appendix 1 offers a glimpse at the different systems of post-secondary education governance by founding member states.

Before and even now after enlargement the EU has consisted of a series of nation states that mostly exert national control over post-secondary education, as well as bearing responsibility for funding, much in the same way that the provincial capitals in a federation like Canada have funding and legislative control over post-secondary education in the provinces. And much in the same way, Ottawa continues to increase the amount of funding it channels to the institutions, bypassing provincial capitals in the process.

⁶ http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/policies/2010/et_2010_en.html

⁷ Further study might be conducted on contrasting how these two countries -- as opposed to the other nine - deal with Brussels and the implementation of EU education programming.

Similarly, the bulk of investment the EU is expending on international student mobility is being spent ‘domestically’, an oxymoron that becomes logical in context. Europe is in the process of nation building, in the midst of the ‘Europeanization’ of the continent. The EU is an expanding group of independent nation states that is slowly ceding powers to a council in Brussels and a parliament in Strasbourg; new members buy into the central authority of Brussels and Strasbourg as a trade-off for access to the economic progress and strength of the community.

The ‘Europeanization’ of the continent is not a movement that diverges from or contra-indicates the globalization of the federation’s economies. The fact that the bulk of the money that Brussels spends on academic mobility programming is spent ‘domestically’ in no way counteracts the argument that Brussels – as well as Ottawa, and Washington – is supporting these programs as a means of jockeying for position in the new global economy, or as a reaction to globalization. In Europe’s bid to create an economic bloc that can compete with the United States, with NAFTA and with the emerging APEC, it has needed to harmonize a number of its policies and procedures; it has had to encourage lower subsidies to farmers, for example, in France and the countries with large agricultural production, and offer a disproportionately lower amount in agricultural subsidies to new entrants such as Poland; it has encouraged its constituent nation states to attack their often large domestic deficits and debts, and pointed to sometimes bloated domestic social programming as a means of doing so, in order to allow access to the EU’s monetary union. It is a long list of compromises that the EU constituent states have had to make in order to join the club.

On the academic side, Europe has created a number of programs and policies to support a 'Europe-literate' population. Since Maastricht and the EU's emergence as an economic bloc, it has radically increased its support for 'internal' or 'domestic' student mobility, with the realization that the EU as a global economic power needs a strong foundation at home; this foundation might be partially realized by ensuring that the next generation of European workers and leaders is more conversant with each other's cultures, languages and technologies. And so the EU has encouraged the mobility of students; but money alone (for both students and institutions) has been insufficient to facilitate the ambitious plans put forward; a number of procedures and long-standing practices have had to be modified within the constituent states in order to facilitate mobility. Through the Bologna Declaration⁸, Brussels has encouraged the harmonization of academic years and calendars throughout the EU. It has encouraged mobility through ease of credit transfer across borders and the modification of programming to accommodate student flows; for example, many European systems of education had nationalistic grounds for insisting that only their native language would be the language of instruction at their own post-secondary institutions, most notably England, France and Germany. But English has become the lingua franca of the new world economy; it is therefore no surprise that the United Kingdom is the largest net importer of mobile students in the EU; that is, England receives more students than it sends out. England is also the largest 'pure importer' of mobile students in the EU; that is, it takes in more students than any other country in the EU, despite being dwarfed by many other EU nation states in terms of overall and student populations (ERASMUS 2). In 1995 the

⁸ http://www.cepes.ro/information_services/sources/on_line/bologna.htm

United Kingdom was ranked second globally only to the United States in the size of its foreign student population, with a total of 197,188 foreign nationals studying in the UK. It had experienced an average annual growth rate in its foreign student population of 13.9% in each year over the previous ten years (UNESCO 1998: 58). Conversely, the United Kingdom lagged behind most other major EU economies in terms of the number of students that it exported, at a mere 1.3% (59). With the prodding of Brussels, other EU nation states have taken note: Germany is one of several countries undergoing modification of its higher education system and allowing the introduction of some courses taught in English; where once a foreign student could never hope to study in France without a high level of fluency in the language, most French universities are now catering to foreign student populations by offering even beginner's level studies in the French language as a transferable subject as well as some courses taught in English. These countries are modifying the content and the method of curriculum delivery in order to cater to the more mobile 'domestic' European population, as well as to make education in Europe more attractive to other students, especially from the South. Both dollars and influence are following the students. "Currently 2199 higher education institutions in 31 countries are participating in ERASMUS. Since the creation of ERASMUS in 1987, 1.2 million students have benefited of an ERASMUS study period abroad. The ERASMUS budget for the year 2004 is more than € 187.5 million." (European Commission, Socrates – Erasmus, 1)

It is clear that the EU's support of its 'domestic' mobility programs is in support of its emergence as an economic and political bloc. But as it gains momentum in

‘Europeanizing’ the continent it has also had to look outwards to its competitor blocs and form alliances there.

The EU’s support of ‘domestic’ mobility can be likened to Canada’s support of domestic mobility in a conceptual frame but less in a practical frame. Canada has enjoyed over one hundred years of nationhood in which to foster a sense of national identity; its support for domestic mobility today is a reinforcement rather than a creation of that nationhood. Not so in Europe; it has a history of over a thousand years of war, porous and changing borders, and both national and ethnic conflict; the creation of a federation from this disparate group of nations is an onerous task indeed; the federation’s support of ‘domestic’ EU mobility is essential as it attempts to instil tolerance and both linguistic and cultural affinity amongst the mobile students and academic practitioners and future business and government leaders of its member states.

The EU constituent nations are still autonomous nations states and have power over their own policies but Europe is a federation nonetheless. The EU is an experiment in nation building seemingly headed towards predominantly central control over economic, foreign and defence issues; its central authorities are exerting ever greater control over post-secondary education and both international and ‘domestic’ academic mobility; it is working towards the same ‘powerful centre’ position as is Canada but from a different direction, from the opposite end of this spectrum of federalism. In Europe, national governments and nation states have long had sole authority over post-secondary education and vocational training. In the EU’s drive towards domestic trans-national mobility, domestic borderless trade and migration, and European Cultural competence – the Europeanization of the continent – Brussels has used similar carrots and sticks as has

Canada to impose its agenda onto higher education. This has been done through programs supporting the mobility of students and scholars, abetted by schemes supporting internships, academic exchange and easy credit transfer; this towards the aim of a more mobile, multi-cultural and multi-lingual Euro workforce as a means of achieving its political and economic aims in the face of globalization. Brussels' supranational education programs and policies have caused nationalistic concern in some quarters but the monetary gain and support that follow these programs – in the context of static or dwindling domestic dollars in support of post-secondary education – have created a legion of followers and supporters and but few critics in the chattering classes of academe.

Brussels has done as much to influence the course of higher education in the EU. While national traditions and methods have generally been respected, and indeed encouraged, EU membership has increasingly seen nation states evolve their education systems towards a more harmonized whole in order to access programs funded and program funding from Brussels. In 1991 there were but fourteen days in the calendar year when universities in all EU member countries were in session at the same time. Academic years differed, as did starting dates, end dates and examination periods; some countries and some institutions used terms and some used full academic years. Concepts of assessment differed, as did the length and manner of internships, as did requirements for pre-requisites and contact hours and work loads. Universities in northern countries would only begrudgingly recognize academic credit and credentials granted from those on the Mediterranean. A decade makes a difference. Governments are now willingly revisiting their own educational practices and policies in order to harmonize with an

emerging EU norm. Complementary and concurrent semesters and terms are being introduced; a more uniform academic calendar is being considered. Concepts and practices of assessment and evaluation are being revisited, and credits are being transferred. The Bachelors / Masters dichotomy (“BAMA” as many call it) has become the norm

The Treaty of Rome excluded mention of education aside from the need for mutual recognition of diplomas and vocational training. It became obvious that greater cooperation would be needed between member states and in 1976 the Council of Ministers adopted an EC program that included:

- better mutual understanding of the different European educational systems
- the collection of basic documentary information and statistics
- co-operation in higher education
- the improvement of foreign language teaching
- the equality of opportunity of access to all forms of education throughout the Community (cited in Leonard, 185).

Today the EU alone is annually moving in excess of 300,000 students internally on its various organized domestic mobility, training and internship programs, from a figure of approximately 120,000 in 1993/94 (European Commission, Erasmus Statistics). EU statisticians differentiate organized mobility, or participation in formal programs, from what they call ‘spontaneous’ mobility, or students moving on their own; if we combine the two types of mobility, and count all ‘mobile’ students, in 1993/94, there were 184,000 students participating.

It can be argued that the EU's support of its domestic mobility programs is at once both a program in nation building as well as an attempt to create an economic union or bloc that can compete better on a global scale; the EU regularly compares its economy, its currency, its population and its gross domestic product to that of the United States as well as with NAFTA. It is therefore of great interest to detail the EU's domestic programs as well as its international programs (refer to Appendix 2), and in the domestic context to show both budgetary expenditure and approximate numbers of students moved.

On the international stage, the EU has further broadened its scope in terms of negotiating independent agreements with the United States and Canada to support mobility between member states in the EU and participating provinces or states respectively in Canada or the United States.⁹ That with Canada was detailed earlier. It began in 1995 and saw complementary levels of support from both federations towards the support of student mobility. The EU-United States Cooperation Program began with an exploratory phase of 23 projects in 1993/94. This was followed in 1995, simultaneous with the sister program in Canada, of the EC-US Cooperation Agreement and an even more ambitious program of consortia-based student exchange combined with a re-invigorated US-EU Fulbright program. Total American investment in these schemes for 1996 and 1997 was over \$3.5 million USD, with counterpart EU funding of over Euro 2.75 million.

⁹ The EU has also negotiated other and separate mobility agreements including those with China and countries in Eastern and Central Europe, the details of which are not relevant here, but the fact of which is of importance as the EU presents a unified and central face to the world in support of international student mobility.

Total EU investment in its mobility schemes – both its international consortia arrangements and its ‘domestic’ European programs – totals in the hundreds of millions of Euro. Additionally the EU is also encouraging its constituent nation states to relax intra-European migration and border controls and working permits to better facilitate the flow of workers and students. It is encouraging structural change in education systems and pushing the implementation of new policies and practices that will facilitate mobility; one such practice involves the transfer of university credits.

Credit Transfer

An issue key to the mobility of students across the globe -- and it can be argued also a by-product of the massification of higher education – is that of credit transfer. University credit systems were first introduced at Harvard in 1886, as Harvard allowed students to take some few elective courses instead of a completely prescribed curriculum. The system was seen as a means of ensuring that students accumulated the appropriate number and type of course credits towards fulfilling their degree requirements; it was quickly adopted for use widely in the United States. The credit system was proselytised with the American education system and even those jurisdictions that evolved their own or adopted other education systems found much desirable in the credit system; credit accumulation is now the international norm towards fulfilling degree requirements. Early models were largely inter-institutional systems, however, and evolved slowly to accommodate inter-national or domestic transfer and exchange. What has evolved since are mass credit transfer schemes which encourage the portability of credits between both countries and institutions; they also allow for the introduction of new learning and teaching strategies because of new technologies and programs (e.g., virtual classrooms, distance education, internships) and the less homogenous nature of the student body (e.g.,

part-time students, less-qualified students from, for example, affirmative action programs, diverse qualification entrance programs, mature and returning students). The international exchange of credit is a reasonably new phenomenon, however, and nowhere has it been attempted on such a grand scale as in Europe since Maastricht.

More than many of Brussels' schemes, the European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) has addressed concerns of credential portability within the EU, and indeed even North America is paying attention to the ECTS and adapting it for use with its exchanges domestically, with EU partners and in its own trilateral North American programs, under the rubric RAMP (Regional Academic Mobility Program). The UCTS (University Credit Transfer System) is evolving in Asia under the guidance of UMAP ([University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific], a consortium of countries from East and Southeast Asia and including Australia and New Zealand) using similar guidelines as have been defined under ECTS.

ECTS was formally adopted by the EU in 1989 and is "based on the assumption that full academic recognition of achievements abroad is an important condition for student mobility, making it a much more attractive option" (ECTS 5). It essentially dictates that, for students to be able to carry credits to their home institutions, there must be some comparability in terms of workload, assessment and period of study between host and home institution, "even if the structure of the course programs differ somewhat in content" (5). The ECTS arose from needs expressed in the early years of ERASMUS when it was realized that a major impediment to promoting mobility within the union was the recognition, or lack thereof, of foreign-gained credentials both by academe and by the labour market the schools fed into. These credits could now be transferred to the

students' home institutions, and academic transcripts and the credits appear as a part of their required degree requirements at home. While this had been generally done on a domestic or national basis before 1989, ECTS turned the practice into a federation requirement.

The Bologna Declaration is a Joint Declaration of the European Ministers of Education governing the European Higher Education Area. It was signed in 1999 by more than 30 countries in Europe, including 15 existing EU members, 13 who were on the waiting list, and others including Switzerland, which is now participating in the mobility schemes as a non-EU member. Amongst other policy initiatives, it broadly expanded the catchment area of ECTS (to include all countries signatory to Bologna) as well as the scope of ECTS, turning it from a limited transfer credit scheme into the genesis of a Europe-wide credit accumulation and transfer scheme. This evolution is more profound than it might first appear. A simple credit transfer scheme such as ECTS will allow a student to transfer to his home university credits earned elsewhere, with normally a generous allowance for differences in course content and evaluation. Regardless, the student still has a home university that will accumulate his credits regardless from whence they hail, be they from home or ECTS credits from a host university. The newly proposed credit accumulation and transfer system (known by the acronym CATS) "has the advantages of intra-institutional credit accumulation and inter-institutional credit transfer, resulting for the student in enormous possibilities" (Dalichow 7). Borders between countries and boundaries between institutions would be slowly dismantled if neither institution nor geography dictated where or how a student got his or her degree.

Bologna set out goals including the further erosion of obstacles to European academic mobility and the embrace of various types (academic, professional and vocational) and modes (part-time, full-time and distance) of learning. It is being implemented, and the plans for credit accumulation are raising fundamental questions of institutional residency requirements, which is presently how a university decides which student is its student and which student is someone else's, and to whom it should be granting degrees. Bologna is creating a common framework inside which every degree should have a concrete and understandable meaning, or a system allowing for readability and comparability of degrees; it is establishing a system of credits (such as ECTS) as an instrument of accumulation, recognition and transfer. Under an evolved ECTS, or CATS, "all learning, wherever it takes place (providing it can be assessed), could have credit values attached to it" (Adam 9).¹⁰

The ramifications of Bologna, however, are even more far-reaching. The document is neither a European directive nor a conventional international agreement, but rather a common commitment to the principle of the 'Europeanization' of higher education through the increased cooperation of institutions. While supporting institutional autonomy and allowing that education and educational cooperation are essential conditions for the development of democratic societies, it strongly espouses a common framework among the different systems of higher education and the creation of a 'European Area' or a 'European System of Higher Education' depending upon one's interpretation of the text and statements such as the need to "promote the European

¹⁰ Interestingly, attacks on the concept of residency requirement are also being mounted with the advent of on-line and distance education and the growing irrelevance of geography to where and how a student learns.

system of education world-wide" (EAIE 1999: unpaginated). A centrist approach would be required to harmonise the EU into a European System of Higher Education and as such the fact that Bologna may point to "a political/economic, rather than an educational, set of objectives," concerns the European Association for International Education (EAIE). "The EAIE wonders whether, in fact, the wording of the Declaration at this point refers to a belief that comparability, not homogeneity, should be the aim; and that the guiding principles should be those of pluralism coupled with transparency" (unpaginated). In short, the EAIE is concerned that the 'homogenization' of European education is part of Brussels' agenda; that in education, as in economics, as in monetary policy, as in foreign and defence policy, as in taxation, Brussels and Strasbourg continue to set the agenda; the constituent nation states and interests react to protect dwindling influence in exchange for the promises and benefits of greater integration and access to the economic benefits promised by globalization and wider access to greater markets.

Discussion

The last twenty-five years have seen a radical shift towards greater involvement of federal systems in higher education. Globalization is shaping how these federal systems are refining or re-defining educational policy; it is a major factor in why and how they are investing in educational practice and programming. It is the strongest influence in the current reconvergent phase of higher education, a phase 'characterized by a return to universalism.' Since the end of the Cold War we have witnessed increased mobility programming being used to buttress domestic stability in Canada on an ongoing basis. We have seen new and massive mobility programming used to invent and reinforce the European federation both culturally and economically, or rather to support the

Europeanization of the continent. As importantly, we have witnessed new and unprecedented international student mobility programming supported by federal states and economic blocs as they jockey for position in the new and competitive global market.

This education of the population can be best achieved through the education of those already in the post-secondary system, the next wave of the work force. As such we can argue that globalization is causal rather than incidental to the emergence of international regional academic mobility schemes. Before NAFTA, the EU and APEC emerged as economic blocs there were no such large-scale mobility programs in existence. There are today – in Europe and in North America – and the major programs in existence came directly upon the heels of NAFTA and Maastricht. APEC, MERCOSUR and both Central and Eastern Europe are the next players in the game. It is their participation in these newly-formed large-scale economic blocs that has prompted the federations of Canada and Europe to support the international mobility of ‘their’ students with ‘ours’.

Federal support for mobility programming is rarely expressed in such stark terminology. Rather the government and the university support the ‘internationalization’ of the campus and of the workforce; they are partnered in preparing graduates for the new global economy and in supporting the fashionable ideal of a globally-literate population, in supporting the ‘Europeanization’ of that continent or the ‘North Americanization’ of this. This new ‘universalism’ is expressed on today’s campus as support for internationalization, a worthy cause but one that few can readily define. Globalization and internationalization are often used as synonyms:

Internationalization means different things to different people. With the growing interest in and use of the term, the variety of interpretations and meanings have increased. Internationalization in the context of higher education is often used interchangeably with the term globalization and is also used as a synonym for international, global, intercultural and multicultural education. (Knight 3)

But globalization and internationalization are not synonymous; they are fundamentally different but integrally linked concepts, yet both influence the stance taken by federal systems in their attempts to globalize their economies and work forces. It is important to differentiate the influences at play and define the terminology used; an understanding of globalization is crucial to an understanding of a state's rationale for supporting mobility and pursuing the international learning outcomes it is funding.

Chapter 3: The Context of Global Trends

Many shall run to and fro, and knowledge shall be increased.

The Book of Daniel 12:4

Globalization, Massification and Internationalization

The internationalization of post-secondary institutions is at once both a nostalgic attempt to reconnect with the lost and utopian ideal of a global community of scholars and a shared universality of knowledge, as well as a forward-looking attempt to diminish the barriers imposed by borders, cultures, language and intolerance. But the university, while fundamentally influenced by the international mobility of scholars, students and knowledge, has not always been the universal and international institution it perceives itself. In Kerr's divergent state, when the modern university essentially came into being, the university was a product and tool of the nation state.

From the very start the University is defined as an international institution. However, we must be careful not to accept this internationalist rhetoric at face value. The contemporary University is the creature of the nation state, not of medieval civilization. It was during the early modern period, between the Renaissance and the coming of the Industrial Revolution, that the University took on many of its present functions: servicing the professional needs and ideological requirements of the new nation states of Europe and, later, of the world. It was in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries that the University acquired its identification with science and technology. And it was even more recently, in the years after 1945 and (most decisively) 1960, that the University came to be embraced within a wider democratic movement aimed at expanding educational opportunity. The modern University, therefore, is a national and novel institution. Three-quarters of the extant universities – even of universities in Europe, its ancient heartland – have been established since 1900; half since 1945. (Scott 2000: 5)

Borders were needed before universities could ever consider ‘internationalization’, as ‘international’ presupposes otherness and borders. Before borders existed there were none to cross.

With the widespread presupposition from within universities that they are already universal and international institutions, government support towards international student mobility programming has been warmly embraced and little questioned. The state supports the ‘internationalization’ of the campus and of the workforce; state and campus are partnered in preparing graduates for the new global economy and in supporting the fashionable ideal of a globally-literate population.

While never expressed in such stark terminology, the reality may be that governments have been selling globalization while institutions have been buying internationalization. Almost universally, those governments that have been able to support formal mobility programming have been supporting mobility between trading blocs.

Globalization and internationalization are not synonymous; they are fundamentally different but integrally linked concepts, yet both influence the stance taken by governments in their attempts to globalize their economies and work forces. It is important to differentiate the influences at play and define the terminology used; an understanding of globalization is crucial to an understanding of internationalization and government support for student mobility.

Globalization

“The society that mankind will inhabit in the 21st century is being shaped by new and powerful forces that include the globalization of economic activity, [and] the growing importance of knowledge as a prerequisite for participation in fundamental human activities.” (UNESCO 1997: 7)

While many attempt less benign definitions, globalization is essentially an integration of the world’s economies. It is necessary to see it as a working definition and to discuss it in detail in order to understand its impact; of relevance in the current discussion is its influence on the mobility of students and labour, and its part in supplying the rationale of the state in supporting both. It is to be true, however, a term more used than understood; the rapid rise and increasingly profound ripple effects of globalization are recent phenomena and cited as the source of much good or much evil, depending upon the source: “globalization is the difference between South Korea and North Korea, between Malaysia and Myanmar, even (switching time span) between Europe and Africa. It is in fact the difference between North and South.” (“The Case for Globalisation” 5)

This process we now view as globalization is a phenomenon that has been taking place for five centuries starting under European colonialism, but its rapid rise and profound impact are truly a post-Cold War phenomenon. Organized capitalism – as exemplified in Europe and North America from roughly 1900 to the late 1970’s – was characterized by its governments’ beliefs that “most economic and social problems or risks were thought to be produced by and soluble at the level of the individual society. National societies were based upon a concept of the citizen who owed duties to and

received rights from their society through the core institutions of the nation-state” (Ury 4).

But a number of factors have introduced a new age of ‘borderlessness’ that has moved much capital, industry and population “partially beyond the control of effective state regulation” (Mittelman 16). Thus much traditional power of the central state has been rendered meaningless, and aspects of globalization “clearly disrupt a variety of nationally organized structures and programs” (Ury 5). There is a “greatly reduced capacity of nations to control economic sectors and events within their borders” (LeBlanc 4). Productivity has increased hand-in-hand with a decrease in the need for employees. Real wages are static. Multinationals and the new global capitalist empires (e.g., Microsoft, Coca-Cola, General Motors, Nike) have moved production to where it is most beneficial to capital and have thus eroded the tax base of individual nation states; capital is now so liquid and moves so freely that it is difficult for governments to find it, let alone tax it. Nation states are thus forced to struggle with deficits and diminished discretionary spending, in turn forcing a general decline in their support for social programs as they pass more of the burden of paying for education on to their constituents, the provinces, the institutions and the students themselves.

Federal governments then use their dwindling resources to support those activities in the education sphere which will deliver the most return in terms of a labour force committed to playing in the new global economy. So while the constituent nation states in the EU or provinces in Canada continue to meet their previous and traditional commitments, the ‘traditional’ non-jurisdictional avenues for federal support of post-secondary education in a federation like Canada are disappearing due to the elimination

or claw-back of transfer payments and ongoing decentralization; at the same time, new avenues are opening up, and they point outwards to the global economy.

National policy makers in advanced industrialized countries are moving discretionary research and training moneys into programs focused on the production aspects of higher education, programs that complement areas of innovation in multinational corporations, and are reducing moneys that are targeted for programs for education and social welfare functions of the state. In other words, [...] policy makers at the level of the nation state [...] are concentrating state moneys on higher education units that aid in managing or enhancing economic innovation and thereby, competitiveness. (Slaughter 14)

In a 1998 speech, then-Canadian Finance Minister Paul Martin stated that “it is time for governments to turn their attention from making globalization happen to making it work” (cited in CBIE 1). Increasing federal support for international mobility programming is seen as a plank in the platform of remaining a player in a larger world economy in flux. As such, understanding globalization is crucial to an understanding of a state’s rationale for supporting international mobility and is key to understanding recent political economy in general. “Globalization cannot be reduced to the impact of round-the-clock round-the-globe financial markets, of leading edge information technologies, of integrated world markets” (Scott 1998: 122). The profound impact of globalization is a post Cold-War phenomenon, a process and not yet an outcome but one that is helping to erode the traditional power of the nation state, one where capital, goods and labour move more and more freely across borders. A number of factors are supporting this move towards ‘borderlessness’; these include record post cold-war economic growth; the creation and power of trans- and supra-national trade blocs; the rise and influence of global media; the demise of physical or territorial threat for most nation states; relative world peace aiding an increased flow of services and goods, including oil; global flows of

capital, production and distribution, information and populations; the creation of powerful multinational empires; all aided by a stunning growth in technology which have compressed “the time and space aspects of social relations. [Globalization] encompasses contradictory trends such as cross-border flows of undocumented workers and modern communications with instantaneous speed, [...] and is partially beyond the control of effective state regulation” (Mittelman 16).

Some take the argument even further and argue that globalization is in fact a direct threat to democratic governments and open societies. “In ‘The Philosophy of History’, Hegel discerned a disturbing historical pattern – the crack and fall of civilizations owing to a morbid intensification of their own first principles. What kind of society do we want? ‘Let the free market decide!’ is the often-heard response” (Soros 1). But what does the market want? Manifestations of globalization

include the spatial reorganization of production, the interpenetration of industries across borders, the spread of financial markets, the diffusion of identical consumer goods to distant countries, massive transfers of population [...], resultant conflicts between immigrant and established communities in formerly tight-knit neighbourhoods, and an emerging world-wide preference for democracy. [...] the concept of globalization interrelates multiple levels of analysis: economics, politics, culture and ideology. [...] in short, globalization is a market-induced, not a policy-led, process. (Mittelman 2-3)

Paraphrasing French economic historian Fernand Braudel, Mittelman states that “the world economy is not the ontology of world society but those entities, individual and corporate, that interact with and thus create patterns that may be called global structures” (6). Globalization requires interaction and this interaction is increasingly taking place amongst and between loose spatial units larger than the state but with some cultural and

political bonds, such as found in the macro regions of NAFTA, both the historical and the enlarged EU, as well as ASEAN and MERCOSUR. Multilateral mobility and regional co-operation programs have also been sponsored by other interests such as the Asia Pacific Economic Community (APEC), the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD), UNESCO, the Commonwealth Secretariat, the Organization of African Unity (OAU), the Amazonian Pact and MERCOSUR in South America, the Organization of American States (OAS), and the Ministerial Conference of French-speaking countries (through AUPELF / UREF).

State support for mobility programming can be seen as manoeuvring for position within the global division of labour. If we accept Kerr's thesis that we are now in a reconvergent phase in the history of education, we must also appreciate that we are witnessing heretofore unknown levels of diversity and disparity across the planet in terms of access, focus and quality in higher education. In a 1997 speech, then Canadian Prime Minister Jean Chretien stated that "Canadian students are not only competing with students at the next desk; they are competing with students at desks around the world" (cited in CBIE 3). Globalization is making more complex previous divisions between 'haves' and 'have-nots' by introducing new divisions between 'knows' and 'know-nots'. "The social centre of gravity has shifted to the knowledge worker. Knowledge has become the real capital of a developed economy" (Drucker 173).

As such, developed economies are expending more energy and wealth to enhance their competitiveness. In the Canadian context, Ottawa is becoming increasingly active in supporting the federation's global competitiveness. Over 40% of the country's GDP, and over one-third of the country's jobs, depend upon exports; its knowledge-industry

trade gaps are worsening, and the amount of per capita federal investment in international education initiatives has been among the lowest of competitor OECD countries. Ottawa is beginning to pay attention and attempting to redress these concerns; it is not alone. The enlargement of the European Union, the creation of the Euro Zone, and the emergence of a pan-European labour force fly in the face of static population growth and aging populations throughout the EU (as in Canada) and an anticipated decline in the number of university-age students in the next decades unless immigration is greatly increased. One study suggests that in 50 years time, the EU will have “too few working-age Europeans to support the continent’s greying population” (“Fewer and Wrinklier Europeans” 52). The nation-building exercise currently underway, palatably referred to as enlargement and the ‘Europeanization’ of the continent – arguably itself a product of globalization – has given Brussels both the mission and the might to influence post-secondary education and to encourage both a more European and a more global work force.

The apparent subjection of even advanced capitalist social formations in recent decades to the competitive logics and exigencies of world-wide production, trade, and finance has meant that the nature of state intervention has changed considerably but not that the role of the state has necessarily diminished. Far from witnessing a bypassing of the state by a global capitalism, we see very active states and highly politicized set of capitalist classes working to secure a ‘new constitutionalism for disciplinary neo-liberalism’. Capitalist globalization also takes place in, through, and under the aegis of states; it is encoded by them and in important aspects even authored by them; and it involves a shift in power relations within states that often means the centralization and concentration of state powers as the necessary condition of and accompaniment to global market disciplines. (Panitch 85-86)

Panitch cites Political Economist Robin Murray who described the establishment of “the territorial dialectics of capitalism” towards developing a “framework which would allow a more substantial approach to the problem of the effects of an

internationalization of capital on existing political institutions.” Murray demonstrated that as

capital expanded territory one of the key problems it had to confront was how to ensure that state economic functions continued to be performed. At issue was the structural role of the capitalist state in relation to ‘what may most aptly be called economic *res publica*, those economic matters which are public, external to individual private capitals.’ This included guaranteeing property and contract, standardizing currency, weights and measure; ensuring the availability of key inputs of labour, land, finance, technology and infrastructure; generally orchestrating macroeconomics; regulating conditions of work, consumption and external diseconomies such as pollution; and providing ideological, educational, and communications conditions of production and trade (86).

While government revenue sources disappear across borders or diminish in the domestic setting, and state support for social responsibilities such as post-secondary education declines, institutions are encouraged to seek additional funding from other non-traditional sources, such as in the introduction or rise of tuition fees, the export of education and full-cost-recovery-plus tuition rates charged to international students; and additionally through corporate relationships, sponsorships and directed contract research. In order to sustain the traditional mandate of the university – teaching, research and community service – and in order to qualify for ongoing federal research funding, a fourth mandate may need to be added. In 1998 the Advisory Council on Science and Technology in Canada created the Expert Panel on the Commercialization of University Research. Its policy paper Public Investments in University Research: Reaping the Benefits recommends the addition of ‘innovation’ as a fourth university mandate, defined by the Council as “the process of bringing new goods and services to market, or the result

of that process”¹¹. The Expert Panel recommends that universities “provide incentives to encourage their faculty, staff and students to engage in research to create innovative products” and that “researchers who do not comply will be denied access to future federal research funding”¹².

Governments use dwindling resources to support those activities in the education sphere which will deliver the most return in terms of economic growth and a labour force committed to playing in the new global economy. So while nation states – such as Canada or those in the EU – or their constituents – such as the provinces in Canada or the Länder in Germany – continue to meet their previous and traditional commitments, the ‘traditional’ non-jurisdictional avenues for federal support of post-secondary education in a federation like Canada are disappearing due to claw-backs of transfer payments and ongoing decentralization; this is happening simultaneously as new avenues are opening up, and these point outwards to the global economy.

National policy makers in advanced industrialized countries are moving discretionary research and training monies into programs focused on the production aspects of higher education, programs that complement areas of innovation in multinational corporations, and are reducing monies that are targeted for programs for education and the social welfare functions of the state. “In other words, [...] policy makers at the level of the nation state are concentrating state moneys on higher education units that aid in managing or enhancing economic innovation and thereby, competitiveness.” (Slaughter 14)

¹¹ Unpaginated.

¹² Unpaginated.

Plato argued that it is the role of the State to educate its citizenry; his dictum that the State should educate each individual 'for the place and work to which he is best fitted', and Aristotle's supportive assertion that the State should educate its citizenry to play their parts in society, mesh seamlessly with the increasing role of the governments in encouraging and supporting mobility in this new global context. International academic mobility predates the university. It is only since the end of World War II, however, that nation states and governments have actively supported mobility through early programs such as the Fulbright Scholarship. These programs were devised to help post-war economies reconstruct and to encourage the intercourse of citizens and cultures. Their underlying premise was that better knowledge of and between countries and cultures, and increased trade, would never allow a repeat of the horrors of previous wars. It is only the more recent state-funded programs that link constituencies within federal systems (Canadian provinces and both U.S. and Mexican states, for example) with partner constituencies in the same trading bloc (NAFTA) or with other trading blocs (EU).

The developed economies have both reacted to and encouraged globalization by forming trading blocs such as NAFTA, MERCOSUR, APEC and the EU in order to jockey for position and capitalize on the new knowledge-based economic world order. They trade more than goods within and between these blocs. Never before have governments and trading blocs embarked upon such massive programming encouraging the international exchange of post-secondary students, in support of their need for both technologically-literate and globally-literate graduates to trade and engage in the new global economy.

Globalization is influencing government support for education and international mobility programming in both policy and practice as it follows capital, goods and labour across borders. An international academic experience is a valuable experience but one that is in danger of becoming a commodity available to more and more participants in fewer and fewer jurisdictions. A post-secondary education has never been more accessible than it is today to the populations of western democracies and organized trading blocs; it is becoming less accessible to those in the developing world who cannot afford to pay market price for the commodity, and philanthropic state support channelled through scholarships and targeted bursaries from the advanced economies is diminishing globally. Never before has an international academic experience been as available as it is today to a student of higher education in one of the pre-eminent economic blocs. And never before has a university degree meant as little as a ticket to mere inclusion in the work force.

The international trade and political agendas of Washington, Brussels and Ottawa can be partially accommodated by supporting massive programming in international academic mobility between select countries and trading blocs. In the face of otherwise dwindling regional funding, the universities themselves do not ignore federal support for activities, as support for such student-based activities seldom presents itself. It is not a bother that these programs support only North – North dialogue and exchange, between economic powerhouses; rather, the institutions perceive this funded facet of the international exchange of students to be compatible with, supporting of and fundamental to the internationalization of the campus; this exchange supports a recovery of the lost

ideal of a true university without borders, of an international intellectual community that knows no boundaries.

Contra-indicting such a stance is the oft-heard lament from universities and institutions of higher learning that education “must be seen not just as a means to a prosperous society but as an end as well. That is to say, just as we need education for economic success, so we need economic success for more and better education, for it is the latter as much as the former which constitutes quality of life.” (LeBlanc 68) This refrain is lost, however, in the march towards global competitiveness; it is lost in the predilection of federal bodies to direct decreasing discretionary spending towards North – North international mobility programs in support of a globalized work force.

The last two decades have seen a radical shift towards greater and extra-jurisdictional involvement of federal governments in higher education. Globalization is shaping how these political systems are refining and redefining educational policy; it is a major factor in why and how they are investing in educational practice and programming. It is the strongest influence in the current reconvergent phase of higher education and its ‘return to universalism.’ Since the end of the Cold War we have witnessed increased mobility programming being used to buttress domestic stability in Canada. We have seen new and massive mobility programming used to invent and reinforce the European federation both culturally and economically, in order to support the Europeanization of the continent. As important, we have witnessed funding and policy support for new and unprecedented international student mobility schemes by, between and amongst economic blocs and federal systems as they jockey for position in the increasingly competitive global market.

Before NAFTA and Maastricht the world knew only nation-based mobility programs, supported by central governments and with most operating on a strictly bilateral basis; most ostensibly supported noble academic or developmental pursuits such as technology transfer, language and cultural studies, regional or national studies, and the pursuit of both academic progress and academic co-operation. The end of the Cold War saw the rise of the phenomenon soon to be described as globalization, one ushered in by relative world peace, a constant energy supply and a vertical spike in the growth of technology combining into an age where borders become less relevant to the flow of information, capital and workers, thus contributing to the formation of economic rather than geopolitical blocs and further contributing to the ebbing importance of the nation state as a geopolitical entity.¹³

Globalization thus becomes a force where economic progress is paramount and actors enter alliances in order to achieve or maintain an elevated position in the global pecking order. One means to do that is to ensure that your population is conversant with the languages, cultures, practices and technologies of competing blocs. A retooling of the active work force is problematic, so the education of the population can be best achieved through the education of the next wave of the work force, specifically those in the post-secondary system. As such we can argue that globalization is causal rather than incidental to the emergence of these international regional academic mobility schemes. Before NAFTA, the EU and APEC emerged as economic blocs there were no such large-scale mobility programs in existence. There are today and three of the major programs in existence came directly upon the heels of NAFTA and Maastricht. Central and Eastern

¹³ A fascinating perspective on the likely demise of the nation State can be found in travel writer/philosopher Robert Kaplan's book The Ends of the Earth.

European states are recent players in the 'domestic' EU schemes such as SOCRATES and after the 2004 enlargement are now able to participate in the EU - Canada and EU - United States schemes as well. APEC and MERCOSUR are the next players in the game, and should the Americas be able to bury their differences and align their economies and trade through the proposed FTAA (Free Trade Agreement of the Americas) it is a given that there will be new and immediate hemispheric American mobility schemes added to the list. It is participation in these newly-formed large-scale economic blocs that prompts federations and states to support the bilateral and multilateral mobility of 'their' students with 'ours'. It is the support of these schemes that encourages a closer look at the results the state hopes to achieve, at the international learning outcomes they are funding.

Education is a means to take advantage of market opportunities, both for individuals and for governments; it is a state's public that comprises its labour force and its taxpayers. Governments, unions, labour and business argue for greater integration between the needs of the market and the substance, content and curricula of post-secondary and vocational training. Education feeds the labour market; the need for job skills is based upon anticipated labour market trends, even though the rapid expansion of technology and other facets of globalization have rendered an immediate connection between curriculum and job-preparedness for the market a fiction.¹⁴ Nonetheless, state support for the activity exists and it is there for a reason.

¹⁴ Interestingly, it is education which has encouraged technological growth and an increase in trade, which have in turn given rise to the phenomenon of globalization, yet it is education which now falls under the sway and great influence of globalization.

The need for colleges and universities to prepare students with competencies appropriate for the 21st century has become increasingly clear and urgent. [. . .] everyone needs the abilities that will ensure 'effective and appropriate' interactions for dealing with people from other cultures. This is as true for dealing across ethnic groups within the same country as it is for interacting across national boundaries. (Fantini *et al* III)

It is increasingly apparent that there is also the need to engage in a nation-building exercise in support of tolerance and sensitivity towards unprecedented numbers of immigrants to the developed economies.

We now realize that issues of intercultural understanding are embedded in other complex questions: What kind of communication is needed by a pluralistic society to be both culturally diverse and unified in common goals? How does communication contribute to making a climate of respect, not just diversity? (Bennett 1)

The more complex that a society becomes, the more there is to learn, and the more there is to learn across borders, cultures and economies. The more pluralistic the society, the more there is to learn of tolerance and other cultures. The more advanced the economy, the more its government attempts to create a more educated and mobile population, and to make its population more conversant with the cultures, languages and potential trade opportunities of other equally advanced economies and economic blocs. And the state is dealing with ever growing populations with ever increasing aspirations and expectations of access.

Massification

A trend concurrent with the acceleration of globalization and its impact on higher education has been coined the ‘massification’ of higher education¹⁵, a response to baby boom demographics that has involved higher education in the West. A symptom of massification is that education is espoused for all rather than for the few. Once viewed as the purview of the elite, higher education evolved in the West towards greater access for the masses in the 1960’s, concurrent with the demographic echo of the post-war baby boom, spawning a global phenomenon trends towards the creation and growth of universities during the 1960’s. Broader access to post-secondary education, and the revision and introduction of curricula to better address local economic needs and forecasts, was an attempt to build better connections between local economies and the upward aspirations of their growing populations. The reliance of public education on the public purse has only reinforced these shifts. While in former times universities might have been described as ‘elite’ or even ‘exclusionary’, today it is argued that they are for everyone and that ‘education is a right.’ This shift has largely eroded the old linkages between elite occupations and university education; it is true that still only universities can produce doctors or lawyers but many “graduates in mass systems will not occupy such privileged and prestigious roles in the labour market. Instead they fill the ranks of middle management and staff the still swelling public bureaucracies” (Scott 1998: 113). Recent trends towards massification can be seen in the evolution of British and Australian polytechnics into full-fledged universities, or of German fachhochschulen and Dutch higher professional schools into broader-appeal and more research-intensive

¹⁵ or as modern higher education has been called by some proponents of the concept of massification: “lower education.”

institutions; closer to home, colleges in British Columbia are rapidly becoming university colleges, and existing university colleges are becoming full-fledged universities. And as the public purse is unable to cope with this rapid expansion, the line between public and private education is becoming further blurred where it still exists.

Globalization has introduced mechanisms that are not neutral but are “set up to co-ordinate the world economy; they contain a powerful bias in favour of global competition and corporate enterprise” (“Squeezing the South” 5). Globalization is epitomized by massive migrations of unskilled and undocumented workers and the movement of production to cheaper labour centres, while in developed economies employers complain of not being able to fill specialized jobs or those requiring advanced training. Economies are engaged in an arms race for talent and are seeking not only the top stars, but also the foot soldiers, that is for the bulk of the high-technology workforce. This feeds directly into the increased predilection of governments towards the massification of education, and both training and education.

As universities have grown in size and number they can no longer be managed by an academic elite and have evolved a professional managerial class. Their student bodies now encompass a variety of academic abilities and achievement, age groups and interests. Students are consumers, they are called clients, they are increasingly demanding, and those among them who are accomplished students are a coveted commodity to be pursued and recruited. This has contributed to a broadening of curriculum and a standardization of core or required content across all or most disciplines, “generally organized round ideas of vocational relevance rather than cognitive affinity” (Scott 1998: 115). Technology and business programs grow and flourish while traditional liberal arts

programs and languages languish. Systematic national quality assessments have been introduced, as have mass credit transfer schemes to allow for the introduction of new learning and teaching strategies because of new technologies and the less coherent nature of the student body. The trend is towards a production line model of higher education; it has been called the ‘industrialization’ of higher education and the massification of post-secondary education is justified by the evolving requirements of the economy as much as by demographics.

In its influence on post-secondary education, globalization is integrally linked to massification in that both have introduced a debate pitting advocates of education as training against advocates of education as intellectual development. Some argue that due to information technology, the “intellectual nature of work is changing and learning is the new form of labour” (Ashlee 57). It is not unique to British Columbia that states and institutions are increasing access capacity for business, technology and computer science students; university computer science programs cannot keep pace with demand for skilled graduates resulting in a serious shortfall for the informational technology industry. The massification of higher education walks hand in hand with North – North international mobility schemes in turning a larger and never-before-as-well-educated population into soldiers for the global economy.

This new global economic reality is exemplified by an ever greater need for a skilled work force; it can be seen in the growing mobility of scholars and of both skilled and unskilled workers, in instantaneous international communications and media, and in increased borderlessness. And in academe, these massive migrations and the perception of a global community or global village have encouraged the renaissance of a utopian

ideal: a global community of scholars, one in which learning knows no borders, and one in which there is a universality of knowledge that will help to dismantle prejudice, ignorance and intolerance; in short, the internationalization of the campus as a first step to the internationalization of society. But internationalization and globalization are not the same, and their use as synonyms muddies salient points of understanding for international education practitioners and non-practitioners alike.

Internationalization

Globalization and massification are only the most recent trends to have a huge impact on the ability of the state to support and direct education. As nation states find it harder to find and therefore tax capital, their ongoing ability to support large scale social activities such as education is diminished, yet their need to direct the activity increases; the universities are provided with a dynamic tension of becoming more entrepreneurial while continuing to embrace their traditional mandates and be responsible to their traditional constituents. Their response to such pressures has been to try to internationalize, rather than globalize. Internationalization is the academic response to globalization.

The internationalization of post-secondary institutions is at once both a nostalgic attempt to reconnect with the lost and utopian ideal of a global community of scholars and a shared universality of knowledge as well as a forward-looking attempt to diminish the barriers imposed by borders, cultures, language and intolerance.

Like globalization, internationalization is a term more used than defined; it has evolving definitions that accommodate the needs or goals of those who attest to pursue it.

Standard among these see internationalization as a “process that prepares the community for successful participation in an increasingly interdependent world” (Francis 1993) or the process of “integrating the international dimensions into the teaching, research and service functions of an institution of higher education” (Knight 1994: 3).

In essence, practitioners would like to imbue with an international flavour every aspect of campus life, from curriculum to the cafeteria, in a bid to promote ‘warmer’ goals than those purely mercenary goals espoused by the market place. We will see shortly that there are lists of international activities that might be pursued to help accomplish these campus goals; one of these activities has been to recruit full degree full fee-paying students from other countries; they pay full fees to keep the bursars happy and they hail from abroad to contribute to the internationalization of the campus; another activity for the institution has been to send its own students away on mobility programs such as exchanges. The 1990’s saw a proliferation of state-funded mobility programs as the large formal trading blocs encouraged the mobility of students from select disciplines internally and between blocs, always in a North-North direction; in many instances these generously-funded consortium programs became the fundamental student mobility programs and as such a major plank in an institution’s international strategy.

Two issues became of concern, however, to some practitioners. The first was that all of the state-funded programs were uniquely in a North-North direction. Unfortunately, exchanging commerce and technology students with trading partners and economic blocs as an excuse for student mobility is not an activity that should fit comfortably into any definition of internationalization. It could be a part of a strategy, but it is not a strategy.

The second issue was that of disciplinary focus. Funding authorities for these programs had overt preferences towards supporting proposals in disciplines such as engineering, computing and business. These were the major areas of focus, even though there were just as certainly other employment, volunteer and study opportunities available in disciplines such as development, in North-South trade and issues, in environmental studies, in diplomacy and peace keeping, in women's issues, in education, in cultural studies and international relations, in language teaching as well as in engineering and technology transfer and small business development.

That said, the fact remains that the large-scale and nation-state funded mobility programs in existence today involve a narrow and very applied range of disciplines and are internal to or between trading blocs and trading partners on a North-North axis.

As such, it can be argued that much state support for internationalization through activities such as student exchange is using the template provided by globalization; the widespread confusion between the two trends, and the misunderstanding common amongst practitioners and others – that support for globalization is the same as support for the internationalization – only serve to reinforce the trend of globalization.

Student mobility is encouraged by proponents of both trends, but it is facilitated most amongst economic blocs and along disciplinary lines that lean strongly towards trade and technology. What many see as increased internationalization might in fact be a move away from the multilateral co-operation espoused by internationalization towards more controllable and more immediately-beneficial bilateral co-operation between trading blocs; this not-so-subtle shift is hidden behind the large numbers of mobile students and the massive amounts of money supporting the activity. Rather than leading

towards greater internationalization, current mobility trends point towards greater exclusion of players outside the big trading blocs from educational exchange and the resultant scientific, technological and cultural exchange that accompany it. Current mobility trends are reinforcing rather than assuaging the brain drain and the North-South divide; the global jockeying for economic position is being won by the developed economies. This is not internationalization.

Institutions and their practitioners will define internationalization on their own terms, but it is imperative that they do so with an understanding of the global forces at play, to do so with an understanding of what is common and what is contradictory between globalization and internationalization. Institutions need to define the goals and principles of internationalization they wish to pursue – and importantly the desired outcomes of these practices – as well as strategies, resources and timelines for the activities they espouse. Dr Charles Ping, former President of Ohio State University, stated in a conference address that a university's "commitment to an international agenda is defined as the point of intersection between institutional rhetoric and institutional budget." Due to the great expansion of international activities and programs, increasingly shrill and senior rhetoric about internationalization, and declining or particularly static budget lines, most international offices operate somewhere in between the rhetoric and the budget; they have a hard time prioritizing goals and pursuing quality work and programming. It is therefore tempting to grasp at federal handouts for North-North mobility schemes when this is the only scholarship funding and some of the only administrative travel funding available. As such, an institution needs a detailed strategy and goals, and perhaps most importantly there also needs to be widespread, vocal and

senior support and funding and buy-in to bring the internationalization plan to fruition. Policy and practice must reflect this commitment, from the mission statement of the institution to the core curriculum to the promotion and tenure policy to the budget.

It is common for institutions to present a list of international activities as evidence of their commitment to internationalization. More often than not these are activities that are ghetto-ized in an international office or some other administrative unit. A large institution might include a list of international exchange and research partners; a head count of international students and their countries of origin, together with a head count of outbound students and the countries of their destinations; descriptions of a modest number of international projects, normally managed by an administrative unit and run by hired consultants; a list of international research partnerships collected from faculty members; some offshore or contract training activities; plans for an overseas program or offshore campus; and possibly a few other activities culled from various international menus. But also more often than not these are discreet activities that bear little relation or complementarity to one another and whose impact on and off campus is scattered; they bear little relation to a larger strategy or to the process of internationalization, and are seldom motivated by outcomes. The activities in themselves may be beneficial but they are static and isolated, not part of the process of infusion integral to internationalization, a process which ideally will affect every facet of the institution, from teaching to research to service to community, from senior staff and administration and faculty to students in any discipline.

If executed properly many of these key elements of internationalization will inter-relate, support and complement one another. The ‘international’ in a true

internationalization strategy cannot be divorced from the domestic, and an institution's mission will always be translated and interpreted in domestic terms unless it specifically references the international.

The ideal internationalization process and strategy would realize for an institution an infusion of all curriculum with an international dimension; there would be opportunity and both financial and academic support for study abroad in the form of field schools, student exchange, international research and volunteer and work terms, and reward and recognition for this study and teaching and research abroad. There would be an appreciation of its academic and experiential value in terms of career goals and lifelong learning; there would be a dynamic and international demographic and diverse student, staff and faculty population. The institution would offer diversity awareness and training for host campus community on front line staff; there would be outreach activities and refugee student support. Financial support would be available for incoming and outgoing members of the community, including all of those on staff, student and faculty mobility programs. Articulated international goals and strategies would be public for each academic, administrative and service unit, and the institution's mission statement, promotion and tenure policies and budgets would all reflect its importance. There would exist strong, long-standing and sustainable partnerships pursuing achievable goals, targets and objectives, engaging in joint programming and recognition of each other's curriculum. International student internships would support the institution's development activities; international alumni chapters would be fostered and active in fund raising as well in supporting exchange students and scouting out internship opportunities. The international exchange of credit would be a given, and all offices would use returning

students to enrich campus and classroom life. This is one view of the ideal. It is not likely that it has yet been realized, but its immediate and downstream benefits would be manifold to the community of students, staff and scholars at the institution as well to the larger local community and society at large; further, given the right circumstances and institutional practices, the activity could easily pay for itself through foreign student tuitions and revenue from contract activities, research funding, alumni support and international projects.

In terms of students and student mobility, the ideal would see returning students utilized to great effect in the classroom and in the broader community. Their learning prior to, during and after the international experience would be directed and motivated towards specific outcomes; upon their return home, their learning and experiences from abroad would augment and support the diversity of the campus and enrich the classroom, and their enthusiasm would help to promote and perpetuate the programs and activities central to the internationalization process. And there would be broad understanding and appreciation of the new skill set they have returned home with, the international learning outcomes that inspired the activity at the outset.

Student mobility is most often at the top of the list of activities institutions will present as evidence of their international commitment; for less committed and for some smaller institutions, it is often the only item on the list, or second to revenue-generating activities such as international student recruitment. While student mobility should be central to any internationalization strategy, it should not be the sole activity. But it can lead the way in helping an institution define the myriad benefits of internationalization.

In its unpublished study “New Directions: Towards a Canada, Asia and Pacific Mobility Network: Phase II” the British Columbia Centre for International Education (BCCIE) explored the feasibility of establishing a new mobility program between Canada and countries in Pacific Rim Asia and across the Pacific. The task itself was daunting in that for once, a formal mobility program was being considered that was not between formal trading blocs, or even between countries on equal economic footing. The disparities between the fourteen countries assessed were huge, in terms of their respective standards and costs of living; quality and type of higher education systems; languages of instruction; academic calendars; systems of assessment; and most importantly in terms of the economic potential for countries and institutions to participate on a reciprocal basis.

The study used various forums to devise a template for student mobility and the larger goal of internationalization, one that was agreed upon by representatives of fourteen countries to determine “that the following are the key components required for a successful mobility project:

- strong partnerships
- long-term commitment
- achievable goals and objectives
- internationalization
- student internships
- reciprocal student mobility (in student numbers and tuition fees)
- faculty mobility
- staff mobility
- creation of institutional networks

- joint programming
- sustainability
- international exchange of credit
- participation from universities, community colleges, technical and vocational institutes
- participation of both public and private institutions
- flexible and variable contribution options for funding."

With this diverse geographic constituency, including players from the North and from the South, key to these concepts was that of partnership. Important to all was the participation of those (students, institutions and countries) currently under-represented in existing mobility schemes, and using formula that would allow participation of rich and poor alike. Couched in these terms and assessed by these standards, many Canadian universities are failing in their quest to internationalize.

Globalization demands a response rather than acquiescence; institutions and nations can choose to engage and the manner of their engagement, or they can choose not to; they will be affected regardless, and for those who choose to engage it can be seen as a jockeying for position.

Internationalization, on the other hand, can be viewed as an institutional response to globalization, or as the response of higher education to the phenomenon of globalization; one can choose to respond, or choose not to. Internationalization is a reaction but it is a reaction couched as an active and potentially positive response; it is an activity (or process or mindset) that needs to be initiated. Institutions choose or choose not to internationalize, and if they choose to engage they choose from a menu of activities those that they wish to pursue.

Knight (1995) cites four approaches to internationalization that have emerged from data collected across Canada: activity, process, competency and organizational culture (27). An institution may overlap in which approach it takes; each needs to accommodate a wide range of internal support, from apathy to resistance to a strong embrace of the activity, and equally must support a wide range of motivations behind this support.

McMaster University's Gary Warner (1992) has suggested that there are three models that account for the motivations behind internationalization.

Within the **market or competitive model**, the institution views itself as one of many competitors in a global marketplace. The goal of internationalization is to prepare students, staff and faculty to function competitively within an international context, to meet world-class standards and to enhance the nation's economic, political and cultural ties with other nations. The institution takes an entrepreneurial approach to attracting fee-paying students and pursues grants and partnerships for international research and consultancy projects.

In the **liberal model** institutions encourage the infusion of an international perspective or ethos throughout the campus in order to develop global citizens who are able to interact and co-operate effectively with other cultures and nations to solve global problems. These institutions stress the value of educational exchange, institution-to-institution linkages, second language proficiency and the internationalization of general education courses to prepare graduates to fully participate in an interdependent world.

In the **social transformation model** internationalization is viewed as a means of creating a more just social order that will lead to a better quality of life for all. Institutions encourage participation in international development activities, including research, education assistance, and community education projects that focus on world peace, justice, human rights, the environment, conservation, or race and gender relations. Area studies, comparative approaches and international studies infuse a global perspective across the curriculum. (cited in McKellin, 47)

Each of these models presupposes desired international learning outcomes from participation in the international activity. But in the same way that institutions are not discreet in their adaptation of only one of the four approaches posited by Knight, so do institutions rarely buy solely into one of these three motivations. The market model, for example, might fund the liberal model. It can be argued, however, that Warner's first motivation, the market model, is not a model at all; it might be more purely a reaction to globalization – and the seeking of new sources of revenue in the face of ever-declining government grants – rather than an attempt to internationalize an institution.

Unfortunately, however, it seems that this market motivation is the most common and most embraced of the models; it is often seen as a means of supporting the less mercenary aspects of engaging in the international arena, but a means towards an end that is rarely realized.

So does internationalization translate into action or results on the ground, and if so, how? Are the learning outcomes they intend to support actually realized? Do institutions synthesize their lofty goals into concrete activities that might realize an internationalized community, and if so, how? Strategic planning towards defined internationalization goals is a reasonably new phenomenon on the Canadian landscape, and in fact even in Europe many institutions are playing catch-up with the internationalization rhetoric from Brussels. Many institutions across the globe continue attempts to realize international campuses through a decidedly piece-meal approach: by recruiting more foreign students, at considerably higher rates of tuition (and in doing so they are investing in and recruiting primarily from those markets and advanced economies that can support these higher rates of tuition); by encouraging more outbound

student mobility, often buttressed by federal funding that directs Canadian students to partner institutions in trading blocs such as NAFTA and the EU; and to a lesser extent by sporadic attempts to internationalize the curriculum and increase language study, by encouraging staff and faculty mobility, by encouraging tolerance and diversity on the home campus.

In their quest to internationalize the campus, proponents and practitioners are regularly faced with an argument reflecting the domestic mission of the university, one that suggests that ‘everything a student needs to learn can be learned at home. Why should a Canadian student go to France to study Chemistry when they will learn the same thing here, and taught here the way we want it taught?’ The subtext to the argument is that if our own system of education is doing its job, is there a justification for student mobility? Those espousing internationalization counter with selfless ideas of helping students from less advantaged countries, or with less rigorous systems of higher education; of inculcating diversity and tolerance; of personal growth; of helping to build a population at home that is more tolerant of and conversant with other cultures because of its experience and learning overseas; and most importantly of the economic benefits to be derived both from a more mobile and globally-literate work force at home and from the economic spin-offs of a large foreign student population. It is this last argument that carries the day; “long seen as a plus for intellectual and cultural diversity, foreign students have now become a part of the ‘economic competitiveness’ in the global economy” (Sadlak 105).

Both a fee-paying foreign student population and a mobile domestic population are seen as cornerstones of most institutions’ internationalization strategies. But

globalization is about jockeying for position, and the trading blocs are using mobility programs to buttress their economic positions. If current formal international academic mobility programs were truly to support internationalization rather than globalization, they would involve sub-Saharan Africa, South Asia, the Pacific Islands, Central America, the Caribbean, Central and Eastern Europe, and the Middle East. They don't; they involve other trading blocs. Some organizations – global banks such as the IMF, and international organizations such as the United Nations – do offer bursary programs for students from outside of established trading blocs, but the numbers moved are minuscule when compared to global student flows. Neither do these larger global student flows – much of the traffic is a direct result of rampant and competitive international student recruitment – reflect a trend towards internationalization.

Despite the overall global increase in the number of foreign students, when compared to the absolute growth in student enrolment world-wide, higher education tends to become, at least percentage wise, less international in character. [...] Student mobility in the developed countries is growing at a steady pace, but it is increasingly limited to exchanges among themselves, or with countries which have had steady economic growth during the last few decades. The net result is that student mobility is becoming more North-North and less South-North, or South-South. In other words, while the benefits of study abroad are increasingly recognized, because of the costs involved, it is increasingly becoming a privilege for those who can afford it. (UNESCO 1998 unpaginated)

In the earlier discussion of globalization, Scott questions the validity of accepting the university's claim that it has always been an international institution. The university first emerged into a world that had no recognizable nation states, and as such labelling the institution 'international' is misleading. Instead the universities of the day espoused a sort of universalism confined to medieval Europe and to a lesser extent the Church and

the Roman Empire. Universities grew within the known world, and scholarly pursuit was conducted within those rigid confines. “Paradoxically perhaps, before it became an international institution the university had first to become a national institution – just as internationalization presupposes the existence of nation states” (Scott 1998: 123). The university’s earliest state of convergence – not ‘truly international’ as Kerr states, but rather universal – led with the emergence of nation states into a state of divergence and from there, abetted by the growing impact of globalization, to the current state of reconvergence. This reconvergence is taking many guises and involves a variety of types and levels of activities, many wrapped in a cloak of internationalization. Student mobility is prominent among these. Even the issue of internationalizing the curriculum “has been somewhat overshadowed in the last decade by the belief that the mobility of students and staff is the only and best way to reach internationalization” (EAIE 1999, unpaginated.)

Trading students with trading partners and other economic blocs is not an activity that should fit comfortably into any definition of internationalization as a primary activity, yet it often does. As such it is likely that much support for internationalization is using the template provided by globalization; the widespread confusion between the two, and the misunderstanding that support for one is support for the other, only serve to reinforce the trend of globalization. Current mobility trends are reinforcing rather than assuaging the brain drain and the North-South divide; the global jockeying for economic position is being won by the developed economies.

It is germane at this juncture to pause for a reality check. The field of international education is still defining itself as a field of independent enquiry and

practice; it still skates the thin ice between theory and practice, between perceptions and realities, and it is at the institutional level that the proverbial rubber meets the road. As such, it is not a digression to compare three different types of public post-secondary institutions in a single jurisdiction, in this case in British Columbia – a community college, a university college, and a university – to look at their commitment to and engagement in international activities and both their rhetorical and their real commitment to the facilitation of international learning outcomes in their student populations.

Comparing Institutions

It remains the status quo in post-secondary education that responsibility for internationalization largely resides in international offices and units; academic units – faculties, departments and schools – can and often do support these goals but most often need to be encouraged to do so; they will not be dictated to and certainly not by administrative service units. International offices generally need to encourage amicable engagement by the academic units in activities such as staff and student mobility; to an even greater degree is support and suasion need to encourage the academic units – and the individual faculty members that populate them – to embrace curricular change and evolution and the adoption of specific international learning outcomes for specific courses, programs and activities.

Marginalized international offices can only do so much in swaying academic direction or institutional policy, practice and opinion. Senior, vocal and widespread buy-in is often essential to garner support for the mission of the international office (preferably the international mission of the institution), especially when this differs or diverges from what many believe to be the broader – and domestic – mission of the

institution. This senior administrative support is essential to tackle a number of issues related to internationalization, especially that of academic buy-in. There are examples; in his December, 2000 installation address, new President and Vice Chancellor of Simon Fraser University Dr Michael Stevenson revealed to the community his support of and rationale for internationalization at the University:

Another core competency in the new millennium is international and cross-cultural sophistication. The most obvious facts of globalization at the turn of the millennium are the contraction of time and distance in communications throughout the world, and the trans-national diversification of societies through migration. Whether to do business abroad or to sustain a productive and harmonious multicultural society at home, we need to create a pervasive internationalization of curriculum, greater trans-national opportunity for students who have no international background, and an imaginative engagement with the cultural backgrounds of those who do.

This rationale is by no means unique nor exhaustive but rather an example of the rationale one university uses to justify its support for international learning. The rationale an institution embraces for supporting an international education can arguably be unrelated to a core mandate of the university or to the structure and goals of its taught disciplines. These rationale may be just as easily expressed in policy goals that focus on a range of local and universal issues, such as developing friendly relations among people; promoting democracy and a market economy; gaining competitive advantages; achieving global co-operation; promoting and protecting human rights; doing missionary work abroad; advising and monitoring foreign students; transferring knowledge and technology; facilitating intercultural communication; assisting developing countries; or promoting national interests. (see Mestenhauser 8) As Stevenson points out, we are assisting students “to do business abroad” and “to sustain a productive and harmonious

multicultural society at home.” These are broad outcomes that supersede the specific learning outcomes of any given course or discipline.

A comparative snapshot of the internationalization visions, strategies and activities of three Canadian post-secondary institutions – a university, a university college and a community college – offers examples of the rationale, manners and means that institutions utilize in their attempts to internationalize. Provincial government funding support of BCCIE throughout the 1990’s allowed public post-secondary institutions in British Columbia recourse to an umbrella organization that guided and supported their international activities; it encouraged both research and professional development; as such, many institutions in the province have been in the fore in North America in articulating their own vision of internationalization and embracing activities and policies in support of this internationalization. Despite differences in size and scope, the internationalization strategies of these three dissimilar institutions share much in common.

Profile 1: Camosun College

Camosun College is a community college with approximately 8,000 students attending classes on two campuses in Greater Victoria on Vancouver Island. Three primary programming options are available to students: English as a Second Language; university transfer courses; and the completion of associate degrees, diplomas or certificates at the College in over 70 career and academic programs. Camosun was active relatively early on the international stage, beginning in the early 1980’s by hosting funded students from the Middle East, through to the creation of an English Language Institute in 1987, supported by a growing and active recruitment agenda for its ESL and

academic programs. Late in the 1980's it expanded into actively searching out international development projects on top of contract training initiatives and by 1995 Contract Training and International Education had merged in the Office of International Education. By 2005 the Office worked with four major constituent units – the International Student Centre; Customized Training; Overseas Development Projects; and Study Abroad and Exchanges – which together serve as the locus for initiative and activity for the College's internationalization agenda.

The College has articulated and adopted a strategic “business” plan for its internationalization agenda that attempts to both further the cause of internationalization while it aligns its international objectives with those of the larger college; its vision

is built upon a philosophy of internationalization that involves instilling international values, skills and dimensions in everything we do as a college. It recognizes that we are living in an increasingly interconnected, interdependent and international world. It assumes that as an educational institution we have a responsibility to prepare our students for work and citizenship in this changing world.¹⁶

The plan supports the six components it recognizes as key to the maintenance and growth of international activities:

International students are key to the execution of the plan; their presence on campus and in the classroom contributes greatly to a diverse demographic and the international funds they generate support much of the other activity. The late 1990's and early 2000's saw regular and incremental growth in the size of the international population, culminating in 2003 with a full-time equivalent head count of 460, over 5% of the entire College student population. The vast majority of these students are from

¹⁶ International Education Strategic Plan 2002 – 2010: 1

five 'markets' in East Asia. Both the marketing and recruitment of these students and the academic success and retention of these students as supported through the international student services offered are key to the success of the entire plan. Recruitment efforts are being bolstered to increase the size and diversity of the international population as well as to increase international enrolments in under-subscribed programs.

These activities involving student recruitment and retention are seen to complement and support the **Internationalization of the College**, identified as the second key component of the plan. Camosun is "committed to fostering the development of knowledge, attitudes and skills necessary to live and work effectively in our increasingly interconnected world" and encourages all sectors of the community "to integrate an international perspective within the curriculum, and to create opportunities for professional development and involvement in international activities/events." (2) Planning is underway to introduce an International Studies post-diploma program with streams for Development, Business, Marketing and Student Services

The third area of focus is that of **International Student Mobility**, or the creation and offering of international study (exchange, study abroad and field schools, language learning) and/or work practicum experiences (internships, co-operative work placements and practica) to "enhance [the students'] educational experience" and allow them to gain "international competence." (3) There are concrete goals in place to increase new programs (establish three new programs annually), student participation (to 5% of student body annually by 2006), and to encourage through scholarships increased faculty and student participation rates.

Supporting all international activities is the desire to increase the number of **International Partnerships**; these are seen to be key to a wide variety of complementary internationalization activities including student recruitment, work and study mobility of students and staff, and the potential for the introduction and expansion of joint programming, overseas course delivery and **International Contract Training**, and the implementation of **International Development Projects**. The latter two are self-financing at the least and, ideally, revenue-generating activities that allow academic staff to teach (and learn) and to engage overseas as well as increase the opportunities for Camosun students. The international plan encourages the implementation of one new development project annually, funded from a diverse array of donor banks, in order to encourage short-term opportunities for staff; an internal internationalization benefit is the adaptation of faculty and staff CV's to meet international standards for submission. The former, **International Contract Training**, is a more purely revenue-generating activity that expands administrative and academic staff expertise through activities such as capitalizing on new markets for English Language and executive training, and curriculum creation and transfer. Each school at the College is increasingly involved in contract initiatives and some revenue generated is being re-invested and used to create opportunities for Camosun faculty to further develop materials and expertise. The College's internationalization activities are seen to be complementary and support the mission of the broader campus and community.

The strategic business plan (2003-2005) adopted by the College has articulated concrete goals and outputs for its international activities and initiatives, with timelines and budget ramifications attached to each. The plan has been subject to ongoing internal

review and revision, and quarterly budget and activity assessments. As the larger institution articulates its own strategic plan for 2006-2009, Camosun International will revise and update its strategic business plan to maintain its parallels and connections to the goals of the larger institution.

Profile 2: Malaspina University College

As discussed in earlier chapters, post-secondary education in Canada is under the purview of the respective provincial governments; legislation passed by the British Columbia provincial government in the late 1980's created the new classification of University College and, responding to demographic growth and pressures, a select number of geographically diverse community colleges – Malaspina College among them – became University Colleges, although initially with degree-granting authority residing with established 'sister' universities, who would confer the actual degrees. Soon thereafter legislation was passed that allowed these University Colleges to grant independent degrees in certain disciplines, and in June of 1998 Malaspina University College conferred the first of its own degrees. The comprehensive institution serves central Vancouver Island and now enrolls more than 10,000 full- and part-time students; the University College has a main campus in Nanaimo and regional campuses in Duncan, Powell River, and Parksville.

Malaspina has been active in both contract training and internationalization initiatives since the 1980's and, while it sees internationalization as an educational imperative, it also sees both internationalization and contract training as complementary economic imperatives and as a way to "provide a means of augmenting the institution's

operating budget”¹⁷ with visible results such as increased access for all students through the funding of expanded course options for Canadian students. The institution defines its commitment to and understanding of internationalization as follows:

Internationalization is a process that integrates an international element into the teaching, learning, research, and service functions of an educational institution. Within this framework, the pressure for British Columbia to produce a world-class labour force is continually increasing. Preparing students to meet the challenges of the 21st Century has become a provincial priority, and post-secondary educational institutions are now expected to provide students with the knowledge and skills necessary for successful community participation, social interaction and cultural involvement, and to engender in the learner the desire for acquisition of knowledge. The internationalization process will foster understanding of other cultures and develop skills for effective living in a global community.¹⁸

A formal International Quality Review (IQRP) in 2000 entailed an exhaustive evaluation of Malaspina’s activities and vision and set the stage for a clearer articulation of directions and the resources needed to achieve new goals; these were contained in the 2003-2008 strategic plan entitled “Strategic Directions.” Malaspina’s commitment to internationalization is now made manifest in a number of activities and opportunities:

- **International student mobility** program offerings that includes exchange, field schools, study abroad programs, co-operative education, practicum placements and research opportunities;
- Support for increasing number of active **international partnerships**;
- Complementary **faculty and staff mobility** experiences internationally;

¹⁷ <http://www.mala.bc.ca/www/DISCOVER/FACTS.HTM>

¹⁸ <http://www.mala.ca/calendar/International/internationalization.asp>

- **International contract training** initiatives that offer experience to faculty as well as revenue-generating possibilities to the institution;
- Support for **international development and training projects**;
- The delivery of inter-cultural courses and skill building workshops, as well as the offering foreign language courses where few existed previously and support and assistance to faculty as they attempt to **internationalize their curriculum**;
- Support of student mobility opportunities through the offering of **travel stipends**; and,
- An **international student population** of approximately 10%, with over 1000 international on campus annually in high school, ESL, regular university transfer or university programs, the latter where they are integrated in with Canadian students, an addition to international student support and activities such as a peer program to link international students with their Canadian peers.

Each of these activities is supported by concrete and specific goals and objectives, all measurable, with budgetary ramifications and expectations; the five-year plan and its measurable outcomes is subject to ongoing assessment and review.

Profile 3: Simon Fraser University

Simon Fraser University is a mid-sized comprehensive university with its main campus in Burnaby, a suburb of cosmopolitan Vancouver, and two other campuses, one in the downtown core of Vancouver and another in the suburb of Surrey. In 2005 it had approximately 14,500 full-time equivalent undergraduate students and an additional 2500 graduate students, with a total student head count approaching 25,000; approximately 8% of the student body is international. In the domestic context the University has a reputation of being actively engaged on the international scene; while it has pursued aggressive international student recruitment only recently, and much later in the day than

many counterpart institutions, its international development activities and student mobility schemes have been seen to be leaders in the field.

As with Camosun and Malaspina, and perhaps many other institutions across the globe, Simon Fraser first became pro-active in the international arena in the late 1980's when, with some major development project activity underway and a growing international undergraduate population (by default rather than design and recruitment), it addressed dual concerns of better service to its international student population and an increasing demand for outbound student mobility programming with the creation of offices to address these needs. The 1990's saw rapid growth in the number and diversity of international students, the scope of international development projects and the diversity and volume of participants on its mobility programming, and in the level and quality of service offered to its international student population. Various policy and programming initiatives were undertaken and the University for the first time began to articulate and plan for its role internationally.

By late in the decade the University had drafted and adopted a Statement on Internationalization¹⁹ which expounded upon the institutions' commitment to internationalization:

The universality of knowledge in the information age, the competitive nature of world trade and the increasing rate of cultural exchange dictate that the international dimension of higher education must keep pace with changes occurring globally. Internationalization is therefore essential for the University to fulfil its mandate to create and share knowledge, and to provide a learning environment that prepares students, faculty, and staff to function effectively in an increasingly integrated, global environment.

¹⁹<http://www.Simon Fraser University.ca/international/Statement.htm>

The principles and values that guide internationalization at the institution were cited:

- international activities must support the University's mission, and enhance its standing in Canada and abroad as a leading comprehensive university.
- internationalization of the University should enrich the educational and professional experience of students, faculty, and staff, by introducing them to the languages, cultures, and intellectual traditions of other nations.
- activities should embody the principles of partnership and mutual benefit with the communities involved.
- international development and training activities must be financially viable.
- international activities must conform to University policies, including respect for human rights issues and concerns.

And ultimately the key elements of internationalization at the institution were detailed:

- **internationalization of curricula**
- **student mobility programs**, through exchanges, field schools and co-operative work placements
- **international student recruitment**
- **faculty/staff mobility**
- **international delivery of curricula**
- **development co-operation projects and contract education**
- **internationalization statements** at the Faculty level.

In a complementary working document, these elements were followed by target specific goals and the strategies to be employed to achieve these goals.

Little was done, however, to articulate specific goals and measurable objectives. There was no formal faculty or staff mobility programming in effect, other than faculty

participation in the University's field school programs and that international liaison undertaken as a regular part of faculty research and responsibility. There were no plans to address the internationalization of the curriculum. Despite receiving at the time in excess of over \$2.5 million annually from foreign student tuition, there was no formal funding made available by the university for outbound student mobility, for awards for international students from disadvantaged countries, for international students in time of financial need, or for increased service to the growing international population.

While the sheer volume of activities undertaken by the University was impressive, it is debatable if all of these were supporting the institution's internationalization goals, or if all of these could be deemed successful. There was a list of activities but there was no larger plan; it remained a 'list' and 'international' remained largely superfluous to the institution's core mission and activities.

Generally-accepted definitions of internationalization include mention that it is the process of integrating international perspectives into the campus. As at most institutions, this process of integration was being driven by a specialized international office, a student service unit distinct from domestic university affairs and activities. Universally and at that time at Simon Fraser, the process of internationalization thus unwittingly becomes a specialized function of the international office rather than an activity and a process for the entire institution.

There was no widespread academic or institutional buy-in, resulting in problems endemic to the field: limited or no access to special programs for exchange or international students; delayed or unsatisfactory transfer credit decision; no financial assistance for outgoing students or for international students suffering emergency

financial need; problems gaining access to residence or other services; insufficient human resources to properly manage labour intensive activities such as mobility or student advising. The litany could be long indeed, and is not unique to any one institution, but cumulatively these problems amounted to a substantial gap between the rhetoric and the activity and created serious structural impediments for students planning to study abroad and other activities.

Enter a new senior administration, almost immediately a formal review of international activities, a re-organization so that international reported directly to the president's office, a streamlining of the number of units involved in international, and the articulation of a complex and ambitious strategic plan. Stemming from that has come a massive injection of funding support for recruitment, both domestic and international student support for study and mobility, and a ripple effect that has encouraged the introduction of new international and regional academic programming, a successful staff exchange and mobility program, increased language programming and the introduction of mandatory language requirements in a modest number of programs, a proliferation of field school and exchange opportunities and programs, as well as involvement and support from previously inactive units and individuals. If successfully implemented, the five-year strategic plan for SFU International completed in late 2004 would put the University at the fore of internationalization initiatives globally.

The Strategic Plan²⁰ (2004-2006) was endorsed by Senate and approved by the Board of Governors; it articulated the University's commitment to "enhance our University's recognition both nationally and internationally through the creation and

²⁰ <http://www.sfu.ca/international/About/strategic.html>

management of an international dimension of exceptional quality, strength, depth and breadth.” The Plan is supported by the vision of “a world where opportunity, mutual understanding and respect — fostered by international cooperation and partnership — encourage an equitable, harmonious and sustainable future” and embraces the mission of providing “exceptional leadership, guidance, service and support to the SFU community and its partners as we promote and facilitate involvement in the internationalization process.”

The University through SFU International identified a number of goals and objectives based on identified ‘elements of internationalization’. Like Camosun and Malaspina, specific and measurable goals and were attached to each objective, together with timelines and action steps needed to see the item to completion:

Increasing the size and diversity of the **international student body** through targeted recruitment activities and strategic alliances, partnerships and relationships

Increasing participation rates of the community in relevant and appropriate international activities, including student **mobility programmes** (to ensure that 50% of the graduating class will have spent at least one semester in an international activity); staff mobility; the creation of at least one operational satellite campus outside of Canada; and support where feasible of the **internationalization of the curriculum**, including at least one undergraduate degree program focused on international studies including a mandatory minimum of at least one semester abroad in an exchange program, field school, international co-op placement or internship.

Directing **financial support** towards faculty, staff and graduate students through exchanges and other international opportunities while **decreasing the financial barriers**

for student, faculty and staff participation in international activities including international students studying at SFU in Canada.

Increasing the rate of establishment and maintenance of **relationships with international alumni** (outside of the US) and the provision of access to opportunities to participate in SFU related activities and for fund-raising purposes.

Increasing and maintaining a **development project and international contract portfolio** of a specified amount while improving the coordination of SFU's international activities and the provision of services to SFU International's stakeholders.

The Plan undergoes revision and review on a thrice-yearly basis and is used to make adjustments to both activity and budget projections.

It is commendable that each of these three different institutions has embraced a strategic plan for internationalization. However, there are only so many activities that post-secondary institutions engage in; each of these strategic plans contains elements that attempt to address and internationalize every one of the activities common to post-secondary institutions, with one exception. Unique to the university among the three types of institutions we have looked at is its commitment to research, in addition to teaching and community service; it is interesting to note, however, that the international Strategic Plan of Simon Fraser University makes no mention of supporting international research. This apparent anomaly is easily explained, however, in light of the fundamental concepts of academic freedom and the autonomy of the academic. While international offices will support where feasible the international research agendas of the faculty they

support, we must continue to observe the gap between the academic and the administrative, and respect the reluctance with which any guidance of an academic nature would be accepted from an administrative unit.

Central to the concept of internationalization, and the need for a strategic plan to support this, is the idea of motivated change, of guided learning, of modifying or evolving the core missions, values and activities of the post-secondary institution to better address the needs of the community in a changing world. These strategic plans each engage in every facet of their respective institutions' missions to create an environment where international learning outcomes will be *de rigueur*, or so integrated with the daily life of the institution and the classroom as to be inseparable. These are the goals that the plans have been structured to achieve. But are they realistic goals? Does supporting mobility – a means rather than an end in this process – actually assist students “to do business abroad” and “to sustain a productive and harmonious multicultural society at home”? Part of the answer can be found as we return to a discussion of formal student mobility at the higher level of policy and global practice.

Student Mobility Schemes

Scholarly mobility predates the university. It is only since the end of World War II, however, that nation states and governments have actively supported mobility through early programs such as the Fulbright Scholarship. These programs were devised to help reconstruct post-war economies and to encourage the intercourse of citizens and cultures. Their underlying premise was that better knowledge of and between countries and cultures, and increased trade, would never allow a repeat of the horrors of previous wars. More larger and recent state-funded programs link constituencies within federal systems

with partner constituencies in the same trading bloc (e.g., NAFTA, EU) or with partner trading blocs. There is a valid argument that state support for the activity is linked to its political and economic agenda of market share and the desire to remain or become competitive in the global economy. An internationally-literate work force is a huge advantage. It is increasingly apparent that there is also the need to engage in a nation-building exercise in support of tolerance and sensitivity towards unprecedented numbers of immigrants to the developed economies.

The first large formal and reciprocal international mobility programs emerged in the European Union in the form of inter-European grants towards fostering academic linkages between member universities and their populations, both staff and student. As the EU evolved and grew to become a trading bloc approaching the size, clout and stature of the United States, the two economies entered into a pilot EU-US consortium exchange arrangement. Both Brussels and Washington would foot their sides of the bill in support of programming that would create a number of consortia; these consortia would need to involve institutions in at least three states (US) or nation states (EU) and the bulk of the money used to support these exchanges would need to be spent on the actual mobility of students, not staff or faculty; less well-funded programs would take care of faculty mobility and none but a few bilateral relationships through organizations such as the British Council in Britain and the German Academic Exchange Service (DAAD) in Germany would address issues such as staff or researcher mobility. Each side fronted funds towards three-year programs that, in order for proposals to be successful and access the grants, would need to address issues of sustainability after funding was withdrawn.

Preference would be given to consortia that addressed curriculum and exchange issues of technology transfer, trade and business. The EU-US program was formalized in 1995.

In 1990 Canada and the European Community (EC) Member States entered into the “Transatlantic Declaration” that made specific reference to strengthening mutual co-operation in various files which directly affect the future and present well-being of their citizens, “such as exchanges and joint projects in education and culture, including academic and youth exchanges” (Report of the Joint Committee 2). Soon thereafter Canada and the EU entered into their own consortia exchange agreement along similar lines, signed in 1995, implemented in 1996; Canada’s Department of Foreign Affairs and International Trade (DFAIT) is supported an extension of this agreement that saw a tripling of the number of projects funded over the following five years, from a starting point of twelve three-year consortia funded at Cad \$120,000 (in 1996 dollars; this has grown to current funding allocations of \$200,000 for the Canadian side) on each side annually since 1996 – as well as an increase in project length to four from three years (HRDC 2000 unpaginated); and an opening of the consortia arrangements to countries in Central and Eastern Europe, countries which have either recently joined or are conveniently lining up for membership in the EU trading bloc.

The early 1990’s also saw a similar consortia-based program introduced to the three economies of North America, on the heels of the new NATFA agreement; this trilateral program used a similar model and similar levels of funding for constituents of Mexico, the United States and Canada. More recently the Canadian government has been exploring programs in Latin America and APEC as well.

It is apparent then that the issue of internationalization is one that concerns the institutions while the issue of globalization – and the mobilization of a work force that can engage in the world economy – is the issue of primacy for the state. The state responds by funding directed research and by supporting mobility schemes to partner trading blocs. And institutions respond in a number of differing ways.

Institutions are sometimes less clear on their rationale, and it can be argued that the rationale they employ does not always entirely overlap with the rationale employed by the state. “A major premise on which these programs rests is the belief that by sending students to study abroad, they will gain an understanding of other people and cultures that they could have not learned at home. It is hoped that by learning more about other citizens and cultures, students will become more accepting of differences and be able to transfer their knowledge to both domestic and international relations.” (Kalunian 131) This sentiment echoes the words of J. William Fulbright, seen by many to be the father of modern student mobility: “what we must all try to acquire through education, and especially international education, is some degree of perception and perspective about the various peoples of the world.” (cited in Koster 121) “Successful functioning in a culturally-diverse global setting requires a different way of thinking than is traditionally taught.” (Yershova et al 42)

Commenting upon the results of a survey on internationalization that was administered to all universities in Canada, Knight (1997) states:

a noteworthy finding is that all sectors agree that “to prepare graduates who are internationally competent” was the most important reason for internationalization. Although there was unanimity that the preparation of graduates was more important than for instance, research, revenue generation, national peace, and

security, there was a divergence of opinion as to why these graduates have to be internationally knowledgeable and interculturally competent. (30)

Institutions are also concerned with the quantity of their students made mobile as well as with the number and prestige of their international partnerships. Student and scholarly mobility have historically been an integral factor and force in higher education. In the Middle Ages and during the Renaissance, higher education in the Europe, as exemplified in its universities, was truly international through the universality of its scholarly pursuits, the international composition of students and scholars, and in large part to the fact that nation states had yet to emerge as sponsors of education. From approximately 1800 to World War II, the ‘function’ of higher education institutions shifted primarily towards servicing the needs of the nation states and towards the development of national identities; international activity was less of a priority. Since the end of World War II, and increasingly since the end of the Cold War, higher education has been characterized by a return to universalism, or at least to the perhaps naïve idea of a universality of scholars, knowledge and pursuits.

That said, the institutions themselves have much to do to match rhetoric with practice. For example, it is often assumed by students – and often true in practice – that a study abroad period will extend the participant’s time of study. A study of mobile ERASMUS students in Europe found that 43% expect the completion of their degree to be delayed by 50% to 100% of the time spent abroad, and that 41% of all study abroad periods did in fact lead to some delayed completion of the degree. In terms of course recognition, study abroad periods are generally poorly incorporated into regular periods of study, and while up to 78% of periods of study abroad are granted full recognition by

the home institution, only 5% of recognition granted was for compulsory or core courses, and 17% were given credit for less than a quarter of their study abroad. (Maiworm et al 1991, 1993, Van der Wende 1994)

Conclusion

There are historical and modern rationale for maintaining the age-old presence of the state in the activity of higher education, and in its more modern manifestations through activities such as mobility. The federal systems of Europe and Canada are not alone in encroaching upon the traditional jurisdictions of their constituent parts in supporting international academic mobility; it is occurring in other federations as well, notably in the United States. International academic mobility programs in Canada are not funded by the provinces; they are funded by Ottawa, which has no authority over the activity of education “subject to certain safeguards.” International academic mobility programs in the EU are not funded by the nation states; they are funded by Brussels, which has no authority over the activity of education. The international trade and political agendas of Brussels and Ottawa can be satisfied by supporting massive programming in international academic mobility between countries and trading blocs.

In the face of otherwise dwindling funding, the institutions themselves will not ignore federal support for activities; the international exchange of students is compatible with and fundamental to the internationalization of the campus; it supports recovery of the lost ideal of a true university without borders, of an international intellectual community that knows no boundaries.

Globalization has encouraged the encroachment of central governments in the federations of Canada and the EU into the jurisdictions of their constituent provinces and nation states. While Canada is in the gradual process of decentralization, the EU, from the other end of the spectrum of federalism, is becoming ever more centralized, yet both federal systems intervene in the constituencies' higher education for the sake of their own global competitiveness. International experience as a student is available to more and more in these federations and is enabling many to become conversant with the trade and technology of competitor trading blocs; a work force of this calibre will be competitive indeed.

An international academic experience is a valuable experience but one that is in danger of becoming a commodity available to more and more participants in fewer and fewer jurisdictions. A post-secondary education has never been more accessible than it is today to the populations of western democracies and organized trading blocs; it is becoming less accessible to those in the developing world who cannot afford to pay market price for the commodity. Never before has an international academic experience been as available as it is today to a student of higher education in one of the pre-eminent economic blocs. And never before has a university degree meant as little as a ticket to mere inclusion in the work force.

There is an often heard lament from universities and institutions of higher education; it is that education

must be seen not just as a means to a prosperous society but as an end as well. That is to say, just as we need education for economic success, so we need economic success for more and better education, for it is the latter as much as the former which constitutes quality of life. (cited in LeBlanc 68)

Such sentiments are lost in the march towards global competitiveness, lost the predilection of federal bodies to direct decreasing discretionary spending towards international mobility programs in support of a globalized work force.

Ultimately there is no question of the forces shaping higher education and mobility programming; in fact, we come face to face with three motivations for engaging in an international learning experience. The state responds to globalization and supports the activity to maintain or increase its competitive stature in the global economy.

The institution responds with internationalization and supports the activity to increase its own cachet by the breadth and quality of its overseas programming, to offer more programming options to its students, and to internationalize as both a process and goal.

And what of the individual participant, what outcomes does she pursue? Subsequent discussion will pursue an exhaustive inventory of potential learning outcomes and will further address the motivations of the various stakeholders in both supporting and participating in the activity of study abroad.

Chapter 4: International Learning Outcomes

So it is in travelling; a man must carry knowledge with him, if he would bring home knowledge.

Samuel Johnson, Boswell, Life of Johnson

In the previous chapter we were presented with a context for international education, a prism through which to view the activity of an international education and a period of study abroad; there are formidable, ancient and compelling forces at work to dictate the content and the form of education, the audience for education, and increasingly the locations, networks and partnerships of education. There is strong evidence to indicate that the state as well as the institution is supportive of international mobility programming; individual participants must also be supportive, as they are the front lines of this wave of activity, the third stakeholder as it were. All stakeholders anticipate some outcome for their support of or participation in the activity. Integral to the research undertaken in this study, we have through available documents and programs assessed the rationale for the state to support study abroad. We have, in Chapter Three, compared the rationales, missions and activities of a number of post-secondary institutions in the jurisdiction of British Columbia as they support internationalization and as they use these activities to anticipate and encourage certain outcomes. And finally the core of the research in this study, explicated in Chapter Five, will revolve around the learners themselves, their motivations for engagement and their perceptions of growth and the outcomes they received.

In this chapter, however, we will review and synthesize the literature in an attempt to form an exhaustive inventory of these potential outcomes; this discussion will culminate in the introduction of a set and categorization (or subsets) of outcomes.

Fundamentally linked to the acquisition of outcomes, and the anticipation of this acquisition, is the motivation for stakeholder involvement; truly, what else but anticipation of some gain could constitute a motivation for any activity.

Based upon the context established in the previous chapters, it can be argued that we are faced with a small number of primary motivations for engaging in an international learning experience. The state responds to globalization and supports the activity to maintain or increase its competitive stature in the global economy. The institution responds with internationalization and supports the activity to increase its own cachet by the breadth and quality of its overseas programming, to offer more programming options to its students, and to internationalize as both a process and goal. The motivations of these entities are relatively transparent; but what of the student participants, what are their motivations for participation and what are the learning outcomes they hope to achieve?

Rationale for International Mobility

Of the various stakeholders involved in the support of international mobility, all perceive that they will realize some benefit from their support. These stakeholders include the state and constituent governments that may support and finance the activity; the private sector and public bureaucracies that anticipate a better-trained and more globally 'able' work force as a result of the activity; the institutions and practitioners that administer the activity; and the participants themselves who engage in the activity. Each

stakeholder arrives with differing concerns, expectations and means to support international mobility.

The private sector does not speak with one voice, although realistically neither do other of the stakeholders. But it can be said that private sector support for the activity follows an economic imperative. It is not altruistic but rather supports the creation of an articulate, globally-literate and mobile labour force. The strength of views will vary, however, with geographic locale. Study abroad is much less common in North America than in Europe, and study abroad credentials – and the impact gained from the experience – may thus carry more weight in North America than in Europe in terms of access to employment and graduate study. A Dutch study has concluded that in Europe “so many graduates can include this in their curriculum vitae these days” that employers ranked study abroad last among 27 criteria upon which they base their selection criteria; Europeanization is perhaps already achieving some successes. Others feel that “exchange programs have become too much like ‘organized bus trips’ and that a new interest is emerging among employers for students who act as free movers and organize their own stay abroad, preferably as an internship.” (Van der Wende 233) This view can only function as further rationale for pursuing outcomes-motivated programming.

The participants themselves are looking for life and experiential results from their participation, for fun and often a first experience away from home, for better career or academic prospects, and for the acquisition of academic, cultural and linguistic skills as a result of the experience. They do not prioritize potential outcomes in the same order as do other stakeholders.

In general, however, support for and participation in the activity presuppose that outward mobility is a positive activity and that participants of these programs will achieve certain objectives and develop certain competencies through their participation. The literature is unequivocal in that some change in the learner does take place. Most international experiences will undoubtedly create heightened awareness, while in some literature, “even ‘no effect’ may in reality be a reification of existing attitudes and ideas.” (Stimpfl and Engberg 101) The literature is less equivocal on what change takes place, in what types of learners, and determined by what factors. Even then, much of the literature is uneven and often relies on anecdotal evidence or on case studies of individual students or programs. “Many of these projects have indicated that study abroad programs produce spectacular results. Due to the idiosyncratic nature of study abroad, however, this research has largely failed to establish that such effects are the result of specific replicable elements.” (97) Further, “although study abroad administrators may regard receptivity and cultural awareness as a given by-product of the exchange experience, there is not much literature to substantiate this link.” (Kalunian 131) This view is supported by Knight (1999): “Another important factor [...] is the identification of competencies which are considered essential for new graduates to function in a more international work environment. The research to date has been sporadic at best and has served to highlight the need for further work to be done on this issue. (18)

Clyne and Rizvi cite two broad categories of research into the field:

One is rhetorical where the normative base is often left questioned. Student exchange is assumed to be necessarily a good thing, with obvious benefits to both the participants, and, more arguably perhaps, to the society to which they return. Experiences of intercultural learning situations are assumed to result in a more tolerant and interculturally sensitive individual, with a more

comprehensive understanding of global citizenship. The other view is more sceptical of the outcomes of student exchange and rejects any necessary connection between exchange experience and the development of certain attitudes of intercultural understanding and sensitivity. This view suggests that it is possible for student exchange to produce hostile cultural attitudes. (38)

If we accept the research schism proposed by Clyne and Rizvi, we can say that the rhetorical branch has far and away dominated the field. Much anecdotal evidence has been disseminated lauding the benefits of an international education. Case studies abound, and practitioners see the results walk into their offices almost daily. “Intuitively, the benefits of study abroad seem indisputable.” (Akande and Slawson 1) Practitioners and the ‘returnees’ themselves focus on the satisfaction of returning students, on the perceived life-altering benefits of the experience, and on their expanded world view. Student satisfaction assessments have dominated the literature. The study abroad experience is commonly self-referenced as the most important, transformational, life-affirming period in the young person’s life. Oft-repeated statements such as ‘it was the best and most important year of their lives’ and ‘they returned as young adults’ are sincere but ubiquitous and offer little concrete in the research and programming domain; further, the sentiment is not surprising given that the demographic of study abroad participants is largely students in their early to mid-twenties who have never lived before away from home. A fish is not aware it is living in an aquarium until it jumps outside of it. Edward T. Hall is often paraphrased as saying that culture is a prison unless one knows how to unlock it. Elsewhere he states that “culture hides much more than it reveals and, strangely enough, what it hides, it hides most effectively from its own participants.” (59) Of course they were satisfied; they just came home from a very interesting place.

Until recently, the majority of research on outcomes has involved case studies of individual students or assessments of individual programs that detail the positive benefits and spin-offs; unfortunately, many of these studies have dealt solely or primarily with issues such as student satisfaction with the program and experience. In a recent study conducted by NAFSA's section on U.S. Students Abroad, the authors found that 95% of respondent institutions "assess student satisfaction. While 40% measure gains in language proficiency, less than a third assess academic achievement or gains in personal development. A mere 15% assess cultural proficiency, and fewer than 10% measure career-related outcomes. This sampling shows that that the majority of the profession is far from engaging in serious outcomes research beyond the question of student satisfaction." (Sideli 30)

It is generally agreed that little quantitative research has been reported that truly questions or even examines these benefits and outcomes. Some have argued that "this is an area of research characterized by the use of inadequate methodological approaches" (Albanese 283) and that there is a scepticism that many of the studies dealing with the assessment of impacts and outcomes consist "of retrospective, impressionistic assessments without the benefit of hard data." While such objections often wreak of a widespread intolerance for subjective data and the qualitative in social science research, it must be agreed that the "hard data" some seek may be more difficult to procure from a population of university seniors than from a test tube and a laboratory.

But if the study abroad rhetoric is to be truly believed – and if government funding and institutional support are to be maintained or increased for what most practitioners and participants believe to be a valuable activity – there needs to be more

than anecdotal support for the claims made about the positive aspects of study abroad. “We are on less firm ground in documenting the effects of study abroad on students’ learning outcomes” than in assessing student satisfaction. (Rubin and Sutton 30) Are we accountable to our students and their families, and for our international programs, if we can only state with assurance that participants were satisfied and had a positive experience? Are governments and institutions merely supporting academic tourism, and will they continue to do so if claims of satisfaction are all we can offer? Or are these stakeholders and supporters truly assisting in the development of individuals and of a critical mass of globally-responsible graduates who can fashion a just society and lead the country in the new world economy? It is clear that further targeted research is in order.

Expectations and Measuring Success

The next hurdle for the institution must therefore be valid assessment of programming, and attempts at assessing and measuring the targeted change and growth among participants; program success is often measured in numbers, and quantitative measures give only a partial glimpse into program success. By certain quantitative measures – number of students moved, length and number of programs offered, anecdotal or evaluative reports of satisfaction on the part of participating students, gained language proficiency, etc. – a program can be deemed a success.

But what of qualitative measures? How does an institution assess the success of a mobility program on the individual? ... for surely the university is in the business of changing of lives and not merely counting participants. It is said that if one doesn’t know where he is going, he will not know when he gets there. So do we gauge program success and student success? And if so, how? It is easy to measure success if it is only a

numbers game. but few practitioners would consider a mere head count a valid measure of program and student success; it might be one measure, but it cannot be the measure. But how many institutions pursue qualitative assessments of individual student success? And what are the qualitative measures that an institution can use to assess the performance of its programs and the measurable progress of its students? Tools must be sought, accepted and adapted to assess the quality and success of mobility programming, to encourage the institutional role in measuring the competencies the institution is trying to inculcate into its students. The assessments made must be used to update and create programming so that it has a better chance of meeting expectations, so that it is outcomes motivated.

This much is clear:

- few institutions measure student outcomes or program success, outside of routine satisfaction surveys and program evaluations
- the primary motivation for providing study abroad programs should not be merely to increase head count numbers, although increasing participation rates can be one of several motivating factors
- the primary motivation for providing study abroad programs, and participating in them, is to achieve some specified outcome or gain
- the motivations of the different stakeholders in supporting this activity are different, and each will anticipate the achievement of different outcomes from this period of study abroad
- there is great potential for change and growth on a study abroad program, and international learning outcomes can be acquired in the various realms of academic growth, intellectual growth, personal, interpersonal and intrapersonal growth, behavioural change, attitudinal change, and growth in cross-cultural awareness
- there is a large but finite list of potential outcomes, and these can be categorized

- in order to improve the likelihood of achieving specified outcomes, and thus program and student success, we must devise programming that is tailored towards the achievement of these outcomes
- in order to devise such programming, we must be able to better and with more regularity measure student learning outcomes from the programs we offer and thus measure the success of current programming in helping participants to achieving these outcomes
- a set of specified outcomes should be used as the basis for program design, should be overt and should be made explicit to all leaders, hosts and participants in the program
- correlations should then be drawn between specified outcomes and specific activities within the program that will add efficacy to the likelihood of these outcomes being achieved
- progress should be measured and reported.

There is a logic in these steps, and in the reverse engineering of programming from desired outcomes to program design; practitioners and program designers must attempt to assure all stakeholders that we are not only mobile, but in fact that we are mobile in the direction we want to go, that we have specified and articulated goals that rank in priority over the mere counting of students on programs.

In order to attempt this, we require a detailed set of the outcomes we desire; through various institutional forums we need to articulate the institution's expectations and hopes for student mobility programs, modify these to accommodate institutional wishes and goals, and receive administrative and academic support for the undertaking; this exercise needs to take into account the students' own expectations and hopes as well. Are the institution's expectations and its students' expectations being met? Are these expectations being articulated? Are they at all similar?

At Simon Fraser University, as at a multitude of comparable institutions, little attention has historically been given to the competencies that the institution hopes to

inculcate in its mobility programming, including international exchanges, field schools and study abroad programs and international internships. Selection advising and interviews, pre-departure orientation and materials and a debriefing upon the students' return are the primary contact given. It is hoped that their experience is a positive one both personally and academically – and anecdotally it is – but as the academic and experiential program at the foreign partner is most often outside of the control of home university, little is done to assist students other than with the logistics of the exchange. Upon their return they are rarely utilized. It is hoped, of course, that they will return having developed a better awareness of other cultures, perhaps some language skills, and greater tolerance and sensitivity; a greater awareness of other styles of learning and living; contacts and knowledge to help them and Canada in the global economy; and personal growth befitting a young adult. This experience is the rule and not the exception.

Knigh (1994) concurs that "identifying competencies which students require to function as citizens and professionals in a more globalized society is an important challenge to us all." These competencies, or international learning outcomes, will take the form of desired results from the learning process. A course in literature or biology can test for these results; it may be harder to do this when assessing the outcomes of an international academic experience, for example, change in attitude towards other cultures, or an increase in feelings of autonomy and independence.

Further, while all supporters of international education have a stake in its outcome, it falls upon the institutions and practitioners to identify the real and tangible benefits of international student mobility, the learning outcomes, both personal and

academic, they hope will be derived from the international experience. There is a need to identify the outcomes we anticipate as well as a further need to assess if these outcomes are truly being achieved; and if they are being achieved, to what degree and to what benefit for the stakeholders upon the students' return to their home institutions and their re-engagement in the student body, the work force and society.

To that end we will attempt to describe and define what these outcomes are, towards a categorization of outcomes that can be utilized by institutional practitioners as they pursue further and more complex student assessment and both modify and design programs with the clearer goal of acquiring identified outcomes.

Defining International Learning Outcomes

It is beyond the scope of this study to research all facets of the study abroad experience, or even of international learning outcomes. It is encouraging, however, that the field has come into its own over the last decade and is one of growing interest to practitioners and researchers in international education; a corpus of evidence is forming that supports long-held beliefs as to the benefits of a study abroad experience, and research is emerging that supports long-held beliefs in the efficacy of study abroad in helping students to achieve both international learning outcomes and other related competencies.²¹

²¹ International learning outcomes, often also called competencies, should not be confused with the more narrowly described work place competencies "necessary for competent performance in the workplace" and prescribed by advocates of vocational training, those "narrow, predominantly behavioural skills which downplay (and in some cases eliminate) the need for learners to understand and have mastery of those skills they are to perform confidently in specific contexts." (Griffin 4) We could differentiate the two in terminology such as 'work place competencies' and 'global competencies', but for the purposes of this work, any reference to competency will refer to the broader 'global competency'.

Expectations and an articulation of international learning outcomes have been honed in the last quarter century. We now expect more than we did in 1960 when the following were cited as the “three major goals of [the international] exchange of persons:

- the intellectual and professional development of the student in his specialized field of study;
- the general education of the student; and,
- the furthering of international understanding.” (Klineberg 51)

While the field may have since better articulated the outcomes it hopes for, it has only recently begun to engage in quantifiable research to assess if these outcomes are being achieved; and it has pursued scant program development based upon this research in order to engineer success towards the delivery of those outcomes. Outcomes-motivated programming must be the goal if the field is to continue to grow and to enjoy past successes in terms of support and funding.

Kauffman et al posit three major themes as desired outcomes for study abroad: intellectual development; the development of an international perspective; and personal development. They cite several recommendations for action in terms of internationalizing the curriculum and campus through activities such as foreign language study, study abroad, and a better reintegration of returning students into the home institution.

BCCIE also set itself the task of defining hoped-for competencies with Preparing Graduates for the Future: International Learning Outcomes (Stanley and Mason). The report cites the Conference Board of Canada "Employability Skills Profile" (12) which

"includes the following skills which provide a basic foundation to get, keep and progress on a job:

- Understand and speak the languages in which business is conducted.
- Write effectively in the languages in which business is conducted.
- Demonstrate a positive attitude towards change.
- Recognize and respect people's diversity and individual differences.
- Identify and suggest new ideas to get the job done (creativity)."

These employability skills have informed the international learning outcomes that BCCIE has proposed. The report has identified certain themes, expanded these themes into learning outcomes, and addressed how each theme and outcome has an impact on enhanced employability skills. The major themes identified are as follows:

- Appropriate registers in the use of English
- International business etiquette
- Language skills
- Canadian and global perspectives
- Intercultural competence
- Resiliency and coping skills. (13)

These themes and the more detailed and specific learning outcomes arising from them could inform institutions and practitioners as they begin articulating the desired competencies they hopes students will achieve through participation in mobility programming. These are positive outcomes and goals which can be embedded in the mobility process and program design.

An exhaustive articulation of these outcomes will necessarily embrace categories such as academic, disciplinary and intellectual growth, the gain of linguistic knowledge; but they must also address the gain of social skills, behavioural change, cultural and personal skill acquisition as well as intercultural and interpersonal skill acquisition. Things learned between and from cultures can certainly be applied to one's own culture. Personality traits developed or modified in the struggle to learn and to adapt to a new culture and environment can certainly be applied to other areas of one's life, in one's native milieu. Most individuals develop a native cultural competence without ever thinking about it. "Cultural competence is the language-culture ability individuals develop for use in native societies." (Fantini et al 4) "We take so much for granted about the places where we live, we forget that we once had to learn all we know." (Storti 3) Cultural competence describes how individuals cope and thrive in their home environment, behaviours and skills learned normally at infancy. The components of native cultural competence are "sensitive to context, [...] causing us to modify language and behaviour as appropriate for each situation." These components (symbols, meaning, values) "naturally vary from culture to culture, resulting in the differing configurations of each society's world views." (Fantini et al 5)

"In its broadest sense, education is the cultural process, the way in which each new-born human infant, born with a potentiality for learning greater than that of any other mammal, is transformed into a full member of a specific human society, sharing with the other members a specific human culture." (Mead 309) This concept of transformation is fundamental to the philosophy of study abroad; not the transformation into membership of a native society that Mead speaks of, but rather the same process

when dealing with another culture or other cultures. “In the encounter with another culture the individual gains new experiential knowledge by coming to understand the roots of his or her own ethnocentrism and by gaining new perspectives and outlooks and the nature of culture. [...] Paradoxically, the more one is capable of experiencing new and different dimensions of human diversity, the more one learns of oneself.” (Adler 22)

Study abroad encourages the transformation of students into individuals who can cross over – or ‘switch codes’ – into those who can be sensitive to differences, who can share, empathize, relate and interact with members of other cultures, even if they can never become a full members of that other culture. Proof of the successful acquisition of some or all of these international learning outcomes is the signpost that this transformation has been at least partially successful. These signposts are the outcomes, the behavioural manifestations of an internal learning and internal and attitudinal change; attempts continue to identify these signposts, to articulate the learning outcomes hoped-for from an international experience.

BCCIE has identified five basic themes as the desired outcomes of an international academic experience:

- adapting business English and business etiquette to the needs of international clients
- acquiring basic skills in an additional language or languages
- developing Canadian and global perspectives
- developing intercultural competence
- demonstrating coping and resiliency skills. (Stanley and Mason 3)

The province of British Columbia annually surveys those who graduated from university in the province two years earlier; the 2000 British Columbia University

Graduates Survey (conducted on the 1998 graduating class, and prepared for the University Outcomes Working Committee) was the first to incorporate questions on international work and study experiences. In its unpublished briefing paper on the results of this survey, it states that it pursued questioning on the following international education competencies:

- second language skills
- knowledge of international business practices
- knowledge of global issues
- knowledge of the interconnections between global and local issues
- understanding of the knowledge and traditions of other cultures. (1)

The Association of Canadian Community Colleges (ACCC) has drafted the National Skills Agenda with input from government, business, labour, industry and academe. The replies of respondents to the question “What skills does higher education need to transfer to students who will work in a global world?” included:

- use of the scientific method
- respect for a code of ethics
- motivation to renew one’s knowledge of one’s profession
- ability to work as team
- ability to communicate ideas
- ability to use technology
- ability to work and function abroad
- ability to learn a second or third language.

The Global Learning for All project²² is assisting a number of institutions in attempting to articulate lists of learning outcomes for their study abroad programs, in order to facilitate program models and devise more common strategies for assessment.

Wilson cites a Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) Competency Profile for CIDA Development Officers, developed in 1996, which states that new officers are expected to:

- adapt resourcefully to different cultures, challenges, changes, ambiguity and adversity; adapt effectively to varying levels of pressure and stress;
- communicate, interact and make decisions in ways that demonstrate sensitivity to culture, language, political realities and practices;
- minimize the impact of own cultural and gender biases and practices on others;
- seek to understand the circumstances and need of all partners in development from their perspective (e.g., cultural, political, economic and social);
- deal effectively with multiple demands and competing priorities;
- accept and respond positively to criticism and feedback;
- adapt plans, strategies and behaviours to meet challenging conditions with or outside of the Agency. (12)

Corporate respondents in Wilson's study identified the top three "essential competencies" for effective international operations as:

- ability to operate in other cultures
- tolerance for ambiguity
- ability to communicate. (17)

²² http://www.acenet.edu/programs/international/global_learning/

Arguing from a more specifically ‘workplace competency’ point of view is the Human Resource Development Action Guide, compiled by the Walker Group, a successful business consultancy that specializes in “integrating business strategy and the management of people.” It delineates the core capabilities required of all professionals and managers in today’s workforce:

- mindset
- interacting with others
- individual performance

where under ‘mindset’ are the following requirements

- focus on quality
- think globally
- think analytically
- think strategically
- adapt quickly, flexibly
- cope with ambiguity
- challenge the status quo

and under ‘thinking globally’ Walker’s workers should be able to:

- apply an understanding of global business dynamics to work
- understand the impact of diverse cultures, languages, economies, and other relevant factors on organizational performance
- take a global view in planning and action.

Authors of “Globalization and 21st Century Competencies: Challenges for North American Higher Education” (2001) argue that what is needed is an emphasis on global competencies, developing “intercultural competence” in our learners. “Knowledge alone

is not enough. With this term, attention is focused on how people engage in cross-cultural encounters. In such encounters, individuals face new options, each with a concomitant consequence; but the choices made when entering a new culture are better informed when the players possess cross-cultural skills, positive attitudes, and awareness, in addition to knowledge.” (Fantini et al 1)

“If universities are to continue to play a critical role in preparing leaders to respond to the urgent needs of society, then we have an obligation to enable graduates to

- function effectively in an international and highly competitive economic arena;
- interact, within their communities, with a Canadian citizenry that is of increasing racial and religious diversity;
- engage in intellectual and scholarly activity that finds synergy and fresh insight from using paradigms and models from cultures different from our own;
- supervise, and be supervised by, individuals from diverse nations and cultures at home and overseas;
- generate solutions to issues that transcend national boundaries, using sufficient intercultural skill to ensure widespread participation; and,
- contribute to world peace and stability.” (Vertesi 131)

It can also be argued that other competencies are being achieved, “such as increased intercultural communication, ethno-relativism, intra-personal communication, career enhancement, art appreciation, and improved academic performance/learning.” (Akande and Slawson 5)

The results of a recent survey conducted by the College Placement Council Foundation indicate that the three most important skills employers are looking for

are cognitive talent, social skills and certain personal traits. Important generic skills include the ability to solve problems, make decisions and continually learn, while the paramount social skill is the ability to work effectively in group settings. [...] The study also found that anyone looking for a job in the international arena must have 'cross-cultural competence' – knowledge, skills and traits gained through contact with and the study of other cultures. ("How to Become an Expatriate" 19)

While they argue that intellectual development is the "principle goal of most academic programs abroad" (34), Kauffmann et al categorize outcomes into Intellectual Development Abroad and Personal Development Abroad. They argue that intellectual development is mostly realized in "foreign language learning; the expansion of learning in the major; and the increased general knowledge the student gains" (35). More than equal footing needs to be given, however, to establishing a climate where the personal development of the participant is as important as the intellectual development, and to developing means to measure both series of outcomes with some validity. It is the personal development which occurs in interpersonal and cross-cultural encounters as well as intra-personal growth and change, in terms of understandings and attitudes, which are made manifest in aspects such as self awareness, self confidence, self reliance, increased independence and autonomy, the validation or repudiation of values, new glimpses into life directions, leadership abilities. It is the personal development facilitated by study abroad which reaches closer to the core values of a liberal arts education than any other activity academic or non-academic that is promulgated by the institution. As such, both the intellectual and the personal must be given benchmarks of success and these must be measurable and measured.

A Categorization of Outcomes

As more institutions engage in international activities, and those already active begin to further diversify their programming, study abroad programs are proliferating in number and increasing in diversity in terms of length, content and destination; for example, the recent trend – largely from U.S.-based institutions – is for very short term one-week and two-week programs, over winter, summer or spring breaks. It can easily be argued but must yet be proven that a two-week program with a cohort of fellow English-speaking nationals, likely taught in English, will in no way impart the same impact as a term or year abroad for an individual student, quite possibly in a foreign language or foreign language setting. It is not enough to just study abroad; something more than a passport stamp needs to be anticipated and realized from the activity.

It is important for the field of international education to agree upon a common vernacular of international learning outcomes; to devise, implement and test strategies for achieving these outcomes; and to attempt common assessment procedures of both programs and student participants to see whether these outcomes are being achieved, and most expeditiously through what fashion and what type of program. It is no longer sufficient, as was common in the recent past, to assess programs based solely upon a head count and participant satisfaction. Of course they were satisfied; they just had a great trip and bonded with some new friends. But what did they learn? For how long? Was it a worthwhile endeavour for the student? For the institution? For an entity such as the state that might have been bankrolling and endorsing the activity? Will there be long-term impacts? What will they be? American writer Miriam Beard suggests that “travel is more than the seeing of sights; it is a change that goes on, deep and permanent, in the

idea of living.”²³ But not everyone travels, or at least opens their eyes to travel.

Conversely, another American writer, James Michener argues that “if you reject the food, ignore the customs, fear the religion and avoid the people, you might better stay at home.”²⁴ Can a two-week international sojourn with a group of classmates have an impact outside of statistics for the institution? It is all food for thought.

We have established that the various players, the stakeholders, support or engage in international mobility schemes in anticipation of some outcome positive to their own ends. Regardless of how these outcomes might here or elsewhere be classified, some can truly be said to be generic skills in that they make the person a better worker, citizen, family person, voter, neighbour, etc., and as such are worthwhile outcomes for any state to cultivate in its citizenry regardless of the individual’s ultimate work station or location; some such outcomes would include tolerance of others, and embracing facets of global citizenship. Still other potential outcomes might be more valued by the institutional stakeholder, in that they support the core values we ascribe to a liberal arts education, such as leadership and adaptability. Still others might be purely academic, others more purely career and business oriented.

There are myriad ways of categorizing outcomes, from one single and broad category of International Learning Outcomes, to the other edge of Occam’s Razor²⁵ where we end up with an overly-detailed analysis-heavy description of every possible and

²³ <http://famouscreativewomen.com/one/1088.htm>

²⁴ http://en.thinkexist.com/quotes/james_a_michener/4.html

²⁵ “One should not increase, beyond what is necessary, the number of entities required to explain anything.” Occam’s razor is a logical principle attributed to the mediaeval philosopher William of Occam. It states that one should not make more assumptions than the minimum needed. This principle is often called ‘the principle of parsimony’.
<http://pespmc1.vub.ac.be/OCCAMRAZ.html>

every overlapping outcome. An example from one perhaps overly-zealous institution has broad outcomes headings that include changes in ‘perspective consciousness’, ‘state of the planet consciousness’, ‘awareness of global dynamics’, and ‘awareness of human choices’ together with more traditional outcomes such as cross-cultural awareness.

For the purposes of this discussion and the classification of our inventory we will rely on the architecture supplied by Kauffman et al and their broad categorization of Intellectual Development Abroad and Personal Development Abroad; we can broadly classify outcomes as Intellectual and or Personal, realizing that there is great overlap in various classifications, and what might be deemed here to be a Business or Career outcome or skill is equally as important on other social levels. It can be well argued, however, that a participant’s personal development is fundamental to all other potential outcomes, in that it manifests itself in all other attributes, from academic, intellectual and linguistic growth to social, attitudinal and behavioural attributes.

The classification we propose here offers an expansion of these broad categories, as below, and includes reference to academic, disciplinary, linguistic and career or business outcomes, in addition to other outcomes of personal development such as changes in attitude, behaviour and other social or interdependence outcomes.

Personal Experience as a Motivation and an Outcome

One issue given short shrift in academic discussion of study abroad, an issue that is both a motivation and an outcome for student participants, is that of personal experience; this is not to be confused with the movement of Experiential Learning, popularized most recently by academic David Kolb, where students learn from

experience, move on through reflection and conceptualization to action and then on again to further experience. Rather, personal experience is an often discounted motivation and outcome for the student participant; that is to say, personal experience is not a motivation or outcome discounted by the student at all, but rather one discounted and generally ignored by the other stakeholders, the institution and the state. For these other stakeholders, it is a collateral activity that might function as bait to entice the participant but holds no value in a serious discussion of outcomes.

To the student, on the other hand, the anticipation of personal experience may be the overriding motivation leading to participation; it may not be the only motivation, but it will be a primary motivation. These are young people, from a demographic that is more often than not adventurous and in the North American context to some degree more sexually active than previous generations; many will still be living at home with whatever form their families take, normally abiding by the rules of those households. While some may have previous travel or international experience, this has often been undertaken in the company of family. The study abroad program holds the allure of freedom from these constricts; it promises a different and even exotic locale, together with the opportunity of meeting new and interesting people from similar age groups, others equally as unencumbered by the pressures of home, and all looking for some excitement as part of their academic journey. New experiences to be anticipated include an indulgence of many of the senses; there will be new music, new foods, sights, sounds, smells, tastes, touches, people, dancing, books; there will be physical and emotional experiences, loneliness and homesickness; there will be new sites, new fashions, and new manners and a new environment for socialization, with new groups of people. They will become

accustomed to being away from friends and family, which means being newly independent of family and friends, and they will be meeting new families and friends. They will have a sense of freedom and the ability to create or re-create themselves in a new context. These are not motivations to be discounted.

The palpable excitement that practitioners see on the faces of sojourners as they depart is not there in anticipation of the first foreign assignment, or the first glimpse of the new classroom. An email message received from a field school leader several years ago sums it up: he was leading a group of over twenty students in and through Thailand for a semester; they had just recently arrived, had undergone a short local orientation, and were now "sitting around the guest house pool, in shock, reading their first assignment."

This is not to suggest that the quest for experience is the only motivating factor for participation, or that the majority of participating students are 'party animals', although all practitioners have encountered their share of these individuals on study abroad programs. Rather it is to suggest that a primary motivation for the student is the search for experience, and if that can be realized in a package with academic achievement through the completion of course work abroad, and the resultant positive intellectual and personal development that will accompany this, then this is an appealing package that we as practitioners can put together; it is an appealing option rather than staying at home and academically working through the existing routine.

That much can be said for anticipating personal experience as a motivation; as outcomes, these would be harder to quantify, and to be realistic, to what end? Their personal experiences – whether good or bad or non-existent – will have contributed to

other facets of their personal growth, hopefully their engagement with the local culture, and in a more broad sense to their study abroad experience.

Intellectual Development

Kauffman et al argue that intellectual development is the primary rationale for study abroad programs and ultimately focuses on activities such as “foreign language learning; the expansion of learning in the major; and the increased general knowledge the student gains” (34). In terms of our own categorization of potential outcomes, we will further break down those intellectual development into academic and disciplinary outcomes, career and business outcomes, and linguistic outcomes.

Personal Development

As discussed previously, it can be strongly argued that a participant’s personal development is fundamental to all other potential outcomes, in that it manifests itself in all other attributes, from academic, intellectual and linguistic growth to social, attitudinal and behavioural attributes. These involve both the interpersonal and the intrapersonal that Kauffman et al address, further suggesting that the “majority of [outcome] studies have focused on change in interpersonal development” (99) such as self awareness, self confidence, self reliance increased independence and autonomy. The vernacular we choose to adopt is that of attitude, behaviour and socialization, or rather attitudinal change, behavioural change and social change as potential outcomes of the study abroad period. We have further broken down the category of attitudinal change to look at Cross-cultural and Intrapersonal skills as well as Interpersonal skills. An exhaustive inventory of potential international learning outcomes is to be found in Appendix 3.

Who Wants What?

The international learning outcomes we have referenced truly constitute an inventory of positives; few would argue that supporting programs that facilitate the acquisition of some or even all of these would not be a worthwhile investment, and that the acquisition of many of these potential outcomes would in fact support the core values a traditional liberal arts education purports to inculcate.

There are, of course, potential negatives as well to participating on any international program, or for getting out of bed for that matter: such a list might include damage to body or health, accidents, psychological or physical trauma, political unrest, crime or loss of belongings, a poor learning experience, negative and counter-productive encounters with host or home country nationals, debilitating homesickness or loneliness, the risk of being alone or ostracized; the list could go on if we let it. These are not occurrences that are sought after, and in fact responsible practitioners do their utmost to mitigate if not eliminate the possibility of many of these risks. Even so, life happens and negatives occur. But study abroad programs are developed and implemented, and both leaders and participants recruited and engaged, with the idea that the positives are pursued and that the outcomes above are the goal. Current trends in program risk management are doing their part to offset the tendency towards litigation that has made tentative and easily-spooked sponsors of a number of institutions; unfortunately it is the concomitant loss of the assumption of personal responsibility for all occurrences that creates a liability for program sponsors and renders them more likely to create conditions abroad that mitigate risk as much as they mitigate experience and access to local cultures.

The set is not likely exhaustive, although an attempt has been made to make it as broad as possible and to encompass as many outcomes as the literature raises; we have deliberately excluded that series of outcomes on the level of a student's personal experience, and will let individual students regale those who will listen of these experiences. Few can argue that items in this set are not all positives, and if we could facilitate the acquisition of all, it would be a bonus indeed. However, we have posed the question and danced around the answer with various issues, but we must still pursue a more concise answer to the following question: it is the acquisition of which outcomes which is of most interest to which stakeholders?

The answer to this question can only be surmised, although it does offer fodder for further and interesting research; the pursuit of specific international learning outcomes by this population of study abroad students is being supported by each of the primary stakeholders, but which are more important to whom?

Without the benefit of real data, it would not be a productive exercise to go into possibly tedious detail for each of the items on the inventory above and surmise how each stakeholder might rank each item; however, it is at least a relevant exercise to sketch out in broad terms who might want what. We have already discussed why.

We have articulated the following categories of development abroad:

- academic and disciplinary achievement
- career choice and preparedness
- growth in business skills
- growth in linguistic skills
- attitudinal change

- behavioural change
- social change
- personal experience.

Again, while it would be safe to surmise that all stakeholders would admit to wanting to achieve all of these outcomes, there is more vested interest from the state, for example, in achieving growth in business skills and career preparedness than in having the student gain vast amounts of personal experience; likewise, the institution may have a greater stake in the growth in linguistic skills and academic achievement than it does in the growth of business skills, if only marginally. (Reference Chapter 3 where we presented a comparison of three different and different types of post-secondary institutions in the jurisdiction of British Columbia, in terms of the rationale they employ to support internationalization, their international mission statements, and the activities that are used to intersect programming with students and community.)

That said, a matrix of priorities might look like that attempted immediately below, where each of the designated primary stakeholders might rank (from 1 to 3) its motivation for supporting the activity of study abroad. These rankings must be understood to be based upon preliminary and informal discussions and are not the result of a systematic survey; however, broad consultation with colleagues leads me to believe that they at least approximate a real world prioritization of outcomes, and further and more rigorous testing of these claims might be warranted.

Table 1: Prioritization of Outcomes by Stakeholder

Outcome category	State	Institution	Participant
Academic achievement	2	1	2
Career choice and preparedness	1	1	1
Growth in business skills	1	2	3
Growth in linguistic skills	2	1	2
Attitudinal change	2	1	2
Behavioural change	3	2	3
Social change	2	2	1
Personal experience.	3	3	1

Here at the end of a review of pertinent literature, we would be remiss in not addressing one other issue that has arisen several times already in this dissertation, and one that should be added to the context and literature of the discussion, rather than to the findings and discussion thereof. Specifically, we have argued that a successful sojourn on a study abroad program will help participants achieve more than many other programs an institution promulgates, the desired outcomes of a core liberal arts education; it is truly an interdisciplinary experience we cannot parallel in a domestic setting. We pursue that discussion here.

Interdisciplinarity and International Learning Outcomes

The field of international education has emerged as a unique vocation and as an independent and discrete discipline worthy of study and research; approaches to the field have moved from those purely theoretical and conceptual to a more analytical and academic level, as perhaps both a cause and an effect of the higher profile and growing prevalence and acceptance of international programs and curricula at universities. However, the field is still ripe for codification and for the diligent research needed to

become further established in its own right, in order to confirm long-held beliefs and put academic weight behind anecdote.

International education is also a field that encapsulates many of the “fundamental issues in higher education that are reflected here in magnified form.” (Goodwin and Nacht ix) These include curriculum reform, residency requirements and both credit accumulation and transfer, education versus training, the use of technology, and distance and online education; it has encouraged discussion of the value and parameters of a liberal education and of both the role and the future of the university in the face of unprecedented change. It is also a field that exemplifies the best and most complex aspects of interdisciplinarity, in that both in practice and in research it marries many disciplines: language and language learning; communication; learning and education; education and training; culture, inter-culture and cross-culture; geography; psychology; both anthropology and sociology. A student can learn to appreciate that even in a discipline as apparently codified and systematized as chemistry, for example, there are cultural differences manifested in the laboratory and the classroom and in the gender of practitioners, and these are manifested in both what is taught and how it is taught; it becomes a necessary but repetitive engagement to assure the stay-at-home chemistry professor that his curriculum will be covered by the teacher overseas, and also to discuss with him that in fact even though our students may not learn exactly the same thing over there, or in the same manner, they should still become engaged.

The role and importance of interdisciplinarity cannot be underestimated in learning culture and how to deal with the world any more than it can be taken for granted in learning in general; indeed, in much major curriculum revision currently being

undertaken in post-secondary North America, both interdisciplinarity and internationalization are recurring, predominant and interconnected themes and motivations. In fact, the literature is beginning to highlight “the role of these international programs in shaping a rounded, culturally sensitive individual, which happens to be one of the guiding principles of higher education around the world. [...] A concrete example of this drive to internationalize is Harvard University, where students are now expected to have a passport (which is still not common in the United States), and where internationalization has been made one of the cornerstones of curricular developments at the university.” (Van Hoof et al 43)

Life, culture and society, and employment rarely manifest themselves in discrete elements or disciplines and are by their very nature interdisciplinary. “The most exciting ideas are often to be found when we cross disciplinary boundaries” (Rowland 1)

Seemingly, the last bastion of the independent and discrete discipline is in academe; “as the volume of knowledge multiplies in increasingly shorter periods of time, it continues to be divided into more narrow disciplines.” (Vincenti 43) Faculty conduct research and prefer to teach in their areas of expertise; students major in a discipline, increasingly narrow and focused as one approaches and pursues higher levels of graduate and post-graduate study. This trend encourages the perception of complex phenomena as discrete elements, and it fundamentally discourages interconnectedness and holistic approaches to the world and its pageants of knowledge and understanding. Rather than crossing disciplinary boundaries, universities have instead been “concentrating on questions which arise within our own disciplinary territories, rather than with the problems of others or of the wider world. In a context of teaching and research which is governed by utilitarian

principles and economic imperatives, the pressure to engage and cross these boundaries is increasing.” (Rowland 1)

If the role of an advanced liberal education is to produce a well-rounded individual prepared for an active role in an evolving society, rather than to merely accrue seat time or garner enough credit points to master a set of academic principles as governed by a narrow and prescribed curriculum; and, if the rhetoric of an international education is to be truly believed; then it is incumbent upon practitioners and researchers in the field to rigorously question and research the assumptions that mark the foundations of support for international education and for increased government funding of the activity, as much as it is incumbent upon them to vigorously lobby within the institution to ensure that the internationalization agenda is being addressed on different levels. “Several researchers point to a gap between the role of colleges and universities and the needs of students and employers, ... [and] many researchers cite the lack of preparedness of higher education graduates for work in a global context.” (Fantini et al 2) It is likely that this gap can be bridged in part by paying closer attention to the role and potential role of both international content and activities and interdisciplinary programming in the university.

An interesting perspective on the relationship between international and interdisciplinarity can be achieved if one views disciplines as cultures; one can then view the “impact of international/intercultural experiences [...] at least somewhat parallel to interdisciplinary work in that it is also intercultural work.” (Vincenti 52) The author paraphrases educator Tony Becher (1989) in saying that:

disciplines are not just intellectual subdivisions of knowledge, they are knowledge communities defined and reinforced by myths, unifying symbols, canonized exemplars, and the formation of guilds that create distinctive cultural characteristics. [...] This tribal differentiation from other disciplines is manifested, for example, through different artefacts in one's office; language used; modes in which arguments are generated, developed, expressed and reported; and the different epistemological bases for evaluating others' work, [...] thus rendering the discipline 'beyond the reach of the uninitiated'. (53)

Becher himself goes on to argue that these academic tribes themselves "define their own identities and defend their own patches of intellectual ground by employing a variety of devices geared to the exclusion of illegal immigrants." (24)

Different disciplines may also employ different teaching orientations, hold differing educational values and engage in different lifestyles. The further and higher that the learner progresses into a discipline, the more she becomes socialized into that discipline and commits to its mythology and world view. The discipline-focused research engaged in by faculty motivates their teaching and its content; the publication imperative further directs research and the reporting thereof through prescribed channels and fora. It is therefore not outlandish to compare disciplines to cultures, and thus to equate the skills needed to successfully engage in interdisciplinarity with those needed to successfully engage in intercultural and international pursuits and to move between cultures.

It is also plausible to equate the skills engendered by interdisciplinarity with those engendered by intercultural and international engagement, and to pursue curricular change and programming to that end. Not all will agree: "Other instructors oppose curricular restructuring on the grounds that it impedes academic freedom, and many

regard international or comparative additions to their own disciplines as an intrusion into the purity of their own field.” (Bond and Scott 56)

Vincenti compares the qualities needed for successful interdisciplinarity and successful intercultural interactions and surmises that many of these qualities are shared, including “flexibility, sensitivity to others, non-ethnocentricity, [...] tolerance of ambiguity, preference for diversity, and initiative and assertiveness.” (55) The view that these are skills needed for intercultural success is supported by Fantini et al: “Most intercultural sojourners can readily identify behavioural traits that facilitate or inhibit cross-cultural success. The qualities they most commonly cite are: flexibility, patience, humour, empathy, openness, respect, non-judgementalness, and tolerance for ambiguity.” (9)

It is therefore of more than a little importance to suggest that institutions should support both the drive towards interdisciplinarity in ongoing curricular revision as well as the need to give learners (and faculty) greater opportunity for international experience. Both can offer, reinforce and complement the skills needed in the new economy and society, and both lean more towards experiential rather than traditional modes of delivery and learning.

It is generally agreed that the most efficacious way of developing intercultural skills in students is through international mobility programs, through largely experiential modes of delivery. The apparent parallels between international education and an interdisciplinary education should be made more explicit and should be supported; alliances between those involved in curriculum revision and those involved in international activities should be formed to that effect.

Concluding Remarks

We have in this chapter reviewed current literature and argued a number of salient points. First, students abroad are achieving specific learning outcomes that they would not normally achieve at home. There are concrete learning outcomes, what we coin international learning outcomes, that can be anticipated and facilitated for participants of international programs. Second, these outcomes can be categorized and inventoried in terms of intellectual development – including a change or growth in academic and disciplinary outcomes, career choice and preparedness, business practices, and linguistic skills – as well as in terms of personal growth and development – including a change or growth in cross-cultural and interpersonal skills, and intrapersonal skills as well as other behavioural and social skills. Third, anticipation of some of these outcomes represent the motivation for sojourners to participate in the activity of study abroad. Anticipation of some of these outcomes also represent the motivation for the other key stakeholders – specifically the state and the institution – to support the activity of study abroad. However, each stakeholder in the process will support the activity for differing reasons, i.e., in anticipation of different outcomes from the other stakeholders.

Much of the literature on international mobility is still “dominated by the need to do ‘more of the same’ by acquiring disciplinary content rather than focusing on thinking competencies that would help people do the kind of cognitive shifting needed. [...] We have come to believe that interculturally-informed intellectual competencies are not learned from traditional academic disciplines – or in other words, that universities do not purposefully and systematically prepare students to live and work in culturally diverse environments.” (Yershova et al 40) This literature review has concluded with a

contribution to the curriculum debate, and to support towards the facilitation of specific learning outcomes in both a domestic and an international setting; these need not be mutually exclusive, and in fact greater attempts to engineer learning towards specific outcomes on a domestic basis dovetails nicely with the push for greater attention to the measurement and facilitation of outcomes on the international stage.

Chapter 5: Research

The truth is rarely pure and never simple.

Oscar Wilde, *The Importance of Being Earnest*

Researchers

As detailed early in Chapter One, I was engaged as the principal researcher by BCCIE to conduct a study on tracking award winners from a BC government-funded awards program administered by BCCIE. The awards program assisted students in studying overseas, and the intent of the study was to assess what learning outcomes were achieved by participants in these overseas programs. Much of the survey design and delivery was conducted with the great assistance of co-researcher Ms Shaheen Nanji, a colleague from International Programs in Continuing Studies at SFU. Together we drafted various iterations of the questionnaire that were then vetted and finally approved by BCCIE. Responses were returned to that organization in its capacity as the administrator of the awards program, they were tabulated and returned to me with original response questionnaires, and a summary report was provided to the organization. The original intent of the activity was to issue a larger and more formal research report, but unfortunately, before this could be undertaken, base funding was withdrawn from BCCIE and no further support could be given to its research and publication agenda; these data were to languish unanalysed and unused. These data are being used as per the original intent of the study, and with the prior approval of BCCIE, the Office of Research Ethics at SFU, the respondents themselves and my supervisory committee.

Research Aims

The motivation for engaging in research is a search for truth; it is a systematic investigation in search of facts, of a piece or an accumulation of data that will develop, support or refute a claim, that will support or not support a theory, that will motivate a search for new theory, or that will contribute to generalizable knowledge. As such, the theoretical foundations of and assumptions for the research are fundamental to the design of the research instrument, and are the crux of the academic argument to be made in a given body of work. They lead naturally to the explication of the resultant data; in fact, all else in a work such as this dissertation either leads up to or logically away from the research itself; the relevance and appropriateness of the arguments, the formation of the hypothesis, articulation of assumptions, and the resultant support for these arguments rests entirely on the strength and validity of the research. It is therefore incumbent upon the researcher to show due diligence in designing an appropriate instrument to test the phenomenon under scrutiny, and to attempt a clear and relevant explication of these findings.

In this chapter we will define our research aims, pose a hypothesis, detail our research assumptions, and examine the research instrument and the choices made in its construction and the methodological architecture behind it. In anticipation of a discussion of the research findings in Chapter Six, we will then look at the study – the implementation of the study, the population sample, the analysis of data – and close the chapter with a discussion of the strengths and limitations of the study and how these might impact findings; recommendations will follow as to how the research instrument might be adapted for further use.

International Learning Outcomes are manifested in both the Intellectual Development of learners and in their Personal Development, facets of which are intrinsically connected to 'attitudinal change', a phenomenon that is notoriously hard to measure. It is one thing to measure academic progress in a discipline, or enhanced fluency in a language, and altogether another to accurately measure attitudinal change even on a qualitative basis, let alone attempting to measure attitudinal shifts in larger populations and on a quantitative basis. It is imperative, however, as the field of international education further emerges as unique, independent and worthy of independent study – and as the field assumes a higher profile internationally, politically and institutionally – that academic rigour be further applied to the testing and supporting of claims made in the field, and that a shift towards quantitative research – and the concomitant generalizability of these results to larger populations – be used to complement the ongoing and necessarily qualitative nature of much study abroad research and be used to further support long-standing claims made by the field; these claims are not modest.

A person's attitudes are independent of but intrinsically linked to his behaviour; in marketing terminology, attitudes are an interdependent amalgam of an individual's beliefs about something, feelings about something, and most importantly behavioural intent towards something, contextually normally an item, a brand or a store. Unfortunately for those in the marketing profession, consumers do not always behave consistently with their attitudes, and the marketing agenda is then to change attitudes sufficiently to change behavioural intent and behaviour. In order to change consumer attitudes it is necessary to change basic motivations, to positively link attitudinal change

with a new item or experience, and both to change some existing beliefs and to resolve conflicting attitudes. In marketing, attitudinal change will then normally precede change of a consumer's behavioural intent and thus behaviour. Supporters of study abroad and international mobility claim as outcomes both intellectual and behavioural change as well as attitudinal change and personal development.

International education practitioners have observed and reported for years the dramatic change that occurs in participants returned from study abroad programs, in linguistic growth and both disciplinary breadth and depth, but most vividly they report on change in areas outside of the classroom, in non-academic or non-disciplinary skills, primarily in personal growth. The early research is rife with citations of multitudes of examples of personal growth attributable to the period of foreign study: increased maturity, responsibility, tolerance, independence, self assurance, confidence, the list goes on; they cite these outcomes from personal observation and from qualitative studies in the form of interviews, journals and case studies of individuals. It is only recently, however, that these claims have come under closer scrutiny by a number of stakeholders; in order to maintain existing support and coax new support from these stakeholders, specifically both the state and the institution, encouragement has come from both within and from outside of the field to better research and validate these claims through further analysis of individual change and through the addition of quantitative analyses of outcomes in larger populations.

Attitudinal change is not necessarily behavioural change, although it can manifest itself as such; attitudinal change cannot always be observed, as behavioural change most often can, and as such researchers must rely on self-reporting and on other more

subjective means of testing. It is through the introspective and qualitative components of such research – through interviews, observation, case studies and field studies, diaries and self-reporting, through travelogues and ethnographies – that we can glean the detail and the richness of such change, albeit often self-reported through the prism of a participants' own perception of the experience, or subjectively as reported through the linked observer. It is then through an accumulation and a critical mass of data on personal experiences and self-reported assessments that we can begin to ascertain trends and patterns, encouraging the quantitative components of international research that have largely been missing to date. In a sense it is a universal in science manifest here again that individual observation, reflection and qualitative study lay the foundation for theories that can then be tested quantitatively.

Approach

We are operating on the assumption that qualitative and quantitative research and explication are not discrete and polar opposites but rather two often complementary points on one continuum; we believe that all data are to a degree subjective but that this makes them no more or less valid. Thomas Kuhn argued²⁶ that a paradigm is essential to all scientific inquiry; to paraphrase, research needs an architecture, a hook to hang its coat on. Paradigms are achieved through “past scientific achievements, achievements that some particular scientific community acknowledges for a time as supplying the foundation for its further practice.” (cited in Pajares 1) Kuhn's view that scientific inquiry begins with a random collection of facts suggests that these are facts that would normally be noted or collected through observation, through individual phenomena; that

²⁶ In his seminal work *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*.

is to say, inquiry begins with qualitative observation and consciously or not uses this as a motivation to attempt explanations of reality. This observation and the search for an explanation of these random facts lead naturally – in the growth of scientific inquiry in a specific field – to issues of generalizability, applicability and replicability, that is, towards quantitative approaches.

The debate between the qualitative and the quantitative is age-old and will not be furthered by the addition of opinions voiced in this dissertation; concerns of validity, replicability and relevance haunt both camps. However, it can be compellingly argued that the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is a “false dichotomy” and that these are not discrete activities at all, but rather different points on a continuum (Newman and Benz 1); a logical extension of this belief would then be to posit related and relative degrees of validity. Of direct relevance to the explication of the current research is that this perception of degrees or levels of validity persists in academe. Even across the spectrum of educational and social science research, some argue that one end of this continuum is perhaps more ‘real’ research, quantitative being confirmatory and deductive in nature, that it carries more weight, is replicable and valid and scientific; and that the other end of the spectrum, the qualitative, is exploratory and inductive in nature, that it produces irreproducible results and achieves little of disciplinary merit in the process; the assumption still exists of a continuum of validity, when in fact these research “paradigms coexist in a unified real world of inquiry” (xii) and the present research embraces seeing them as such.

It is argued that the qualitative has concerns of objective validity; the quantitative has concerns of subjective reliability. Ultimately, however these concerns say more

about an individual's subscription to the canons of a disciplinary philosophy than they say about methodology; they reside on a plane different from where rest the data. Both approaches use a methodology to examine their reality, and the reality is that qualitative research can be illustrated numerically as easily as quantitative results can be described textually. By the very definition of measurement, nothing can be measured twice – not the contents of a test tube, not a river and not a person – and both approaches must therefore deal with the subjectivity of observation.

And subjectivity, and the subsequent relevance of subjective data, are crucial to an understanding and acceptance of the explication of the current research as much as they are to the acceptance of most other social science and educational research. While results from a self-assessment, such as that employed in the current research, are necessarily subjective, it is a truth in Science that ultimately all data are subjective. There is a continuum of subjectivity and subjective reality is as real as the continuum of validity raised earlier.

For illustration of this issue, one need look no further than the debate in quantum mechanics that revolves around observable data. The argument for subjectivity suggests that quantum phenomena have no fixed values until they are observed and that the act of observation creates these values. The debate pits the 'subjectivists' – and their claim that objective reality is an illusion, and consciousness is primary, and trees don't fall if no one hears them – against the 'objectivists' who argue that it is not the act of observation or some related consciousness which creates observable reality and phenomena, but rather it

is the simple and mindless interaction of matter and energy that exists independent of observation. The tree still falls and the cat is both alive and dead, observed or not.²⁷

The debate will continue as to the idiosyncratic nature of self-assessment and its apparent lack of objectivity. The implementation and explication of qualitative research are often rendered even more difficult than quantitative by the very complexity of that being studied, in our current case specifically the inner workings of the human animal. For example, in the context of a student's self-assessment of growth in language ability, Pellegrino suggests that "introspective techniques ask that learners report on processes and events within their learning of which they may not even be aware or that they may be unable to characterize adequately." (92) Regardless, we support the assumption here made that the validity of perception is not to be discounted, and that the validity of self-perception and self-assessment, while subjective, is not to be discounted. Who more than a rational subject can comment on internal change that may or may not be manifest to others, on attitudinal change and both behavioural intent and behavioural change.

In the current context, we are fully aware of the dangers of attempting to measure such complex areas as attitudinal change and both intellectual and personality growth and change through self assessment. It is the researcher's belief, however, that it is this very

²⁷ Schrodinger's cat is a famous thought experiment devised by Erwin Schrodinger in 1935, an hypothesis in which a cat was somehow both alive and dead at the same time. It suggests that if quantum mechanics is indeterminate and subjective, then it would apply to the quantum world, but also in the real world. One puts a cat in a sealed box with a test tube of deadly gas, which will be released if some event transpires, say the cat breaks it or a radioactive isotope decays. Outside of the box there is no way of knowing if the event has transpired and therefore if the cat is alive or not. There is a calculable probability that at any given time while the cat is in the box that the event will transpire, or not, but this event does not happen until the box is opened and it is "observed". Later in life Schrodinger suggested he wished he had never met that cat. Any text or web article referencing Schrodinger will have details of his cat.

complexity and idiosyncrasy, and the accumulation of data from similar studies, which make the exercise important despite its potential flaws.

The Study and the Population

One constituency actively supporting the internationalization process is the province of British Columbia, which for the decade 1990-2000 supported the outward mobility of its students through an awards program – International Learning Grants – administered by the BCCIE. There is a great diversity of post-secondary institutional type in the jurisdiction of British Columbia, and the BCCIE grant program assisted British Columbia post-secondary students from colleges, universities, university colleges and institutes to study at institutions in countries across Latin America, Asia and the Pacific. Eligibility for application to the awards program required Canadian citizenship or permanent residency, full-time enrolment in a public institution of one of the types listed above, and at least one year of residency in the province.

The research population consisted of all recipients of BCCIE's International Learning Grants since the program's inception in 1990. At the time of its inception, the awards program offered substantial grants to support student travel to and study in countries in Asia and the Pacific. Late in the decade the program was broadened to include a number of countries in Latin America as well. The annual awards are competitive and are granted to British Columbian post-secondary students based upon criteria such as the applicant's grade point average, rationale for study program, study destination, and the strength of reference letters.

The population sampled was students who had studied abroad over the span of a decade; i.e., between 1990 and 2000. Respondents met the criteria of the BCCIE awards program, received BCCIE awards, and studied abroad using funds from the award. As such they:

- were Canadian post-secondary students who had resided in British Columbia for at least one year
- had an above-average grade point average
- had a detailed and rational plan of study for their proposed program abroad and destination
- studied abroad for a minimum of four weeks and a maximum supported period of one year
- completed their program at least three months prior to being surveyed, although some may have since returned to work or study overseas.

The total number of award recipients – and for the purposes of this study, those who had completed their term(s) abroad – was 332 individuals. Of the 246 it was possible to locate, 97 individuals responded to the survey, for a response rate of just over 39%. It was hoped that most of those contacted would be supportive of the research and be interested in sharing their opinions about their time abroad and the response rate was in fact large enough to gather relevant data.

A questionnaire was devised and sent to all locatable award recipients in June of 2001 and a request was made that they complete and return the questionnaire within one month.

The Present Study

The present study has built upon established definitions in terms of assessing what short-term and long-term outcomes have been achieved, and to what effect. These

include benchmarks of both intellectual (academic, career, linguistic) and personal (cross-cultural, interpersonal, intrapersonal) development and growth:

- a change in or confirmation of the direction of academic discipline
- a change in or confirmation of a chosen career
- the completion of the degree in progress and/or the pursuance of a further education after the international experience
- the learning of new languages and their importance in the work place and in life in general
- appropriate use of different registers of English
- further travel and/or work abroad after the international experience
- the understanding of different and international business practices
- the understanding and appreciation of different cultures
- the development of tolerance towards differences
- the further development of sensitivity and tact
- a better understanding of the world and of the interconnection between global and local events
- psychological preparedness for new situations
- increased and diverse problem-solving techniques
- increased self-confidence, autonomy and self-awareness.

The research presented here offers data drawn from admittedly subjective self-assessments by individuals of their progress towards achieving these outcomes as a result of the international experience. It is beyond the scope of the present research, however, to research all of the variables that might have affected individuals' predilection for studying abroad; their choices and abilities to study abroad; the disciplines they are in; the reasons they choose to study in a particular location, program or institution; and the

outcomes achieved in correlation to these many variables. Discussion of these as avenues for further research will be addressed in the final chapter. Rather, we are here focussing on the short-term and long-term outcomes achieved by participants.

Hypothesis

The pure scientist will call her hypothesis a ‘theory’ and her ‘research’ a test of that theory. The hypothesis is the “if – then” motivation for the research, the educated guess, the conjectural supposition that is posited in order to facilitate the search for facts; nothing can be assumed about the validity of the hypothesis, however, until the data are available and have been interpreted; they then either support or do not support the hypothesis. The hypothesis poses different or possible solutions to the problem, often expectations of results. A good hypothesis will be simple, reasonable, and consistent with both facts and theory available to the researcher; it should be testable or measurable; and the researcher should be able to prove that it is correct or incorrect, or to supply data that lend support to the hypothesis being correct or incorrect.

In the current research we are hypothesizing that there will be a measurable (and value-laden in that in the assessment of practitioners it is both ‘desirable’ and ‘positive’) change in certain attributes of the individual participants based upon their period of study abroad, and that the period of study abroad is causally linked to these changes as the primary or one of the major factors motivating this change.

Research Assumptions

Research demands certain critical assumptions, and these must be valid for the research to proceed and have generalizability and applicability; these assumptions form

the foundation upon which the study must rest and need to be made explicit. Research assumptions are conditions taken for granted, and without which the research would not be feasible or indeed possible. These assumptions are often self-evident and many times researchers consider it unnecessary to mention them or neglect to reference all of them; we will attempt to do so, however, in order to assist in rendering a clearer evaluation of the research and its findings.

In the current research we are making a number of critical assumptions that are clearly reflected in the design of the research instrument. Specifically, we have assumed that:

- all respondents met the criteria of the awards program and received an award
- all respondents were therefore above average students who had applied for the award and participated of their own volition and, one assumes, out of an existing interest in studying a discipline or language in a different country
- all respondents were therefore Canadian citizens or permanent residents and were resident in British Columbia for at least one year at the time of application
- all respondents were therefore enrolled full-time in a public post-secondary institution in British Columbia, specifically either a university, university college, college or institute
- all respondents went abroad
- all respondents completed their allotted period of study abroad
- all respondents completed their period of study in a foreign culture and foreign linguistic setting and at a foreign institution
- all respondents studied under competent foreign instructors in programs recognized before departure by their home Canadian institution
- all respondents studied in classrooms with foreign classmates

- all respondents had a substantial amount of contact with host country nationals.
- there may be pre-existing variables that pre-dispose participants to study abroad
- there may be pre-existing variables that pre-dispose participants to achieve certain outcomes from a study abroad period.

Research Methodology

In order to truly test for the achievement of outcomes, and for growth and positive change in terms of career planning and academic achievement, as well as behavioural and attitudinal change, we must assume a relationship of trust with the respondents. They must be allowed to comment upon their own perceptions of change and growth, and we partially achieve this through the inclusion of a number of open-ended questions in the questionnaire; these open-ended questions follow a series of questions using a five-point Likert scale²⁸, or a five-point impact scale, which is a standard assessment tool used to measure attitude. This was felt to be the most common, economical and efficient research scale available to measure attitude and attitudinal change.

It is now generally agreed that attitudes can be measured. If they can be measured, we can learn to anticipate behaviour and behavioural change as a result of this measurement, and we can surmise how these attitudes are changed due to the influence of variables such as age and the passing of time, change in life circumstances or other social pressures, or phenomena such as a period of study abroad. As such, we can agree that attitudes are learned, either actively or passively, and thus can be taught or (often with difficulty) changed, and they can be measured; an attitude is always manifest in relation

²⁸ named after psychologist and management theorist Rensis Likert.

to an issue, a thing, a trait or an object, and the malleability of the attitude is tied directly to the object or issue the attitude is manifest towards. A numbers of variables (the social, the personal and/or behavioural, the cognitive) can influence the strength and consistency of an attitude, and how it is then manifest in behaviour.

Other terms are often used interchangeably with ‘attitude’, terms such as values, beliefs, opinions. Values dictate decisions on moral or ethical dilemmas and tell the holder what is right or wrong, good or bad, and as such are broader than attitudes; values are normally only positive in nature, while attitudes can be positive, neutral or negative. Values are much harder to change than attitudes.²⁹ Beliefs function as the “cognitive basis” for attitudes (Kobella 1) and provide “information for attitudes by linking objects and attributes”. The term ‘opinion’ carries less weight in social science circles and is generally assumed to be the verbal manifestation of an attitude, belief or value.

Another way of looking at attitudes suggests that they are composed of the affective (a person’s feelings), of the cognitive (a person’s beliefs) and often but not always of the behavioural (a person’s actions). Attitudes can affect these components and these components can affect attitudes.

Regardless, the fact that the attitude – specifically that ‘thing’ we are attempting to measure – is itself comprised of components, all of which can act independently of the greater whole, shows with what difficulty we can measure it. We cannot directly observe attitudes, as we might be able to some of their constituent parts or manifestations, we can only ask about them. As such, an attitude is a construct that must be measured indirectly.

²⁹ (See Kobella for a succinct discussion of these phenomena.)

The methodology and instruments we choose need to be both reliable and valid and it is with some care that we must choose a tool of measurement.

There is but a small number of instruments that have gained any standard of widespread use and acceptance to measure attitudes, and for the purposes of the present research we have decided to employ one of the most popular. It is the self-report instrument known as the Likert scale. Ultimately, the Likert scale was chosen for use in the current research due to widespread acceptance by researchers in the field, due to its acceptance and ease of understanding by practitioners in the field, and in part to the ease of administration of the test; the Likert scale is a series of questions or attitude statements, each comprised of a stem or statement and that completed by a scale, as in the following example:

Stem: The impact of this study abroad experience on my career choice was profound.

Scale: Disagree strongly

Disagree somewhat

Can't say

Agree somewhat

Agree strongly.

Respondents are typically asked to identify the point on the scale which best expresses their degree of agreement or disagreement with the stem statement. The five-point scale shown above is the most common, although longer or shorter scales can be used, albeit with fewer degrees of relevance for a shorter scale. Similarly, the number of

questions or items one uses has a direct effect on the relevance of the study; one item would not give much valid information. In the current study we employed 47 question items utilizing the Likert scale, which should offer a critical mass sufficient to show consistency in answers and attitudes. Likert answers are typically scaled on a continuum and on our questionnaire items were scaled from negative to positive, from one to five. Data collected are ordinal (ranked from most to least), and are in an inherent sequence. Responses elicited were coded 1-2-3-4-5 and are detailed in the next chapter using elucidation of each item's median, mode, arithmetic mean and standard deviation from the mean as illustrative techniques.

A 'summated' scale has been used for measurement; these are often used when measuring a "set of items designed to reflect very favourable or unfavourable responses to some issue or idea with items reacted to by individuals in a sample or population" (Adams & Schvaneveldt 159.) In a summated scale, a numerical value is attached to each response, ideally in ascending or descending order as appropriate to the scale, final figures are tallied and analyzed and scores for both individual respondents or individual questionnaire items can be obtained and a "summated response represents the most favourable attitude under measurement" (160).

One problem that may arise when using Likert-scale items is that researchers may come across respondents who are equivocal, who can't make an educated guess at what they truly feel or don't want to commit and who may choose a middle of the road or 'on the fence' answer. They gravitate towards 'three' on the five-point scale with some consistency, while other respondents may in fact be unequivocal but sincerely feel

neutral, or feel 'three'. It is felt that the larger the sample size, the more this phenomenon will be relegated into relative insignificance.

Other Methodological Options

For reasons primarily associated with its common use in the field of international education research, the Likert scale was chosen as the methodology for the current research, although other methodological options that might have been employed in the current research instead of Likert. Q-Methodology, for example, responds to the common point of view that subjectivity is impossible to study either systematically or with any degree of precision. Q methodology involves three time periods: the drafting period of the lone researcher developing a set of statements to be sorted; the qualitative time of the researcher having participants sort these statements along a continuum from agreement to disagreement; and the quantitative period of data analysis and interpretation. Q-methodology and its 'Q-sorting' of data "encompasses a distinctive set of psychometric and operational principles that [...] provides researchers a systematic and rigorously quantitative means for examining human subjectivity (McKeown and Thomas 7). The premise for the methodology is that subjective views – such as attitudes – are communicable and always "advanced from a point of 'self-reference.' Thus construed, subjective communication is amenable to 'objective analysis' (7). Concern with the methodology is perhaps philosophical, in that its very premise is founded upon an embrace of the objectivist theories on the qualitative – quantitative continuum, that a measurement of a subjective phenomenon can be made more palatable only through a numerical analysis and its 'objectivization'. That said, the methodology – and the results it reports – appears sound and is gaining converts and practitioners in social science

research circles; the reason for adapting Likert over Q in the current research was less philosophical and more practical, in that Q requires the presence of the researcher and the subjects together for a period appropriate to the rigorous explanation and then delivery of the test, and the population of the present research was spread across British Columbia, Canada and in some instances across the globe. Using Q the present research population would have been dramatically smaller.

Another self-report test, similar in intent if not design to Likert, is Projective tests, which were developed out of the psychoanalytic tradition. They are based on the Freudian assumption that some of our inner thoughts are partially revealed by the way we project our interpretations when confronted with a stimulus. The Rorschach ink blot, for example, offers subjects a set of abstract designs and the respondent reports what he or she feels they can see in the picture. This type of test was deemed inappropriate to the construct under scrutiny.

The use of Semantic Differential scales was one final methodological option to be considered; this scale is comprised of a series of opposing adjectival pairs (e.g., helpful-unhelpful, good-bad, calm-anxious) listed on opposite sides of a page; there are seven spaces between the bipolar pairs. The attitude under scrutiny is identified at the top of the scale and the subject is encouraged to evaluate the attitude object by placing a mark in one of the seven spaces between each pair. The premise behind Semantic Differential scales is that the primary reason for measuring attitude is to measure behaviour and behavioural intent, while the current research had more interest in pursuing a measurement of attitudinal change. As such, ultimately for a number of reasons

including its common usage in the vernacular of international educational research, Likert was adopted for use.

Research Instrument

The research instrument devised was appropriate to our research assumptions and included both value-laden and value-free questions as well as both yes/no and open-ended questions. It was a detailed eleven-page self-administered questionnaire, to be found in Appendix 4. Under a covering letter it was sent to the population on June 22nd of 2001, and it was requested that it be completed and returned within one month, by July 24th of 2001. It was estimated that the questionnaire would take approximately one hour to complete.

The first section of the questionnaire (1) Current Personal Information solicited personal and demographic information and variables such as the respondent's age, gender, and ethnicity; the country of birth of both the respondent and his parents; the level of education the respondent had achieved, and both the discipline and type of academic program he was in if still currently enrolled; and current employer and type of business and job duties. An open-ended question was appended soliciting comments on whether the international experience has assisted in the performance of the duties of this employment.

Section two of the questionnaire (2) International Program Information pursued what we might coin 'programmatic variables' and solicited information on the respondent's home and host institutions, and who arranged the program (independently arranged or through a formal exchange); respondents were asked to identify the host

country and language of instruction there, the reasons for the choice of this destination, the academic focus of the international program, the dates and length of the program, and if she had extended her stay in the host country and for what reason.

Section three (3) (Experience Prior to the International Program) solicited information that might assist in assessing an individual's predisposition and motivation towards study abroad and thus towards achieving the hypothesized outcomes. It addressed issues such as the level, type and discipline of post-secondary education achieved prior to departure as well as pre-departure employment experience; it requested information on obstacles to participation, and in addition to asking the total cost of the program solicited information as to sources of funding outside of the BCCIE grant. Further questions explored languages studied or spoken before the program, countries visited or lived in before the program, languages spoken at home and by parents, levels of parents' post-secondary education, and level of preparation and orientation given to the respondent before departure on the program. The section closed with a reflective piece asking respondents to recall their thoughts and anticipation of this program before departure, what they thought they might get out of it at that time.

The questionnaire then focussed on the actual survey of self assessments of actual outcomes. Section four (4) Impact of International Experience pursued questioning about post-program outcomes such as level and type of education achieved after the program (and any change or affirmation of direction), occupation, post-program language ability, relevance of program to post-program employment or studies, changes in interpersonal relationships and interactions with others, attitudinal change and other post-program activities such as internships, travel or employment that might have been motivated

directly by the period abroad. This section closed with four open-ended questions soliciting respondent's assessment of long-term impact of the program.

In those questions exploring impact and soliciting self-assessments of change and attitude, the five-point Likert Scale was used in three forms, ranking answers from 'Very Positive' to 'Very Negative'; from 'Very Important' to 'Not Useful'; and from 'Very Helpful' to 'Not Applicable'.

Pilot Testing

A pilot of the questionnaire was run on a group of twelve (12) students from Simon Fraser University field school programs, pre-program and post-program, a population that it was hoped would both anticipate and later exhibit similar or identical attitudinal shifts to the larger research population. It was a helpful exercise in order to streamline components of the questionnaire; some ambiguous, some leading and other redundant items were eliminated. The questionnaire was also vetted by practitioner colleagues in the field of international education for relevance and applicability.

The pilot explored what respondents anticipated or experienced in the following areas: personal growth, personal experience, academic growth, knowledge of another culture, knowledge of your own culture, and other concerns. It revealed in some ways a naiveté about the reality of overseas travel and experience and in other ways a surprising sophistication in self-analysis and expectations; for all respondents in the pilot the overseas program was a pivotal event in their academic and personal lives and this fact was borne out with the larger research group. These results also supported the relevance

of self-perception and self-analysis, in short, of qualitative methodology, for studies in this area.

The results from the pilot group indicated areas to focus on in the final questionnaire, including broader areas of personal and interpersonal growth, academic growth and intellectual development and included issues of independence, autonomy, confidence, tolerance, sensitivity, self awareness, and a number of other variables that were thus included in the final questionnaire.

What the pilot study also brought to the fore was the wealth of research data available to practitioners in the field of international education; every day walking through international offices are willing and able representatives of international programs, students enthusiastically embarking upon life-altering adventures with the strong support of the administrative arms of research institutions; if only there could be more of a marriage internally at these institutions between the student service aspect of international education and by common perception the loftier goals of the research imperative, the results would speak for themselves and institutions might more readily embrace the need for integration of the international with regular programming.

Ethical Considerations

There were no ethical issues to be addressed in this study; respondents were assured that all submissions were voluntary and anonymous, responses were blind analysed through a coded system where respondents' questionnaires were assigned number codes; host and home institution names and program names have been omitted, and the explication of the data here are consistent with the intent of the British Columbia

Centre for International Education (BCCIE) and consistent with the beliefs of the respondents in completing the questionnaire.

Data Analysis

The implementation of the study and subsequent collection of data after the receipt of completed questionnaires were followed by a 'devaluation' of the data, an attempt to create a structure from the raw materials collected, tabulation of data and correlation of results. A categorical analysis through simple tabulations, cross-tabulations and frequency analyses was employed for sections on demographics, personal information and program information; a simple transcription was employed for all comments.

The frequency analyses were tabulated the sections on (1) Current Personal Information, (2) International Program Information and (3) Experience Prior to International Program.³⁰ Frequency Tables were constructed to establish a clear picture of the respondents as well as for ease of cross-reference and correlation with the data culled from section (4) Impact of International Experience. These frequency analyses showed respondent population traits that might be of further research interest, for example, such as that a majority were females, a majority were born in Canada, yet only a marginal majority whose parents were born in Canada; other items of interest included previous international experience, languages spoken at home and other languages spoken, and almost universal concerns about program financing and other barriers to participation. These frequency analyses further showed practices in B.C post-secondary

³⁰ Please refer to questionnaire in Appendix 4.

study abroad programs, such as a propensity towards formalized study abroad in undergraduate rather than graduate programs, such as the dearth of re-entry orientation programs and such as the lax approach to pre-departure orientation programming.

Frequency analyses were also conducted on a number of items in section (4) Impact of International Experience; these showed tendencies amongst the respondents towards issues such as level of satisfaction towards the study abroad experience, rates of degree completion after the study abroad experience, and their perceptions of the “enabling” element of the study abroad experience in terms of post-graduation employment, for example, the need to use a second language or deal with international clientele.

For those items in section (4) that required a continuous scale and further statistical analysis (specifically those sections soliciting respondent perceptions of attitudinal change: 3.19, 4.7, 4.8 and 4.9), frequency analyses were pursued together with both relative and cumulative percentages for each response. In addition to the frequency analysis, the data solicited using the Likert scale (hereafter the Likert data) were given a scaled evaluation, where each value on the five-point scale was assigned a numerical value with the most negative being one (1) and the most positive being five (5). A descriptive statistical analysis was used to identify the central measure (the most representative value in the set of data) as provided for by an arithmetic mean score; item medians and modes were also tabulated and in the following discussion will offer useful insight into the relative weighting and ranking of each item.

A data set’s analysis is not truly complete, however, unless we also do a measurement of the variability. An item’s ‘range’ is the full distance over which results

vary along a number line, and for the purposes of this research, with only five ordinal points on the Likert scale, was not used as it would not be illustrative. However, it is illustrative (not to mention standard practice) to augment discussion of central tendency measures with measures of variation from the mean, or the standard deviation, which measures the spread or dispersion around the mean of a data set. Unfortunately, standard deviation is sensitive to outliers or items that might be aberrant from majority of the data, and a single outlier can raise the standard deviation and in turn, distort the picture of spread. Even so, it gives us a somewhat accurate picture of distribution of data and respondents' self assessments of their attitudinal change as a result of the study abroad activity. To further illustrate the importance of the tests of variability, we know that if the data are bell-curved, one measure of standard deviation (or one standard deviation) on either side of the mean score will contain approximately 68% of the observations, two measures will contain approximately 95% and three measures should contain more than 99% of the observations. If the data are not bell curved, we would subscribe to Chebyshev's theorem which postulates that no information can be obtained on values falling inside of the first measure of standard deviation from the mean, and that at least 75% will fall within two measures of standard deviations, and at least 88.8 % will fall within three measures.³¹

Correlations between relevant question items were pursued, both from sections 1, 2 and 3 as well as with Likert data from section 4. These included the pursuit of correlations between, for example, the language of instruction abroad and a number of

³¹ Russian mathematician P.L. Chebyshev (1821-1894) proved a theorem which is valid for distribution of data and it postulates that no information can be obtained on the fraction of values falling within 1 standard deviation of the mean, unless at least 75% will fall within 2 standard deviations, and at least 88.8 % will fall within 3 standard deviations.

variables such as discipline of program abroad or language spoken at home. Other correlations involved perception of post-experience impact with a number of items such as length of program, language of instruction, language spoken at home, participation in pre-departure or re-entry orientation, etc.

Finally, comparisons were made between the data collected from this questionnaire with published reports from various sources that describe degree completion rates, languages spoken at home, post-graduation employment rates, etc.

The results of this quantitative data analysis, the frequency analyses and correlations, will be explored in great detail in the next chapter, where we will also address some of the strengths and weaknesses that became apparent with this study, and make recommendations for further research.

Chapter 6: Findings and Discussion

The real voyage of discovery consists not in seeking new landscapes, but in having new eyes.

Marcel Proust, Remembrance of Things Past

Throughout this chapter we will present data from primary research that support the argument that international learning outcomes are being achieved, and perhaps at least in the short-term, to a greater degree than anticipated. We will begin a discussion to establish some correlation between participants' motivations and the learning outcomes they achieve, as curricular change, program design and student selection might all benefit from such findings. The issue of motivations and of a profile of the study abroad participant are novel areas of study and need to be pursued in order to widen the net and capture a more diverse population for participation, and we here devote some time to a discussion of participant motivations.

We have articulated and inventoried the international learning outcomes we hope to foster through our programs; we have adopted a methodology and through that drafted, piloted and implemented a research instrument on a diverse population of study abroad alumni. Both personal and intellectual change can be measured, and we can here report on such change measured through our own research findings.

Care must be taken in any analysis of survey results, however, and caution must be practiced in drawing conclusions that an outcome reported is a direct result of the variable in question. All relationships are not causal, and little research can explain all

phenomenon surrounding an issue. An example of this is a health study conducted in Italy; it has long been understood that a moderate amount of red wine is beneficial for lowering cholesterol and stress levels, and that red wine drinkers on average live longer lives than do their beer-drinking or liquor-drinking counterparts; this much has apparently been proven. The assumption has been that the red wine is the major factor in this increased longevity. The Italian study in question suggested that, on average, red wine drinkers have higher IQ's, higher incomes and are more successful professionally than their beer-drinking or liquor-drinking counterparts. The study questioned whether it might be that their overall lifestyles are less stressful and therefore more conducive to a better diet and increased longevity. Might it be these factors rather than the red wine itself that produces the results in question? They came to no definitive conclusions but did manage to raise the bar for related research studies.³² This example illustrates the ease with which conclusions may be drawn, and that what we conclude is a cause may well be an effect or merely an outlying variable; even so, the strength of the data collected and reported here do strongly suggest a causal relationship between outcome and activity.

Percentages reported here have been rounded up or down. For each Likert type item in the outcome portion of the questionnaire we will report the arithmetic mean, the median and the mode, as well as the standard deviation from the mean.

³² "One has to be careful looking at studies because they're set up to focus on primarily one thing," says Albert Schumacher, president of the Canadian Medical Association. "It's a little like looking out of only one window of a car – we're not actually recording, measuring or analyzing things we may see out of the side window by chance." (Staples)

Participant and Program Profile

The population sampled was students who had studied abroad over the span of a decade; i.e., between 1990 and 2000. Respondents met the criteria of the BCCIE awards program, received BCCIE awards, and studied abroad using funds from the award. As such they:

- were Canadian post-secondary students who had resided in British Columbia for at least one year
- had an above-average grade point average
- had a detailed and rational plan of study for their proposed program abroad and destination
- studied abroad for a minimum of four weeks and a maximum supported period of one year
- completed their program at least three months prior to being surveyed, although some may have since returned to work or study overseas.

Age

Of the 97 respondents, 17% were below 24 years of age, 60% below 30 years of age, and 83% below 34 years of age. This spread reflects the ten-year period of study abroad experiences from which the sample pool was drawn. The median age of respondents during their study abroad programs was early 20's and included a number of Master's and Doctoral candidates among the awards winners and respondents. These age ranges hold for similar studies and generally reflect the age demographics of university age populations in most countries.

Gender

Females accounted for 67% of the respondents, lending support to other studies that have shown more females than males participating in study abroad activities. In the

study conducted by Akande and Slawson, women outnumbered men in the 1990's, with women accounting for 56% of respondents. "Among respondents reporting study abroad before 1960, women outnumbered men 55% to 45%. In the 1960's that trend reversed with men representing 59% of all students. In the 1980's the balance between men and women was about equal. [...] This supports other research that claims that women are more likely to study abroad than men. In 1997 [...] 65% of U.S. students studying abroad were women." (3)

In the United States, it is now twice as many undergraduate women who study abroad as do men. Adkins pursued a qualitative study through interviews with staff and male alumni of the School for International Training (SIT) study abroad program, and also conducted a survey of students who withdrew from the application process for SIT's programs. She argues that "the limitations of tight curriculum for male-dominated majors pose a barrier for men to study abroad. Another factor in the imbalance is that more than twice as many women pursue degrees in foreign language as men, making it more probable that women would study abroad in the language they have learned."

(abstract)

A number of theories have been put forward to explain this phenomenon, including the idea that males may feel more career-orientated and that time abroad is time away from studies and away from achieving a career. This is certainly borne out in the numbers of students studying abroad from Japan, which are almost exclusively female. A spike in relative numbers of U.S. females studying abroad which was reported during the 1960's might be accounted for by the military draft and the engagement of the United States in the war in Indochina; the disparity has been maintained and it is now considered

'normal' for more women than men to participate in a study abroad experience, at least in a North American context. Others conjecture that the allure of 'abroad' is equally appealing to both genders but that studying abroad appears to be a safer option than backpacking, and as such more males may tend to travel alone while more females will study abroad.

In the study conducted by Opper et al on a population of study abroad participants (from the UK, France, Germany, Sweden and the United States) in the mid-1980's, they found "a particularly high proportion of females [...] in the American portion of the sample" and, interestingly, "if the distribution is controlled for field of study, [...] only in the case of the UK is the share of females [...] higher in comparison with the total student population" (26) There are apparently cultural factors at play that might predispose one gender more than the other to engage in certain disciplines, or not, and as compellingly there are cultural factors at play that determine which gender will participate in a study abroad program; in a related tangent, these same cultural factors might predispose practitioners to conclude that a specific discipline is more or less appropriate for a study abroad experience.

Institution Type and Degrees Sought

Of respondents, 50% came from the university sector while 44% came from colleges and 6% from institutes. Before departure, 59% were in progress towards Bachelor's degrees, 19% towards Diplomas, 5% towards Master's, 4% towards Certificates, 2% towards Doctorates, and 7% towards other academic achievements; 4% did not respond to this question. These numbers generally reflect participation rates in North American study abroad programs.

Destination Countries

Twelve countries were visited by respondents to the survey:

- Singapore 1%
- Malaysia 1%
- Taiwan 2%
- The Philippines 2%
- Vietnam 3%
- Chile 3%
- Indonesia 4%
- South Korea 6%
- Mexico 11%
- Thailand 13%
- China (including Hong Kong) 20%
- Japan 32%

Program Profiles

Respondents studied abroad for a minimum five weeks (one participant) to a maximum of 70 weeks (one participant). Mean program length was 24 weeks, while median program length was seventeen weeks, or approximately one semester. 60% of respondents participated in programs seventeen weeks or longer.

The majority of respondents (70%) participated in formal student exchange programs organized by their home institutions, while programs were arranged independently by 30% of respondents.

63% participated in a pre-departure orientation, delivered primarily by their home institution or an academic department therein, while only 17% were given a re-entry orientation upon their return. Re-entry was described as 'difficult' by 25% of respondents.

The study did not differentiate results by types of programs. Some students participated in formal institutional exchanges while others pursued independently-organized programs. Some studied and worked, others only studied. Few, however, participated in 'island' programs, where both instructors and classmates would be imported from home, for few such programs exist in British Columbia and it is felt that "the more a program encourages involvement with the host culture in a variety of roles, the more we can expect to find enduring attitudes and behaviours." (Stimpfl and Engberg 103)

Motivation

Participants are not forced to engage in a formal study abroad experience or to study in a different country; despite trepidation and homesickness, and perhaps aggressive encouragement from some quarters, most want to go, and the majority of those who depart home stay away to complete their anticipated programs. This raises a number of questions. Why then, if the activity of study abroad ostensibly holds so much appeal, are participation rates from Canada and the other developed economies so low? Do students from developed economies feel they have less to learn from other cultures and systems of education? If finances are truly a major stumbling block for a person to study abroad, why is the global flow of students towards rather than away from the developed economies? What factors contribute to participants choosing to go and others

choosing not to go, or being unable to go? What are the differences between those students who select themselves on to an international program and those who do not? Does an individual's predilection for an international experience also indicate a predilection for achieving hoped-for learning outcomes? And how might this self-selection influence our findings in outcomes research? Is student self-selection for international programs an example of Social Darwinism, where a population most likely to succeed chooses to engage in a certain activity and thus become a self-fulfilling prophecy?

One of the oldest and most popular explanations for the different patterns of reaction to new environments by migrants is the neo-Darwinian idea of selective migration. It is an extension of the principle of natural selection, which states that all living organisms that cope best with the exigencies of the environment become the prevailing type. When people are selected for a new environment to which they are particularly suited, they will cope better than others who are not so well matched. (Furnham 22)

We must therefore be careful in drawing conclusions about learning outcomes that compare the internationally mobile student population (favourably) with that population that stays at home. We may conclude that those mobile are more successful in achieving certain benchmarks or signposts than the average or stay-at-home population might be, but these are participants who have selected themselves onto the international programs and may well constitute a population that would have achieved these goals regardless.

Certain types of students are more likely to participate in study abroad programs than other types. Personality, living conditions (where, how long, with whom), travel, work abroad and previous international-related experience all contribute to how one will internalize cross-cultural encounters. Such encounters are more profitable to some individuals than they are to others. (Stimpfl and Engberg 103)

Such sentiments are echoed by Clyne and Rizvi, who state that while there is enough in the data

to suggest that students who went on exchange programs derived a great deal of personal benefit from them, [...] this can hardly be surprising since those who choose to go [...] are self-selected, and already have a disposition towards cross-cultural experiences and intercultural sensitivity.” (48)

There may be other imperatives as well, including the economic; participants from the developed economies may be motivated by thinking that one outcome of the international learning experience will be an enhanced chance of employment or access to graduate school. But those from developing economies have an even greater incentive to pursue higher education in the developed world. Harkening back to our earlier discussion on globalization, it is clear that there is a small group of destination countries which attract the largest numbers from the global flows of students, with “the leading five hosts [accounting] for over three quarters of all international student mobility, as of 2000 – 2001” (Davis 11); the United States and the United Kingdom lead this group. Conversely, in terms of source countries, in 2000 “the leading 10 places of origin accounted for 40% of all internationally mobile students” (56) and, tellingly, two developing economies with large pent-up demand for higher education – China and India – will account for more than half of the source students engaging in international higher

education by 2025 (Global Student Mobility 2025). So economic and lifestyle imperatives may be substantial motivations for many participants.

That said, it is apparent that there is not one single reason why students choose to pursue a degree in another country or to study abroad, or to study abroad where they do, but rather there is a menu of motivations which compel them, specifically our inventory of international learning outcomes.

In the current study, respondents were asked to identify their rationale for choosing to study in the location they did; the major reasons were culture (22%), language (20%), travel opportunities (15%) and academic fit (9%). Reasons such as climate, the investigation of career opportunities, the cost of living, and even family heritage, each ranked below 5%.

Students surveyed in Clyne and Rizvi's study noted a number of reasons for studying abroad:

to broaden their experience, to learn about and be absorbed in another culture, the desire to travel, to experience a different style of study, to meet new people, to have a change [. . .], to increase their marketability in the Australian workforce by giving an edge to their degree, to take their language skills to a new level, to test how their Australian studies compared to international studies, and because their faculty recommended it. (45)

Additionally, their expectations included the following:

The opportunity to see unfamiliar places, to build relationships with people from another culture, to return home with a great life experience, to have developed more knowledge about their discipline and about the university system in the host country, to be challenged academically, to have their preconceptions altered, and to have it stand out on my resume as a very positive factor in relation to my skills and understanding of the world. (45)

Other studies (such as that by Bakalis and Joiner) have looked at students' personalities as the primary factor in motivating them to study abroad; at the important role that attitude and information-gathering techniques play (Peterson); at the under-representation of minorities on study abroad programs; at the previous study of language, or ability to speak another language (and language spoken at home); at financial wherewithal; and conversely at the discipline of study as a major motivating factor. All are worthy of further exploration, as understanding participant motivation is key to expanding opportunities to a larger population.

Heritage and International Experience

The program helped me to get in touch with my heritage and communicate with my family.

In the current study, it had been anticipated that the country of participants' heritage would be a major factor in their decision-making process, in terms of whether to participate and to which destination. British Columbia has a large population of recent immigrants from Asia as well as generations of hyphenated-Canadians (a uniquely Canadian term arising from the country's multi-cultural practice and policies, to identify or describe, for example, Chinese-Canadians, Indo-Canadians, Japanese-Canadians, etc.) Further, the awards program that supported the participation of successful applicants was originally used to support travel to and study in the Asia-Pacific region, with expansion much later to include Mexico and Latin America. It seems only reasonable that "travel and study programs are [...] said to assist in the development of ethnic identity by enabling minority students to experience the country or cultural environment of their

ancestors.” (Albanese 284) While this much may be true, it does not appear to have been a primary motivation for respondents in the current study.

The Simon Fraser University Undergraduate Survey 2000 indicated that, among the general undergraduate student population, 31% had lived outside of Canada for more than 12 months since the age of ten. (4) In the current study, while 33% of respondents were born outside of Canada, 45% of their mothers and 46% of fathers were born in countries other than Canada. Despite that, only 20% of respondents declared themselves as hailing from destination countries: East Asian (10%), Southeast Asian (7%), Latin American (2%), or South Asian (1%). Over 65% of respondents hailed from either Western or Eastern Europe. Fewer than 3% of respondents remarked that their choice of destination was either because of family heritage or because family or friends lived in the region. Just over 3% of respondents who identified their heritage as Southeast Asian participated in programs in that region, and 9% who identified their heritage as East Asian participated in programs in that region. Only one respondent with a Latin American heritage participated in programs in Latin America.

Only 5% of respondents had never before travelled outside of Canada and the United States, with a large number reporting having previously visited several countries on different continents. Further, 57% reported that they had spent at least some time living in a country outside of Canada or the United States; as only 33% of respondents were born outside of Canada, this figure indicates a substantial breadth of international experience from respondents before they participated on the study abroad program; it might also indicate a strong motivation or selection factor for pursuing the study abroad activity. Gerner et al have discovered that

U.S. internationally mobile adolescents have more interest in travel and learning languages, and that they rate themselves more culturally accepting and more oriented to an international lifestyle in the future than their peers in the United States. (197)

They also cite a number of other studies suggesting that internationally-mobile adolescents

show greater linguistic ability for new language learning, more flexibility than their mono-cultural counterparts in interacting with different cultural groups, less dependence on peers and more family orientation because of frequent relocations, [...] greater interest in maintaining geographically mobile lives, [and] more emotional investment in independence and self-knowledge than in getting along with others and making friends.” (199-200)

Clyne and Rizvi argue that their data also support this thesis and reiterate claims made by others that “people with significant intercultural experience in their formative years develop a trans-national or trans-cultural identity.” (48)

Exposure to any variety of cross-cultural stimuli (i.e., acquaintances or family members born abroad, language study, residence or travel outside of the United States) appears to positively influence student’s overall attitudes toward international relations. (Kalunian 140)

Bochner et al discovered in their study on the effects of domestic American multicultural programs that an “internationally-minded orientation” was significantly enhanced if the subjects had previously lived outside of the United States. Stephenson reports in her study that “of the 52 students, the [...] program was a first cross-cultural experience for only seven of them” (10). Fewer than 23% of participants in Farrell and Suvedi’s study had never before travelled outside of the United States or Canada (178).

Based upon the results of their study, Opper et al go further and state unequivocally that study abroad participants “have had substantial international exposure

through their families” and that “the majority of students themselves have had international experience prior to the study abroad experience” (28).

Thus, heritage and previous international experience may be huge motivations to study abroad, although they may have less bearing on the destination that one chooses. Regardless, if we look at the outcomes achieved in terms of sensitivity towards and tolerance of other cultures, and other benchmarks of personal and interpersonal growth, we are dealing with a self-selected population that may already have a predilection towards those traits.

Educational Level of Parents

Opper et al cite the social and family background of study abroad participants in their study as important factors in their participation and success, specifically the level of education reached by the participants’ parents. Students with college- and university-trained parents account for substantial percentages of study abroad participants, with different percentages reported from mobile students from the United States and as compared with those from the various European countries in the study. In their research, on average, 50.2% of participants’ fathers and 32.1% of their mothers across the study were university trained. Those participants whose parents were in “highly-qualified occupations” accounted for 63.4% (fathers) and 30.9% (mothers) across the studied population. (30-31)

While we do not have comparable statistics for the general population in British Columbia or in Canada – or even for the general post-secondary population in these jurisdictions – we can report that, in our own research study, 60% of respondents had

mothers who had pursued post-secondary education, with 24% of those being awarded Bachelor's degrees, 5% Master's degrees and 2% Doctorates. Of respondents' fathers, 65% had pursued post-secondary education, with just under 15% achieving Bachelor's degrees, 22% Master's degrees and over 8% Doctorates. These figures indicate a further motivation and encouragement for pursuing higher education and the added value of an international experience.

Language

In its facility to alter a learner's world view, the ability to communicate in a language other than one's native tongue cannot be underestimated.

One significant contribution to science from the linguistic point of view may be the greater development of our sense of perspective. We shall no longer be able to see a few recent dialects of the Indo-European family, and the rationalizing techniques elaborated from their patterns, as the apex of the evolution of the human mind, nor their present wide spread as due to any survival from fitness or to anything but a few events of history. (Whorf 95)

The range of participants on study abroad programs includes

- monolingual students studying a discipline in English while abroad
- monolingual students studying another language while abroad
- bilingual or polyglot students studying a discipline in English while abroad
- bilingual or polyglot students studying another (new) language while abroad
- bilingual or polyglot students studying a discipline in an already learned language while abroad

For each of these scenarios, the language of the host country could be English or could be some other language. It is a given that a host language environment is more

efficacious in increasing foreign language skills than is the learner's home environment. "Students, teachers and researchers alike commonly agree that one of the most effective and efficient means for becoming proficient in a second language is study abroad" (Pellegrino 91). Her study enforces student perceptions that much language learning takes place outside of the classroom and in the host environment, partly because language learning in the classroom may lack the 'communicative purpose' that the real language outside the classroom has (99–100).

The British Columbia Undergraduate Survey 2000, which surveyed the entire population of Year 1998 graduates, and not only those who had studied abroad, found that "most graduates (61%) reported that second language skills were either not very or not at all important for their employment." 37% responded that these skills were important. (1-2) Interestingly, the Fall 2000 Undergraduate Survey at Simon Fraser University – which is arguably representative of the same demographic of the British Columbia Undergraduate Survey – found that "71% of respondents primarily speak English at home, 0.3% speak French and 29% speak some other language. These other languages are mainly Cantonese, Mandarin and Chinese" (4). These figures suggest that those students who speak a language other than English feel that such knowledge is important for their employment, and those who do not, do not.

Our genes, our parental and educational training, our societal rules, our very language, enable us to see so only so far. Human beings see as far as their horizon, and that is the limit. One can broaden horizons by living in other countries, by learning foreign languages, and by reading, but

unless we make such efforts, our horizon remains a British horizon, an American horizon, a Japanese horizon or one of many other world views. In other words, each culture enjoys a certain segment of experience, which is no more than a fraction of the total possible available experience. Benjamin Whorf believed that such segments of experience were limited by the concepts and vocabulary inherent in one's language. By learning more languages, especially those with excitingly different concepts, one could widen one's vision and gain deeper insight into the nature of reality. (Lewis 85)

In terms of our current study, 53% of respondents have mothers who speak a language other than English (with 13% of mothers speaking no English) and a similar percentage (53%) have fathers who speak a language other than English (with 6% of fathers speaking no English.) All respondents spoke English before departure, but 65% of respondents studied another language before departure and in preparation for their overseas programs. Only one respondent professed to having the use of only English before departure, although many of those speaking one or more languages in addition to English spoke European languages of little local use in the countries in which they studied. While overseas, 30% of respondents studied almost entirely in English, and 18% studied in programs using a combination of English and the host language; 52% studied entirely in the language of the host institution and country.

Barriers and Impediments to Participation

Because my program was under-funded, forcing me to return to Canada before I wanted, it threw me for a loop for a long time. I felt like a failure and it definitely took away from the experience.

The fact that I did not receive enough money still makes me angry seven years after my return. What's the point of not giving enough money if it severely decreases the effectiveness of the program?

In the Fall of 2000, the Office of Analytical Studies at Simon Fraser University conducted its annual undergraduate student survey; the survey polled over 1500 students from a cross-section of disciplines, courses and levels. An international component was included for the first time in the survey. Results indicated that, while awareness of the University's international opportunities, in the form of internships, exchange and field school programs, was very high amongst students – close to 90% – participation rates lag below 5% of the undergraduate student body. The study reported findings from a low of 2% who had participated in field schools to higher percentages for other activities, but went on to explain that “although participation rates appear quite low, this is partly explained by low participation rates among first and second-year students who have not yet had an opportunity to participate in these activities. When we look at those who ‘intend to participate,’ we see that [...] 26% plan to participate in student exchange programs outside of Canada.” (11-12) The report discovered that over 90% of respondents felt that an international study or work experience would be useful, but that fewer than 50% intended to participate in an international work experience and fewer than 30% intended to participate in a student exchange or field school. Ultimately, fewer than 5% participated in either, although that number has climbed to over 10% of every graduating class, with ambitious goals now in place to support 50% of every graduating class on an international experience within five years.

The undergraduate survey confirms long-held suspicions regarding what students see as impediments to their participation in an international experience. The cost of participation in a study abroad experience is the major factor, cited by over 50% of respondents, although far fewer responded that cost was a factor for a work abroad

experience or internship (17%). Some students are just not interested (31% to 44%, depending upon the student's discipline and the type of international program); however, many others replied that they would not participate because the international experience is not a required component of their program (approximately 21%), and with the perception that an international program will extend the participant's period of study (32% to 47% depending upon the activity), many just choose not to participate or to pursue further information.

The average total cost of each individual's program is of course dependent upon a number of factors including their country of destination and cost of living there, the cost of travel to get there, and the length of their program. 71% of respondents in the current study reported that their programs cost Cad \$10,000 or less, while 16% spent over Cad \$15,000. The BCCIE awards grant was the only financial assistance received by 69% of respondents to support their time abroad.

Clyne and Rizvi stated that the "major anxieties" of study abroad participants "revolved around whether they had enough money, how to move into a new institution and country without a network of support, travelling alone, making friends, personal safety, finding accommodation and failing." (45)

The present study discovered that over 48% of respondents indicated that finances or financial concerns were the major impediment or barrier for them in anticipating or pursuing the study abroad program. Language barriers constituted the major barrier for 16% of respondents. Other concerns such as credit transfer, time or family commitments, and safety or health concerns were reported by fewer than 7% of respondents.

Findings of the present study are supported by the results of other surveys and corroborated by other research and are unequivocal in showing that the cost of participation – whether real, perceived or anticipated – is the main reason cited for students to not pursue or engage in an international program, or is a primary factor for them to show anxiety before their participation. As such, scholarship programs offered by federal and provincial governments, through programs such as the BCCIE awards program, as well as by individual institutions, are to be lauded for assisting students and for increasing the number of students studying abroad.

Without the financial support of the BCCIE grant, I would have never been able to spend such a remarkable year living abroad in a foreign culture at an age where it truly left its impression on me, and has made me into a wiser, more independent, and more global citizen.

The grant I received was so incredibly valuable I can't properly express it! Without it I would not have been able to study in Japan and would not have had the many wonderful experiences I did.

The funding I received was invaluable and without it I would have given up the opportunity to study at the Stanford Centre. I am most grateful for it as it shapes my future studies and allows me to gain contacts to continue into an MA program within Japan. I certainly hope funding of undergraduates will continue so as to support such opportunities for others

Impact

I wouldn't be where I am today without having had this experience.

Can't say enough positive about the impact of international living and working experiences; one realizes the whole world is our home and we have friends everywhere and we all struggle with the same issues no matter where we live.

It is difficult to project accurately both the negative and positive ways this experience has had and continues to have on my life.

From a practical or lay perspective, there is no doubt that an extended period studying abroad and living away from family, friends and an established network of support would impact a young adult in some fashion. With no data to support conclusions, however, it would not be apparent whether these impacts would be positive or negative, or in which facets of the young person`s life they would be manifest. The current study corroborated findings from other available research to find that, overwhelmingly, participants rated the experience as positive. Their international experience was described as positive by 96% of respondents in the current study, while 98% of respondents felt it was important or very important for other British Columbia students to study abroad. This much could have been anticipated, however, and does little to encourage ongoing or increased government or institutional support for the activity. This much is found in most satisfaction surveys conducted regularly by international offices across the globe. Despite this, it may be naive or wishful to assume that all impacts will be positive or lead to more positive relations with and views of other cultures. While ...

idealists regard it as self-evident that educational exchange must lead to improved international relations, [... the evidence ...] indicates that the connection between inter-group contact and inter-group attitudes is very complex, such that contact may either increase or reduce mutual tolerance and understanding, depending upon a very large matrix of interaction variables. Indeed, there have been instances where educational exchange has led to a worsening of cross-cultural attitudes. (Bochner and Furnham 39)

Further, while many studies have found positive impact at least one (Nash) state that “a later assessment, [albeit] using less-than-adequate data, suggests that most of the personality changes derived from the overseas experience did not persist after return home. Further research is called for.” (191). Indeed, further research is called for.

This 'matrix of interaction variables' that Bochner and Furnham refer to is huge and must necessarily include previously discussed factors such as length and discipline of program; program structure and classroom contact hours and field trips; previous time spent travelling or living abroad; levels of parental education and support; previous languages or languages spoken at home; the participant's personality and its complicated interaction with the host culture and its attributes and manifestations; whether it is a group or an individual activity; the diversity or homogeneity of home community; and financial stresses or constraints; as well as other factors such as the presence of host nationals in the classroom of the foreign program or of host national instructors on the program; exposure to host nationals outside the program through academic, work or social activities or home stays; the language of the classroom and of the host community; the source, diversity or homogeneity of other nationals in the classroom; and even the season, the diet, the climate and the (lower, similar or higher) standard of living in the host community. All may play a role and are worthy of further research, and nuanced variations of even one or two of these factors might positively or negatively affect the impact the program has on the participant. These variables are numerous and nuanced and are beyond the current study. Instead, we will focus on that achieved, on the international learning outcomes as reported by our population.

Assessing impact is a formidable task; these impacts may be nuanced and internal but are in reality signposts discussed earlier, the international learning outcomes. Respondents in the current study were asked to assess the impact of the experience, as well as the impact that they had anticipated before departure. While assessing the anticipated impact on sojourners after the completion of their program may be of limited

value, we have included this data for discussion purposes and as a baseline to show in which areas they feel the most impact was realized, and perhaps where impact was unanticipated.

In the study reported by Akande and Slawson, “the strongest agreement was found for these three statements:

- Study Abroad enabled me to learn something new about myself
- Study Abroad made me more comfortable interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds
- Study Abroad helped me to better understand my own cultural values and biases.

There was moderate to strong agreement with these statements:

- Study Abroad gave me a better appreciation of the arts
- Study Abroad made a positive difference in my career
- Study Abroad caused me to seek out a greater diversity of friends
- Study Abroad improved my academic performance / ability to learn.”
(3)

The researchers found that “respondents were more likely to believe that study abroad had a greater effect on their personal lives than on their political and social views or career,” although 25% did suggest that study abroad “significantly affected their political and social views and their careers.” (4) They conclude that “these results strongly suggest that if one has studied abroad, there is a great likelihood that one will continue to have an international component in one’s life after returning home.” (5)

Clyne and Rizvi found that over 90% rated their exchange experience positively. Students also suggested that the experience gave them:

increased self confidence and maturity, greater self awareness and self knowledge, an appreciation and understanding of other cultures, greater appreciation of the value of their family and friends at home and an international network of friends, more patience, greater open-mindedness, better self management skills and resourcefulness and determination.” (45)

Most respondents in that same study suggested that the experience “enabled them to become more adaptable, open and tolerant people.” (48) Many of these findings are corroborated in the current study.

Farrell and Suvedi studied participants of a Michigan State University program in Nepal and indicate that the highest mean scores for participants’ self-assessment of the impact were of their understanding of the host country as well as on “international issues, different cultures, and human difference,” rating a mean of 4.8 on a 5.0 scale; the participants assessed themselves somewhat lower on academic performance and potential career impact, although still above average. (179-180)

In the summer of 2002, The Institute for the International Education of Students (IES, a U.S.-based think tank) conducted a survey of 14,800 alumni of its study abroad programs from between 1950-1999; more than 3,400 respondents answered questions about their academic, personal, intercultural and professional development as a result of studying abroad.

The IES study found that no matter where you study abroad or for how long, the impact of that experience will likely affect the rest of your life. For the majority of alumni respondents, stepping outside of their own cultures to live and study in a foreign country influenced their careers and educational choices, launched lifelong pursuits, increased cultural tolerance and understanding and facilitated lasting friendships. After studying abroad, most students never view their education in the same way again. A powerful experience, it often influences subsequent educational endeavors, including the decision to pursue higher degrees. More

than 52 percent of respondents indicated that they had achieved a post-graduate degree, compared to the 9 percent of U.S. Americans obtaining graduate degrees as reported by the U.S. Census Bureau. (McMillan 1)

Further,

- more than 80 percent of respondents agreed that studying abroad had enhanced their interest in academic study
- nearly 63 percent of students said that the experience had influenced their decisions to expand or change their academic majors
- nearly 90 percent of students indicated that their experiences abroad had influenced all their subsequent educational experiences
- nearly 35 percent of the students who studied a foreign language abroad still use a language other than English on a regular basis (twice a month). (1)

In short, there is ample data to support that impacts take place upon students through a study abroad experience, and that both researchers and the students themselves generally see these as positive impacts. The current study has attempted to explore in more detail what these impacts are, to further enhance our ability to assess outcomes and thus devise programming appropriate to further enhance the acquisition of desired outcomes. The discussion immediately preceding has focused on ‘impact’ in general and will now be followed by a detailed analysis of the findings of the current research, impact by impact, outcome by outcome, with reference to the similarity or difference to findings of other research in this field.

In our discussion of these outcomes we will maintain the broad terminology of Personal Development, which includes better understanding of the world as well as both the learning of other languages and the acquisition and honing of cross-cultural skills; and Intellectual Development, which includes educational and career related outcomes

but also those outcomes – such as acquiring a better use of different registers of English – that might pertain to career advancement or academic choices.

Interspersed freely within the discussions of the various outcome categories are italicised quotations from respondents that might exemplify the outcome under scrutiny and that, it is hoped, will personalize the achievements of these outcomes.

Personal and Interpersonal Development

It has been suggested that an essential component of assessing academic quality in higher education in the U.S. “recognizes the dual goals of colleges and universities to enhance students’ intellectual growth and foster and develop [the] social and cultural competencies that prepare them to live and work in a global society.” (Gillespie et al 106) Developmental change occurs internally but is often manifested externally, and even one’s deepest private opinions are often exposed in action or response. Personal, intrapersonal and interpersonal growth are developmental outcomes that both impact and are impacted by those around the sojourner: in one’s personality traits, actions, world views, and dealings with others.

These developmental outcomes can also be manifested on a different external plane from the broadly personal, specifically in intellectual development in facets such as disciplinary progress, academic success and a change or reaffirmation of academic direction, language skill development, career affirmation or change, and the skills required to engage successfully in a chosen vocation. These are not mutually exclusive developmental skill sets or outcomes, as a specific personality trait will readily and uniquely support good business dealings or academic success. And the development of

good international friendships, the first outcome we will discuss, is an outcome that is desired by all stakeholders and is both personal and interpersonal but also lends great support to our category of intellectual development, in that these international friendships gained are likely to be with one's future trading, diplomatic, academic and business partners.

In short, many of these outcomes overlap or support one another; their categorization and measurement as discrete entities is a useful activity but one that must be viewed against the complexities of personality, behaviour and learning.

Studies concur that after a study abroad experience, "students perceive that they have a more positive attitude towards people from other cultures, that they are more confident, have more self-esteem, are more adventurous, social/attentive, independent, courageous and self-reliant," and, of great interest, "students consider personal growth the most important of all effects." (Stronkhorst 3)

Personal and Interpersonal Development: Friendships

The friendships I formed while on exchange have had the most lasting impact on me. I have kept in contact with my friends in a great number of countries and went to visit some of them in France and Holland in May of this year.

It is perhaps a self-evident truth that an intense and often shared experience of living and learning abroad might create long-lasting and profound friendships for hitherto strangers. The cultural acclimatization process that the individual experiences will be one that is also experienced by other sojourners as well, and one that might be softened by spending time with host country nationals and others. Either way, the intensity of the experience, the foreign and perhaps exotic climate, the age and relative life inexperience of the participants, the distance from one's family and home network of friends, and the

sense of shared adventure should all contribute to the creation of strong friendships and – a phenomenon to which all practitioners can attest – the creation of lifelong partnerships amongst participants.

In the current research, 92% of respondents felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their friendships. Only 80% had anticipated that the experience would have a positive impact. The mean score was 4.4 on the five-point Likert scale with 96 respondents, with a mode of 5, a median of 5 and standard deviation of 0.744. Many commented on the new ‘international network’ of friends they had developed; 72% of respondents in the study by Akande and Slawson still kept in touch with students they had met while studying abroad, from a sample of 707 participants (4). Interestingly, this same study found that the greatest impact on sojourner’s intercultural competence came from the non-academic portions of the program, specifically from friends, home stay, travel and cultural exposure. (5)

McMillan cites the IES study and found that

- students consistently say that one of the most important and influential reasons they chose to study abroad was to make new friends, both international and from the U.S.
- More than 52 percent still keep in touch with friends they made while abroad.—in fact, 63 percent of students who studied abroad in the 1950s and 1960s are still in contact with friends they made overseas.
- Four percent of all respondents even married someone they met while abroad.
- Participants also found that their host countries made a powerful enough impression on them that nearly 60 percent of those surveyed have returned to the country where they studied, many visiting not only friends but the host families they lived with while abroad. (1)

In Farrell and Suvadi's study, a higher than average response rate from participants indicated that the program enhanced their "desire to interact with strangers" as well as "encouraged [them] to seek out a more diverse group of friends." (179)

The individualism we embrace in the West, especially in North America and the United Kingdom, is in many other cultures manifested as more of a collectivism, an 'insider / outsider' culture that those without exposure to it might refer to as a 'herd mentality' or some equally naïve terminology. Disparate cultures from across the globe, such as those in Chile or the Czech Republic or in Japan, will espouse the creation of a few very close and lifelong friendships and a very close knit support group that does not encourage the entry of 'outsiders'. Creating a close bond with an itinerant foreigner might be difficult on the grounds that he is present for only a short period and is regardless from a very different circle; there may or may not be any value judgements placed upon those differences, but the differences exist nonetheless. Student respondents in Stephenson's study of American students in Chile found that most respondents found it between average and difficult (3.5 out of 5 on a 5.0 scale of difficulty) to make Chilean friends and to interact with Chilean students on campus and felt uncomfortable "with the attention they received due to their obvious 'foreignness'." (12)

Other studies (such as that of Twombly, and her citation of Wallace) address issues of gender and study abroad and conclude that "difficulty making women friends in the host culture posed problems for the North American women" and "these experiences affect both adjustment to the culture and learning outcomes." (1)

Regardless, for the large majority of participants there is an increase in the number and intensity of friendships; there are many encounters and new friendships made

with host country nationals, while for some these new friendships are made with home country nationals sojourning together. The acquisition and maintenance of new friendships is a positive outcome for all stakeholders and is not to be belittled or discounted; it is a motivation for new participants and a living, very real and very personal outcome for past participants; the institutions will support the creation of happy and content students, as well as an increase or introduction of dialogue between students and scholars and the concomitant exchange of ideas and languages. An offshoot may be in the increased tolerance to be inculcated by the learning of more about other cultures through friendships; and the state can only be satisfied in supporting the creation of these personal trade, academic, diplomatic and research relationships.

The program had a negative impact on friendships at home, but positive in that I now have many friends abroad.

Personal and Interpersonal Development: Family life

Being away from home reinforced the significance and importance of family and friends. It provided me with a window through which to view my weaknesses as well as my strengths. I am extremely thankful for the experience. I'm proud that I took a chance, learned a lot and matured as a result.

While the program's effect on the participants' family lives is not an issue or an outcome of as much relative importance as others, especially to stakeholders such as the state or the institution, it is still of some real importance; we have seen in our earlier discussion of a participant's rationale for engaging in study abroad, it is often the participant's family that has motivated and financed the activity, and who hopes to gain by a new level of maturity, experience and a broadening of the horizons of the child or sibling, and as such the affect on family life is not to be discounted. Clyne and Rizvi argue that the impact of exchange experiences is not restricted to students alone, and that

it also affects their friends and family at home. The students return home with novel stories of their experiences potentially generating interest and insight among those who never went overseas. Such stories can serve to instil in the community at large the view that local cultures are less pervasive, less to be taken for granted, less clearly bounded towards the outside than they perhaps once were. (48)

Moreover, depending upon the accommodation at the host destination – whether in a student residence or with a home stay family – it is quite possible that the participants have had some or very much exposure to different types of families and kinship organizational structures. Even though much formal mobility is either North-North or South-North exchange, it will quite often be the case that participants are exposed to different family types, such as larger and extended families to more traditional nuclear families, as well as differing family values from those in the malleable family unit that we have evolved in our home countries.

There is a growing evidence confirming attitudinal change of both host families and guest students in the home stay situation, and the complex relationships that often exist between them. Learning and negotiation take place on both sides, and it is generally understood that the intensive cultural and linguistic exposure of a home stay experience will enhance and augment the study abroad experience.

60% of respondents in the current study felt that this experience had a positive or very positive impact on their own family lives, while only 53% had anticipated that this would be the case. The mean score was 3.85 on the five-point Likert scale with 95 respondents, with a mode of 3, a median of 4 and standard deviation of 0.858. Absence

may make the heart grow fonder and the maturing process of the international experience would necessarily assist the participant in understanding the importance of family.

Personal and Interpersonal Development: Demonstrating tolerance, sensitivity and tact

Answering this way does not mean that I necessarily dealt with the situations appropriately - most of the time I think I dealt with them inappropriately, but I am more aware of that now.

I also learned what it means to be a minority. This has taught me to respect the challenges faced by minorities.

Upon immersion in a different and often new culture, the sojourner will more often than not make a number of cultural faux pas, probably cause minor offence and in turn be mildly or deeply offended by some gesture or action of a host country national; ideally she will arrive at the end of the experience with better skills to navigate through the host culture as well as with an understanding of at least some notable cultural differences and differences of values, of how these differences are manifested in the host and home cultures, and again, ideally, with the ability to think before reacting, to appreciate that all is not what it might appear on the surface, and to be sensitive and tactful to differences; these are skills and outcomes that are to be lauded and are desired by all stakeholders, by the state, the institution and the participant. These skills are portable: they must be used in international business settings in order for the participant to be a successful business person; and they should be used in academic and in domestic settings when sitting and studying with and living beside an increasingly diverse academic and domestic population.

95% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of the study abroad experience was positive or very positive on their expressions of tolerance, sensitivity and

tact, while 93% had anticipated a positive benefit in this regard; both figures are high. The mean score was 4.58 on the five-point Likert scale with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.606. While we can agree with Bennett, that “knowledge does not equal intercultural competence” (22), certainly experience, immersion and experiential learning can play a pivotal role in the development of tolerant individuals. A student quoted in Clyne and Rizvi’s study stated that one should never “assume an understanding of a culture one has not had contact with; cultural differences can influence the smallest element of a person’s behaviour.”³³ Students in that same study “acknowledged that they had become either more (almost 50%) or much more (40%) culturally sensitive as a result of their exchange.” (46)

Various studies cited in Kauffman et al – Stauffer; Kauffman; Carlson et al; Pace; and Pfinster – showed an increase in the level of tolerance and sensitivity by study abroad participants. 68% of respondents in the Akande and Slawson study stated that their study abroad experience had the greatest impact on their intercultural competence, and most attributed this to “the non-academic elements of the program: friends, home stay, travel and cultural exposure.” (5) McMillan argues that “one of the most significant and intangible impacts of studying abroad is participants’ increased understanding of their own cultural values and biases. Eighty-two percent of alumni said that they had developed a more sophisticated way of looking at the world as a result of studying abroad.” (1)

³³ A well-known quotation by the late American musician Frank Zappa, on a talk show, was that “writing about music is like dancing about architecture.” Perhaps we could suggest a paraphrase to replacing “writing about music” with “reading about culture”.

Other convincing results were reported by Farrell and Suvedi as their respondents described the study abroad experience as one which contributed to an increase their understanding and curiosity of other cultures, their appreciation of human difference, their level of comfort around people “different” from themselves, as well as increasing their open-mindedness and understanding of their own cultures. (179)

In short, the potential intensity of contact with the host culture on a study abroad experience is not one that might be easily accessed by young people solely back-packing through a country; where experience fosters awareness of differences, intense or repeated experience or exposure will create an understanding of the rhythms and patterns of the host culture. Engaged study abroad participants will see what it is like in a host national’s home, how the universities function, and the classrooms, why and how people shop where and for what they do, how and why the vote as they do. This level of immersion cannot but change the way the astute sojourner views himself as well as ‘the other.’ Author Michael Crichton phrased it this way:

Often I feel I go to some distant region of the world to be reminded of who I really am. There is no mystery about why this should be so. Stripped of your ordinary surroundings, your friends, your daily routines ... you are forced into direct experience. Such direct experience inevitably makes you aware of who it is that is having the experience. That is not always comfortable, but it is always invigorating. (x)

Personal and Intrapersonal Development

Cultural immersion can overwhelm but can also motivate significant personal change. There are undeniable and direct correlations between the development of tolerance and sensitivity towards ‘the other’ and an increase in an individual’s self awareness, over his ability to control the need to apply his own ideas of logic and

structure on other individuals and cultures; these traits can contribute towards greater levels of self confidence and the sojourner's sense of independence and autonomy. These outcomes reflect personal growth but also are some of the "principal dimensions of intrapersonal development." (Kauffman et al 100)

Personal and Intrapersonal Development: Psychological preparedness for new or difficult situations

The study abroad experience also contributes to other aspects of personal growth and the development of outcomes in personality traits and coping skills that will be beneficial to students, workers and ambassadors alike. These include creating a greater sense of preparedness for new or difficult situations.

Being put in the position (many times) of having to deal with difficult situations on my own challenged me and gave me an opportunity for growth and understanding.

I now have confidence that I can throw myself into a difficult situation and survive.

98% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their psychological preparedness for new situations, while 90% had anticipated such a benefit. The mean score was 4.57 on the five-point Likert scale with 96 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.535.

Approximately 97% of respondents felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their methods for handling challenging situations under difficult circumstances, while 90% had anticipated positive benefits. The mean score was 4.57 with 96 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.554.

Again, while many of these outcomes appear to be self-evident, given the independent nature of learning in an immersion context, the overwhelming nature of their acquisition by such large numbers of respondents in the current study as well as in other literature needs to be extolled as an extremely important and anticipated outcome of a successful study abroad period.

Having a personal experience of a totally different culture gave me strength of character and the ability to handle difficult situations.

Personal and Intrapersonal Development: Self awareness

I gained an appreciation for what it means to be Canadian through the opportunity to compare and contrast life in Hong Kong to my life in Canada. I gained a sensitivity to different cultures as I met many international students during my study period. I believe that I am a more tolerant citizen as a result of my experience.

“Academic learning in a foreign environment is likely to make students aware of their attitudes and mindset, the limits of their knowledge about other parts of the world and the degree to which their academic learning in their home country is bound by that country’s cultural and national interests.” (Opper et al 117) It was reported of an alumni of an IES program in Vienna that “although it has been nearly ten years since he was a student in Vienna, there isn’t a single day that goes by when he does not feel the impact of his experience abroad. ‘The time fundamentally changed how I view the world’.”

(cited in McMillan 1)

96% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their awareness of self, while 88% had anticipated this benefit. The mean score was 4.54 on the five-point Likert scale with 96 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.557. These results support the findings of various other studies, notably Farrell and Suvadi as well as

those cited in Kauffman et al – by Stauffer; Kauffman; Davies; Nash; Hoeh and Spuck – which all reported a positive change in the self awareness and self concept of study abroad participants.

There is a paradox in international communication and contact, because it is in this international context that a person may experience a revocation of his national status. In his home country it does not differentiate him from other people; abroad it quickly becomes the most frequent basis of identification, of association and lack of association. (Eide 15)

There is little in the literature that might support an argument against the development of greater self awareness as an outcome of a study abroad experience, and it would again appear to be self evident that such development would flow naturally from the internal turmoil of or response to culture shock and the resultant questioning of long-held beliefs and patterns of behaviour. After the shock of realizing that the host culture is not doing something wrong, perhaps only doing it differently, the normal question to pose to one's self would be "how then does what I am doing appear to them?"³⁴ This greater awareness of self will lead quite naturally into a questioning of cultural patterns from both the host and the home culture. There will be a need to step back to perhaps better understand the logical constructs of the host culture – in a way that one has never questioned his native culture -- and a realization of the need to reserve judgement and see different behaviour in its own context.

I developed an awareness of and sensitivity to different learning styles and teaching approaches.

... seeing the world from a different perspective will stay with me forever.

³⁴ ³⁴ "When you travel, remember that a foreign country is not designed to make you comfortable. It is designed to make its own people comfortable." Clifton Fadiman

The incredible spirit of the Mexican people - despite overwhelming poverty they remain kind, content, grateful and generous, unlike many people in our North American culture. Also slower paced lifestyle - I think we can learn from that.

Directly related to the concept of self awareness is the creation or exacerbation of an individual's awareness of his or her own world views and biases, of how easy it is to interpret the world through the 'prism' of one's own culture, for that is what we have been trained to do since childhood; it is a survival mechanism to make us successful in our home cultures. To be a successful sojourner, however, some of these skills need not be unlearned, but rather to be recognized for what they are.

The chance to meet and live with families gave me an enormous understanding of the differences, as well as the similarities, between Western individualism and Asian collectivism.

85% of respondents in the present study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their understanding of their own biases in terms of interpreting the world through their own perceptions, while only 74% had anticipated such a positive benefit. The mean score was 4.36 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5 (although the median score was on the cusp of 4), and with a standard deviation of 0.711. It is as true today as it was in the 17th Century when French mathematician and philosopher Blaise Pascal suggested that "there are truths on this side of the Pyrenees, which are falsehoods on the other."

Although I did not realize it at the time, before I went to Thailand, I had a subtly condescending attitude towards so-called 'developing' countries and the people who live in them. This attitude manifested itself through thoughts I had of how I might somehow 'help' these people, perhaps by working for a NGO someday. After living in Thailand for two years, I came to realize that although many of the people there are materially poorer than those of us in the West, they are not inferior to us in any way. I learned that, despite obvious cultural differences, people are pretty much the same regardless of where they live, or the level of their country's material development.

Personal and Intrapersonal Development: Ability to control the need to apply one's own ideas of logic and structure on other individuals and cultures

92% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on controlling their need to apply their own ideas of logic and structure on other individuals and cultures, while only 77% had anticipated such a benefit. The mean score was 4.38 with 95 respondents, with a median of 4, a mode of 4.5 (two scores tied at 44) and with a standard deviation of 0.663. Winter notes that sojourners experienced particular changes in perceptions, internalized role expectations and value systems and notes that they also became subject to the physical, social and cultural organization of the host country. This change appears to progress in stages and is described as “a cumulative transformation of self-perception and world view.”

People (inside and out) in Mexico opened my eyes to how wonderful life is, no matter how simple and impoverished. It refreshed my way of looking at my own life and brought me to the realization that material goods that I once cherished are not so important after all

It was interesting to me that I could never completely "fit in" to Japanese society. I had many good Japanese friends but felt that even if I remained in Japan for the rest of my life I would always be a gaijin (alien/outsider). That is not a negative comment, more matter of fact - and I definitely would have been happy to stay longer. Knowing the above has enabled me to be more sensitive to those international friends I have made here in Canada.

Personal and Intrapersonal Development: Independence and autonomy

I am more independent than ever before but at the same time now need other people more.

Evidence supporting or corroborating what at first glance might appear to be a common sense connection is still an important finding. Some outcomes of study abroad can be linked to a particular program or language or activity or behaviour, while others may be a simple result of merely engaging in the activity. For example, if most

sojourners are in their early twenties, and only a percentage of those have previously travelled independently, they will necessarily gain skills in independence and autonomy – sometimes through difficult lessons and experiences – that they might not normally gain back at home; that is to say, it may be self evident but it is encouraging nonetheless that almost universally, the literature reports an increase in participants’ levels of independence and autonomy as a result of the study abroad experience. 93% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their levels of independence and autonomy, while 90% had anticipated this benefit would occur. The mean score was 4.73 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.612. These figures support the findings of other studies, such as those cited in Kauffman et al – by Kauffman; Pyle; and Pfinster – in which study abroad participants reported increased levels of autonomy and independence. Farrell and Suvadi reported a mean score of 4.09 (on a Likert scale of 5) when reporting respondents’ self-assessments in the increase of their levels of independence.

The most useful aspect was also the most difficult -- that I was completely on my own to organize the whole thing. This increased my ability to function independently and gave me the independence and responsibility required to survive and thrive.

Personal and Intrapersonal Development: Self confidence

This experience changed my life. It gave me the strength and determination to succeed. It gave me the confidence to try new things that before seemed impossible. I recommend it to anyone.

92% of respondents felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their self confidence, while 88% had anticipated this benefit. The mean score was 4.49 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard

deviation of 0.693. This supports the findings of numerous other studies which report that study abroad participants' level of self esteem tended to increase, in the latter study proportionately with the extent of their contact with non-Americans. In the IES study reported by McMillan, "more than 96 percent of students surveyed indicated that they believe study abroad increased their self-confidence. Over 97 percent said the experience enabled them to learn something new about themselves and served as a catalyst for increased maturity." (1)

Interestingly, Oppen et al assessed and reported an increase in self-efficacy and that "17.8% of students became visibly more self-confident," taking into account allowances for different cultures amongst the respondents. (143) "Where there is change, this tends to be for students who were comparatively less internationally oriented and less confident about their competence than the majority of students surveyed prior to the study abroad experience."

The experience gave me the ability to travel, that is the location was key to the experience. I went to China for two months, to Thailand, to places I would not typically visit. It gave me confidence in my ability to take care of myself.

Intellectual Development

Included in this section on the sojourner's intellectual development are signposts of growth in those academic disciplines studied abroad, including language acquisition and growth, as well as a change or affirmation of academic plans and disciplines, in vocational and career choices, as well as the attributes that will contribute effectively to the attainment of career and academic success.

Again, there appears to be evidence in the literature for conclusive, positive or important change in terms of intellectual development in the learner due to a period

studying or working abroad, in that it can “increase job opportunity and influence type of job preferred, [...] employers tend to be positive about international experiences,” and that students “perceive that various cognitive skills have increased” after a period abroad. (Stronkhorst 3)

Intellectual Development: Acquiring or perfecting additional language(s)

I truly believe my exchange and subsequent fluency in Spanish has had an immense positive impact on me in all aspects of my life. ¡muchas gracias!

Learning the language is the door to understanding cultural differences, political system, and ways of thinking. Canadians should be bilingual!

We have previously discussed the importance of having or studying a second or other language as a motivator in the study abroad decision making process. But studying abroad can also be one of the most effective means of acquiring or strengthening skills in another language, even if the language of instruction at the host institution is English but the *lingua franca* of the host community is other. Author Barbara Freed reviews much of the literature of language learning and study abroad; she was originally motivated by a scepticism that the constant and positive claims of the connection between study abroad and better language learning were largely anecdotal and unproven by sound research, and she ultimately concludes that

the relationship between language learning and the study abroad experience suggests that there are indeed differences between the language proficiency of those who have had the opportunity to reside abroad and those whose language learning has been limited to the formal language classroom at home. [...] Those who have been abroad appear to speak with greater ease and confidence, expressed in part by a greater abundance of speech, spoken at a faster rate and characterized by fewer dys-fluent-sounding phrases. (50)

There are of course numerous variables, again including learner personality, length of program, engagement with and level of involvement in the host language, contact hours studying the language, engagement with and language spoken with friends or host family.

In a study by Carsello and Greaser, the most frequently noted changes in sojourners were increased interest in foreign languages and history, willingness and ability to relate to strangers, improved self-concept and a keener interest in information about their own family history and career plans. It is apparent from the literature that language learners have preconceived notions about language, how languages are learned, where language is housed in the mind, and that these preconceptions may influence their ability to learn and the manner in which they learn; these are what Miller and Ginsberg call 'folk linguistic theories.'

Learners truly do believe that it is easier to learn a new language in its home or 'natural' setting, and they maintain 'language myths' to a degree that they believe mere exposure to the language in the host language setting will enable them to learn the new language and learn the new language more quickly.³⁵ Of importance to learning is the learner's perception of the language as either a tool of communication in the host community or as an academic experience where the language is treated as another classroom subject, and it is important to search out, fashion and support language programs that eliminate this false gap between the class and the world. Regardless, there is extensive and near unanimous qualitative and quantitative research that supports the

³⁵ See studies cited in Pellegrino 95-96.

efficacious role of study abroad in second language acquisition, and the results of the current study corroborate these findings.

Of respondents in the current study, 63% reported that they learned a new language on the program. 77% felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their acquisition or perfection of additional languages, while interestingly 82% had anticipated a positive benefit in this regard. The mean score was 4.16 with 95 respondents, with a mode of 5 and a median of 4, and with a standard deviation of 0.816.

The language program provided me with the linguistic base to pursue academic study in my field and gave me a great deal of confidence in my conversational abilities.

A related issue in terms of linguistic and intellectual development is the potential that English-speaking participants (native or not) of programs in foreign language settings may develop or acquire facility to use 'higher' or different registers or styles of English.

English as it is employed in areas where it is the major native language of the community, such as in the British Isles, North America and Australasia, is a language which has the fullest possible range of styles running from the most to the least formal. This obviously does not mean to say, however, that all speakers have equal access to or ability in all styles, and it is generally accepted that one of the objectives of mother tongue education is to give pupils exposure to styles at the more formal end of the continuum that they might otherwise not gain any ability in using. (Trudgill 121)

The ability to use different styles or registers of English could be explained by participant exposure to more and different formal settings than they might normally be

accustomed to, as well as exposure to a new language and culture in new and again more formal settings. 56% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their acquisition of a better standard or use of English appropriate to different situations, while only 37% had anticipated a positive benefit to their use of English. The mean score was 3.65 with 93 respondents, with a median of 4, a mode of 3.5 and with a standard deviation of 0.885. These findings were not compelling but do suggest the need for further exploration of the issue.

I learned that I do not have a natural affinity for language, but I realized that I enjoy perfecting my own language - English - more than learning another. Ironically, the primary outcome of the program for me was the realization that I would enjoy a career writing, editing, or teaching English, and, in this way, the program was exceedingly helpful.

Intellectual Development: Academic plans and focus

The program was a long time ago, so it is hard to pin point its 'current impact', much has happened since then. (e.g. a Master's degree in the USA, a PhD In Japan, professional experiences in China, Hong Kong, Japan.) But fundamentally the program was extremely beneficial and I probably would not be here now if I hadn't done the program eight years ago.

85% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their academic plans and focus; interestingly, over 88% had anticipated that the impact would be positive. The mean score was 4.27 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 4, and with a standard deviation of 0.717.

In the study reported by Clyne and Rizvi, "students rated the learning experiences they had had during their exchange as very useful with regard to their further education plans (more than 60%) and returned to Australia with a different to very different approach to education (more than 70%)." (43) Almost 90% of the students stated that the experience had "changed their plans for the future either somewhat or dramatically." (45)

In a study by Carlson et al, “students ranked their general intellectual development higher abroad than it would have been at home.” Burnham et al report that “a majority of students reported changes in academic plans, social interests and political viewpoints.” (cited in Kauffman et al 170, 175)

Clyne and Rizvi state that “students rated the learning experiences they had during their exchange as very useful with regard to their further education plans (more than 60%) and returned to Australia with a different to very different approach to education (more than 70%).” (43)

Approximately 81% of respondents in Teichler and Maiworm’s study continued their academic careers upon completion of their ERASMUS-supported period, although only 64% at their home institution. (37) Further, the study indicated that of the former ERASMUS student respondents, “50% subsequently took up further study during the period between graduation and the time the survey was conducted. The proportion of those transferring to subsequent study and training seems to be extraordinarily high. Based on national surveys available in various countries on the transition to employment and early careers of graduates, we assume that less than 30% of graduates from institutions of higher education in all member states of the European Community will progress to subsequent study and training upon completion of their degree.” (48)

Interestingly, in our own research, 99% of respondents completed an academic program upon return from their international program, although not always that program in progress before their departure. The percentage of respondents completing academic certifications is here reported, with those in progress in that program before departure reported in parentheses: Bachelor’s degrees were completed by 51% (59% were enrolled

before departure); Diplomas by 8% (19%); Master's degrees by 14% (5%); Certificates by 5% (4%); Doctorates by 3% (2%); and 15% other academic achievements such as law degrees, teaching certificates or graduate diplomas (7%). While we can not make a direct comparison to the national average for all of these achievement categories, the proportion of those who graduate from their programs in universities across the country is closer to 80%. (MacLean's 73)

In the study conducted by Akande and Slawson, 26% of respondents went on to complete a Master's degree, 10% a J.D. and 5% a PhD and they conclude that "one possible impact of study abroad is that it promotes advanced graduate study." (3)

Albanese cites a number of studies that "all report similar conclusions, with the following outcomes seen as the most important: enhanced comprehension and retention of material; increased ability to view unfamiliar social settings from within; positive changes in stereotypes about other cultures; and, an improved attitude toward learning and self-identity." (291)

Intellectual Development: Career choice and employment

It was key in me changing directions in terms of my career path.

It caused me to rethink what I wanted to do in my future.

This program has had, and I believe will continue to have, a huge effect on my life and career directions.

77% of respondents in the current study reported that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their career choice, in identifying a change or an affirmation of their career choices, while 78% had anticipated such impact. The mean score was 4.1 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 4, and with a

standard deviation of 0.732. 48% of respondents extended their stay in the host country after the period of study, many for over one full year.

The British Columbia University Graduates Survey 2000 found that, among those surveyed who had studied and/or worked abroad (about 8% of those sampled, N=515), “83% reported that their experiences abroad provided them with useful knowledge and skills that they could use in their employment.” (3) Kauffman et al report that returning students are more aware of career options upon return.

Respondents in Van Hoof et al’s study, when “asked to rate the relevance of the experience to their future job opportunities, 58.1%of the students rated it as very or extremely relevant, 33.1% rated it relevant, and only 8.9% felt it was irrelevant (M = 3.75, SD=.98).” (49) Those in Clyne and Rizvi’s study “found the exchange experience beneficial professionally with almost 95%” acknowledging that their learning experience during exchange had been very or somewhat useful “with regard to future career plans.” (46) One student felt further compelled to strive for “global standards of professionalism.” In a ten-year follow-up study, Abrams found that the study abroad experience had impacted participants’ education plans, career plans and world views in comparison to a control group.

In his study of work abroad experience and career development, Hannigan found that for students with a practical term abroad there was a “greater increase in vocational self-concept crystallization” than for students participating in a practical experience at home, with the “overseas practicum group showing greater increases than the stateside group.” (8)

One of the more extensive studies to explore the relationship between career and a study abroad experience was that conducted by Opper et al in the 1980's; the Study Abroad Evaluation Project distributed a number of surveys to different populations and on different themes. While participants' aims might often be more immediately experiential and academic in nature, certainly some participants, as well as state and institutional stakeholders harbour the expectations that "qualifications and competences acquired in the study abroad will later prove useful in the graduate's careers." (145)³⁶

Certainly most returnees were optimistic and "anticipated occupational advantage" as a result of their participation, and assumed it would "help them attain their professional aims." The period of study abroad also encouraged respondents in the Opper et al study to affirm their career choices and many felt the time abroad would be "important to their future occupations." (148) This was borne out in follow-up studies; former study abroad participants have a very high employment rate (157) and many "were subsequently employed by organizations with marked international relations." (160) For example, more than half of their respondents reported that "they frequently used the language of the study abroad host country in the job" and that other knowledge acquired first hand on their programs was applied frequently in their professions. (161-162)

51% of respondents in the primary research of our current study felt it was important or very important in their current employment to speak a second language. 57% felt it was important or very important in their current employment to know about

³⁶ These figures vary by participant's country of origin and type and site of program and are here referred to in a more general way. The full study is a landmark in study abroad research.

international business practices. 70% felt it was important or very important in their current employment to know about global issues. 79% felt it was important or very important in their current employment to deal better with other countries and cultures.

Akande and Slawson found that 38% of respondents in their study “reported that their current working or living situation involves international activity, and 32% said that they have lived or worked abroad in the past. Almost 61% of those who currently live abroad also reported living abroad in the past.” (4) Those students who had gone on to complete a doctoral degree “were most likely to agree that study abroad ‘made a positive difference in my career.’” (3)

Again, it would appear to be a self-evident truth that citing an international experience on a resume might enhance access to employment and success in employment. It speaks to experience as well as to ambition and determination, and will assist in an office dynamic in even the increasingly-diverse domestic workplace.

McMillan states that in the IES study, their

statistics show that the influence of study abroad on future career goals and choices is profound, especially for those students who participated in an internship while abroad. [...]. Of the 596 students who responded that they had interned while abroad, 70 percent agreed that the experience had sparked an interest in a career direction they ended up pursuing after their experiences abroad. [...] Eight out of ten students who had interned abroad said that they had acquired skill sets that influenced their future career paths, such as working for a multi-national organization, getting a job overseas or volunteering internationally. (3)

Directly related to participants’ sense of career is their understanding of international business etiquette, and how appreciation of this might be honed in a study abroad setting. 95% of respondents in our current study felt that the impact of this

experience was positive or very positive on their understanding of international business etiquette, while 86% had anticipated a benefit in this regard. The mean score was 4.45 with 96 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.593. The British Columbia University Graduates Survey 2000 found that “most graduates (62%) reported that knowledge of international business practices was not important in their employment.” 35% responded that these skills were important. When respondent responses are broken down into disciplines, “58% of Business graduates, 56% of Natural Resource and Agriculture graduates, 50% of Law graduates and 47% of Engineering graduates” felt that these skills were important.” (3)

An employment position I held after my time in Japan came about because of my experience, and my business connections in Japan came out of my friends there. A very positive impact!

Intellectual Development: Understanding of the day-to-day realities, political environment, and current events of other cultures

Issues that I had previously seen as black and white, are now shades of grey. I lost the naiveté of my Western perspective and have gained an appreciation for the complexities of global issues, This informs my perspective on local and international events/ issues.

100% of respondents of respondents in our current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their understanding of day-to-day realities, political environment, and current events of other cultures, while 92% had anticipated that benefit. The mean score was 4.58 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.493. Numerous studies cited in Kalunian (132) support the claim that a study abroad experience does change views. She cites a report by Armstrong in which 94% of respondents who had spent seven weeks in Mexico “stated that their experience led them to change stereotypical ideas regarding

their host culture and its citizens. These students also cited a heightened awareness of other value systems and an appreciation of cultural differences.” The majority of respondents who had spent a junior year in Germany, reported in a study by Bicknese (1974), “learned to avoid generalizations regarding others and changed preconceived notions about the host group.” “Academic learning in a foreign environment is likely to make students aware of their attitudes and mindset, the limitations of their knowledge about other parts of the world and the degree to which their academic learning in their home country is bound by that country’s cultural and national interests.” (Opper et al 117)

One of the primary aims of the Michigan State University program in Nepal, as reported by Farrell and Suvedi was to increase the “understanding of the interface between social, political, religious, economic and environmental issues of Nepal.” (176) Results, based upon participants’ self-assessments of growth and outcomes, were consistently high and ranked on average from a mean of 4.46 to 4.84 on a five-point Likert scale. (179)

Related signposts of intellectual development include other questions addressed by respondents in the current study: a better understanding of global and local connections, and the interconnections between global and local issues; a better understanding of the impact of historical events, culture, political structures, and geography on world events; and a better understanding the impact of Western liberal democratic views on one’s perceptions of the world.³⁷

³⁷ “To travel is to discover that everyone is wrong about other countries.” Aldous Huxley

Most poignant to me was experiencing the effects of a continuing western colonization of East Asia culturally (vis-à-vis politically) around art and culture and what is considered elite and superior.

90% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their understanding of world and historical events, while 88% had anticipated such a benefit. The mean score was 4.37 with 95 respondents, with a mode of 5, a median of 4, and with a standard deviation of 0.651. Albanese cites a number of studies which convey “a strong conviction that through the experience of travel and study in other countries, students and educators begin to understand the complex social, political and economic ties on which hangs the global balance between harmony and conflict.” (284) 85% of respondents felt that the program was positive or very positive in terms of helping them to understand their own biases in terms of interpreting the world through their own perceptions. The mean score was 4.30 with 95 respondents, with both a mode and a median of 5, and with a standard deviation of 0.711.

The program changed my life. My university focus was radically altered and I became much more politically active. I now see the connections between local and global issues in a way that I had never before.

84% of respondents in the current study felt that the impact of this experience was positive or very positive on their understanding of interconnections between global and local issues, while 85% had anticipated a positive benefit. The mean score was 4.3 with 95 respondents, with a mode of 5, a median of 4, and with a standard deviation of 0.706. The British Columbia University Graduates Survey 2000 found that “most graduates (70%) reported that knowledge of traditions of other cultures was important in their employment; 67% responded that it was important to have some knowledge of the

interconnections between local and global issues; and 65% felt it was important to have some knowledge of global issues.” (3)

These outcomes mirror a participant’s growing international orientation in terms of a broader knowledge base of place and culture, which in turn has increased the number of comparisons he can make with his home culture; the outcomes further reflect a series of experiences in a host culture, all culminating ideally in more knowledge and changed views and opinions. If as Dewey argues learning comes from experience, it is the intense experience of a study abroad program – both within and outside of the classroom – that facilitates learning.

It's very easy to forget that our quotidian issues are not global, not far-reaching and really not important. At the same time, some local political issues take on a different perspective. Connectedness and global responsibility are great side effects!

It forced me to re-evaluate my western-centric bias.

I learned that wealth has nothing to do with happiness or intelligence.

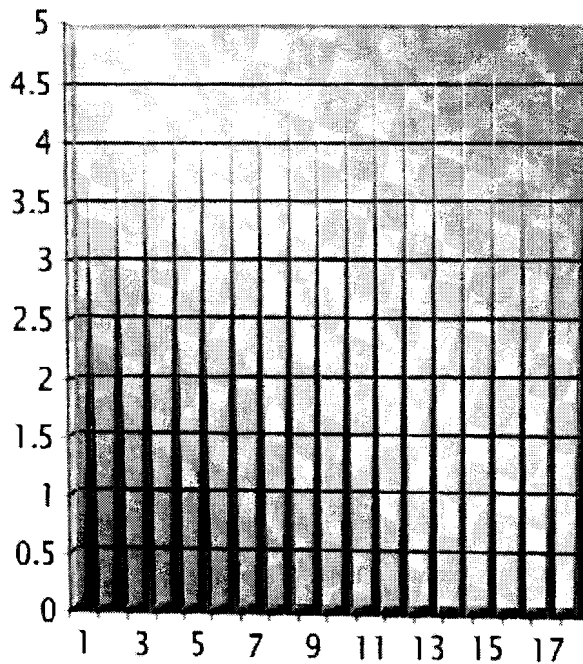
Summary of Findings

These outcomes can be viewed in a positive light for supporters of the activity of study abroad. The data show substantial support for the achievement of both intellectual and personal outcomes by participants. If we look further, however, it becomes clear that from the results of this study on this population that there is a marked weighting in the achievement of outcomes biased towards the personal rather than the intellectual. If we look merely at the mean scores we can see a low of 3.65 (on a scale of 5) for an item such as ‘the acquisition of a better register of English’ to a high of 4.73 for ‘acquisition of new levels of independence’. The table and figure below are illustrative of this trend.

Table 2: Acquisition of outcomes by mean

	ITEM	MEAN
1	register of English	3.65
2	effect on family life	3.85
3	career choice	4.10
4	additional languages	4.16
5	academic plans	4.27
6	interconnections between cultures	4.30
7	view of influence of liberal west	4.36
8	understanding of world events	4.37
9	imposition of other logic	4.38
10	new friendships	4.40
11	international business etiquette	4.45
12	self confidence	4.49
13	self awareness	4.54
14	psychological preparedness	4.57
15	preparation for challenging situations	4.57
16	tolerance	4.58
17	understanding day-to-day realities	4.58
18	independence	4.73

Figure 1: Acquisition of outcomes by mean



It is further interesting to note that the standard deviation of responses also decreases in a bias towards personal outcomes rather than business or intellectual gains, illustrating some uniformity in answers by the sampled population. A primary and obvious reason for these biases is that the population participated in markedly different types of academic programs, of varying lengths and in different locations, and hailed from different home institutions, and as such the business or intellectual outcomes achieved, or perceived to have been achieved, would vary. A control for future studies would have all participants in like programs of both a disciplinary and linguistic nature.

Strengths, Limitations and Recommendations

Social science research, including research on study abroad and on international education programming and outcomes, is by its very nature 'standing on the shoulders of giants'; it is both influenced by and indebted to studies, articles, concepts and approaches, other data collected and analyzed and other methodologies that have gone before. The decade of the 1990's saw the first serious attempts at organized research of study abroad, building upon and responding to over two decades of more explanatory and descriptive literature in the field that had traditionally been much more qualitative in nature. This author happily shows indebtedness to a large number of researchers and writers who have conducted ground-breaking studies and who have proposed research paradigms for the emerging discipline; special recognition is here given to Susan Opper, Ulrich Teichler and Jerry Carlson for their seminal work in this field, Impacts of Study Abroad Programmes on Students and Graduates (1990). In many ways this document has set the industry standard to date and is one that must be consulted by all researchers interested in exploring outcome and impact research.

Strengths

A strength of the current research was that the diversity of the population; the respondents hailed from different institutions and different institution types, in pursuit of different qualifications, they participated overseas on different programs at different institutions in different destinations, and they studied different disciplines in different languages. While all were Canadian citizens or landed immigrants, they represented a variety of different linguistic and ethnic backgrounds and different birth places, reflective of the Canadian norm. While each of these variables may have contributed some degree of causation to the outcomes achieved, they also represent a strength in that the outcomes achieved span all of these differences and are still achieved through or due to the study abroad experience; this fact is perhaps even more compelling evidence of the efficacy of these programs.

A relatively large response rate that gave us 96 completed questionnaires, and one partially completed, and a sample large enough to be both reliable and valid.

We have also embraced a methodology assuming wide currency in study abroad research, with use of the Likert scale and statistical analyses that are becoming the standard in the discipline. This will assist in the dissemination and appreciation of findings, and can be used for comparative purposes, to motivate further research, and to assist others in avoiding some of the limitations of the current study.

Limitations

Perhaps the most serious limitation in this research would also have been the most difficult to overcome, specifically to control the large number of variables that are potentially causative or motivating in nature. We can conclude from the current research

and from other research studies that the study abroad population achieves certain outcomes which are not shared by the stay at home population. However, what has been little tested is the motivation for having these students participate in the first place. Again, this is a self-selecting population that by most measures may already possess qualities not shared by the general student population, and this possibility alone poses the question whether some of these outcomes might have been achieved regardless of participation. Perhaps future studies might devise some control group mechanism of an equally-motivated population that does want to study abroad. For the purposes of this research, however, there was no control group, and in fact the control group for much study abroad research remains the stay at home population, a fact which may be unfair to both populations and should be addressed in future studies. The growth and dynamism of the 'Internationalization at Home' movement, starting in Europe, is a welcome contribution to the field and to both researchers in this field and to those students who for whatever reasons decide not to participate in a study abroad exercise.

It would also be desirable in future research to be anticipate the exploration of stronger correlations between participants and outcomes, specifically what motivations or respondent profile combine to offer the most 'bang for buck' on the program. Such correlations could help in student selection of those most likely to succeed as well as in the creation of new or modification of existing programming – both at home and abroad – for those students outside of this profile but for who a study abroad experience could be turned into an equally-as-important experience.

A second limitation was that, problematically, the questionnaire also asked the respondents – for some, several years after the fact – if they had anticipated such effect(s)

before departure; in that sense a pre-test would have been desirable but was unfortunately not possible with this population and study. There was no pre-test, and it would have been desirable to assume a more longitudinal approach, to be able to ask the same students the same or similar questions on two occasions, before and after participation, and thus to potentially observe more minute changes in the self-assessments of their growth.

Further Discussion

The study largely corroborates and builds upon the findings of other outcome-based research on the international educational experience. It offers further evidence of the positive impacts of study abroad, as well as some thoughts on the motivations of participants and the self-selecting nature of the participating population. Study abroad participants have a higher degree completion rate than non-participants, and a higher proportion go on to further academic pursuits. They use the skills they gain in their careers and often make fundamental decisions regarding the choice and direction of careers based upon their experience; they become more adept in dealing and communicating with other countries and cultures. They become more tolerant, tactful and culturally-sensitive citizens with a greater sense of home, community and family, with a wider and international circle of friends, and with a greater awareness of their nation's place in the world. They display an increased sense of psychological preparedness, independence, self worth, self confidence, and self awareness. Study abroad can be experiential learning at its best; it complements and reinforces interdisciplinarity and the two share many common attributes and outcomes.

The study abroad experience has here and elsewhere been shown to have a positive or very positive impact upon a wide variety of the academic, career, societal, and personal attributes that institutions of higher learning are hoping to foster in their students. Even so, too few institutions have embraced the study abroad experience, or embraced it well, and too few have encouraged and facilitated the exposure of their students and faculty to new cultures and experiences. The internationalization of higher education is too often mired in mission statements and not manifested in the trenches, in financial support to students, in the recognition of their overseas academic work, in innovative program design, in the utilization of returnees in the classroom and on the campus, in curricular change, and in the teaching, research and community service fundamental to the academic mission. Study abroad remains largely extra-curricular – ‘gravy’ as one practitioner put it – when in fact it supports more than many other requirements the professed goals of an advanced education.

It is hoped the study might spur on practitioners to engage in (some or more) quantitative and qualitative research on participants to and from their own institutions; this would be a way of creating a critical mass of data that can be used in program design, evaluation and quality assurance, in attracting increased and stable funding for the activity, in proving to their institutions the value of engagement in and support of international activities, as well as in attracting more interest from students in participating in the activity.

We can assume that if, on a larger societal level, returnees become good workers and good citizens, then it is a small but shrewd government investment to create a critical mass of educated, tolerant, and mobile citizens as an integral component of its next work

force. The recognition of foreign professional credentials can only be facilitated by a broader understanding of “global professionalism” towards an alleviation of skilled worker shortages present and anticipated in our own economies. From a more philosophical but perhaps more practical perspective, study abroad has shown its ability to foster greater global understanding and empathy and a decrease in xenophobia. There were both economic and intercultural imperatives that inspired early formal programs such as the Fulbright Scholarship to engage in the reconstruction of post-war economies and to encourage the intercourse of citizens and cultures. The latter may be the most important impact to be achieved. The question should not be posed as to “what benefit will be received if we support this activity and the achievement of these goals?” Rather, we must ponder the question “what will our society and the world look like if we don’t support this activity and attempt to achieve these goals?”

As Proust wrote in the quotation that began this chapter, “the real voyage of discovery consists not in seeking new landscapes, but in having new eyes.” Certainly the international experience is one to offer new ways of seeing, and these new eyes and new vantage of the landscape are important outcomes of an international experience.

I lived in the jungle and studied wild orangutans. I lived and worked with Birute Galdikas, an amazing woman. I also had the pleasure of studying with an interesting bunch of students from all over the world. We learned a tremendous amount from the local people. Anthropology classes were held in a tent in the jungle. I spent 14 hours a day following wild orangutans. I used Indonesian to communicate. We watched Proboscis monkeys diving off trees into the river. We took anthropology courses from a world-renowned anthropologist - in the jungle. We cannonballed in the rivers to scare the crocodiles away so that we could bathe safely. A summer spent studying in the most incredible and rich environment, how can this be anything but excellent! With respect to impacting my professional life, this experience contributed to my goal to work in this part of the world. I am currently working in a remote district of East Timor as a Human Rights Officer (UN) and work using Bahasa Indonesia. Throughout my professional career, I have drawn from my unique Kalimantan experiences to demonstrate to myself that my career can be forged down a wide range of interesting paths.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

We shall never cease from exploration

And the end of all our exploring

Will be to arrive where we started

And know the place for the first time.

TS Eliot, Four Quartets

Despite its dynamic rise into a unique and discrete field of practice and research – or perhaps because of this – there is much further research to be done in the field of international education, and there are gaps in the literature. It is a discipline that has only recently come into its own as a field worthy of independent enquiry, and it is the new hires in the new positions and the next wave of practitioners who will assume responsibility for the field; they are already arriving in offices with a sound training that has been focussed on the field and with an understanding of the history and complexity of their new vocation. Many practitioners current in the field, the existing and senior practitioners, have come from disparate backgrounds from language teaching, development work, student services and other administration, immigration, etc., and have gravitated towards the field by virtue of their common interest in the international and in support of student welfare; while they have developed exemplary skills and experience on the job, not all arrived on the job with the requisite skills. Additionally, amongst practitioners new and old alike, as well as in the broader academic community and the community at large, there is widespread confusion about globalization; between globalization and internationalization; about what they are and how they differ; about

underlying philosophies, if indeed any exist; and about which drives what activity.

Misconceptions abound about motivations for supporting or engaging in the international, and about the rationale for and efficacy of studying abroad; there continue to be un-researched claims about study abroad and international learning outcomes. Although this is changing, international education remains an activity largely justified by anecdote. As such it is a field rife with opportunity for researchers and visionaries, as well as a field now well established enough to weather and embrace diligent academic scrutiny.

In the preceding chapters we have introduced a new context in which to view the field of international education in general, and specifically international learning outcomes. We have identified the primary stakeholders in the activity – the State, the Institution and the Individual Participant – and cast in a new light the broader rationale for stakeholder engagement, in the process highlighting the vested interests of each stakeholder in pursuing specific outcomes from the experience; and we have also engaged in research to assess if these outcomes are truly achieved by significant numbers of participants in a study abroad program. In support of this discussion we have distilled over a decade of literature as background and foundation for our research and discussion.

In order for us to achieve this novel vantage, the context for the discussion needed to be established on a number of levels. We first examined the history and evolution of academic mobility in the context of state support for education. How and why has the Church or the State supported education since its formalization?

Academic mobility predates both the creation of the nation state and the creation of the university; scholars and learners were itinerant and sought out or formed centres of learning and in the process these evolved into the first great seats of knowledge, further

attracting scholars and students and ultimately evolving into the school and the university. As the notion of statehood evolved, and borders were created, cultures were both defined and defended and one of the functions the state assumed was to educate its citizenry; the fundamental concepts behind Plato's dictum that the state should educate each individual 'for the place and work to which he is best fitted' – and Aristotle's supportive assertion that the state should educate its citizenry to play their parts in society – have stood the test of time as church or mosque and state have both supported and fought over control of education, and ultimately called the tune through funding and policy support; with no other recourse, institutions have danced along to that tune. Each player in the equation realizes that there are valuable outcomes in supporting education, and in our modern context of international mobility, each player still realizes a vested interest in supporting academic mobility.

This historical glimpse necessarily led to further discussion on the role of the state – and often of the church – in supporting the activity of higher education. Historically, education has been supported, directed, and governed by the power of the day, be it church³⁸ or state or some combination thereof. The powers have directed what is to be taught, to whom, and often where and in what manner; this direction has not been selfless and has not always been directed towards helping the individual achieve his true potential – a modern concept if there ever was one -- but rather has been used to force agendas, to buttress the status quo and to achieve the broader economic, societal and religious aims as perceived by the authorities.

³⁸ We use the term 'church' to denote the role of religion in supporting education, for just as certainly as the church was and is engaged, so were the mosque and the synagogue and in fact, today the mosque may be playing a more prominent role in educating its citizenry than either the synagogue or the church.

More recently, the state as manifest in the developed economies has been encouraging the recruitment of individual fee-paying students to study abroad, most markedly in a South to North direction and most successfully towards English-speaking economies. This assists institutions with revenue generation but assists the state in the creation of international good will, with a movement of revenue into host economies through clean industry, and also provides a young, educated and healthy population from which to cull new immigrants for the work force.

More importantly, however, has been the recent and growing support of developed nation states, federations such as the European Union and trading blocs such as NAFTA and the EU, in supporting formal mobility programming towards nation-building on the one hand and towards the education and cultivation of populations conversant with one another and with one another's economies on the other hand. The state is without doubt a major stakeholder in the activity of international mobility in higher education.

We explored the type of support the modern state or federation gives to both education and to the activity of international mobility, and the constitutional tensions that arise when jurisdictional boundaries are crossed, for example, when the federal government in Canada attempts to influence a provincial activity such as post-secondary education, or conversely when a 'capital' like Brussels attempts the same influence or suasion over the jurisdictional authority of the nation states in the European Union. Why would they and how do they do this?

Partial answers to both of these issues were found in the final level of context we have constructed, specifically the effects of the massive acceleration of globalization, the

institutional response to globalization coined ‘internationalization’, and the related trend of the ‘massification’ of higher education. The process of globalization has been with us for hundreds of years, beginning at least when the new colonial powers encouraged the migration of work forces and the movement of goods and capital across the globe in directions and quantities never before seen. The post-war acceleration of globalization has, however, given rise to unprecedented movement of capital and mobility of people, initially workers and increasingly students, as they follow capital and jobs and opportunities across borders. The mobility of students – current estimates have well over 2 million post-secondary students studying in other countries – is one that follows fairly established patterns, with some South-to-South movement and much South-to-North movement of students travelling on their own for full degrees and paying for their own programs, and with North-to-North movement of students either funding themselves and travelling on their own or increasingly travelling on formal programs sponsored and funded by capitals such as Brussels, Washington and Ottawa. Globalization is about market share and leveraging position; state-sponsored mobility programs are inevitably within or between trading blocs and are exclusively North-to-North.

Of necessity we explored in detail a discussion of globalization – a motivating factor in the growing mobility of students – and looked at its manifestations and influences in some detail; it was important to reference the related theme of massification in higher education as well as to engage in discussion of the academic or institutional response to globalization, specifically the phenomenon of internationalization. Internationalization is higher education’s response to globalization, and despite the fact that a lay person will often use the terms as synonyms, the two are fundamentally

different phenomenon, albeit with similar manifestations in some contexts. Not all facets of globalization are negative, however, and in fact many can be deemed positive; indeed, there are crusaders who find no down-side in the reality of globalization at all. In the same way, not all facets of internationalization can be deemed successful, or indeed would be deemed positive by a large number of educational practitioners. Even so, the motivation behind and intent of an internationalization strategy is positive for the larger national interest as well as for the interests of the local and broader community, the institution and the student. Student mobility is rightly a cornerstone of most institutions' internationalization strategies.

In its present reconvergent phase, higher education is experiencing a return to universalism, a shared recognition of the global community of scholars and knowledge. Post-WWII peace and prosperity, the end of the Cold War, and the exponential growth and influence of technology have all contributed to the phenomenal rise of globalization, exemplified by increased movement and increased speed of movement of goods, people, capital, information and knowledge. Borders have become more porous and nation states less relevant. An economic jockeying for position is underway and states are again using education as a means to buttress their positions and to affect societal and economic change in their national interests. Support for international academic mobility is one manifestation of that suasion. Institutions on almost a global basis are pursuing their own internationalization discussions, agendas and activities and are pivotal in both the free and formal movement of students. Institutions are thus also major stakeholder in the activity of international mobility in higher education.

We explored the motivations for individual students to study abroad, what factors encourage them to the table and what enticements the institution and the state can use to encourage their involvement, such as financial support, program organization and the facilitation of transfer credit. Individual participants are also a major stakeholder in the activity of international mobility in higher education.

There is no lack of interest in higher education and academic mobility; stakeholders include the business community, different levels of government, the learner and learner's family, the learner's home institution and host institution, community and sports groups, linguistic or cultural or religious minorities and majorities, the list could go on. But although there are other stakeholders in the equation, they are 'minor' stakeholders such as business or the family, and we suggest here that these three entities – the State, the Institution and the Individual – are the three primary stakeholders supporting engagement in study abroad, and have the most vested interest in achieving specific outcomes. Each anticipates some benefit from its support for and engagement in the activity, some 'international learning outcome', and to date the stakeholders have been sufficiently satisfied with the experience or with the wealth of anecdotal evidence that outcomes are being achieved, that the activity of student mobility has continued to grow on a global basis. Attempts are ongoing to better articulate what these international learning outcomes are, or what they should be. However, it is only recently that educators and practitioners have started to research both the quantitative and qualitative outcomes of study abroad: in order to assess quality and justify the activity; in order to better leverage both state and institutional funding and support for the activity; in order to assess stakeholder satisfaction; and ultimately in order to inform the creation of new

programming or the modification of existing programming to better meet stakeholder expectations.

Each stakeholder in the process is engaged in supporting the activity in anticipation of some return on an investment of time, funding or energy. Each is supporting the activity in anticipation of some positive potential impact from the study abroad period, some result from that wide range of possible international learning outcomes that could possibly be achieved by individuals, and by extension, quantifiably by populations. The ongoing maintenance of existing programs; the creation and implementation of new programs; new or increased state or institutional support for the activity; the recruitment and retention of new participants for the programs: all will increasingly rely on some proof that these outcomes are being achieved, that the investment of each stakeholder is being returned and is both valid and valuable. This was a major motivation for this research activity; what are the outcomes, and are they being achieved?

We explored the literature on outcomes and impact and for the first time have attempted an exhaustive description of these goals, an articulation of desired international learning outcomes, and have created of a set of outcomes from which each stakeholder will choose often overlapping motivations for engaging in or supporting the activity. Such a set is one which will hopefully inform the 'industry' standard of such measurements and further encourage practitioners to better focus on outcomes-based program design, with potentially profound effect on the field.

We pursued a discussion of research tools and what research methodology might be most appropriate and efficacious in measuring learning outcomes and attitudinal

change. Through a reporting of primary research we have assessed whether these outcomes are being achieved and have added to the small number of quantitative studies done in this arena. The research reported here should contribute to a growing corpus of knowledge on international learning outcomes and will lead naturally into a discussion of novel programming models and recommendations for further research and programming.

In our discussion of research results, supported by an analysis of responses to a detailed questionnaire given to over 240 international sojourners, we assessed what outcomes were achieved and how the results from the study reported here are corroborated elsewhere in the literature. The questionnaire was completed and returned by 96 study abroad alumni of an awards scheme managed by the BCCIE.

Finally, the research data were compelling and showed to a strong degree of significance that many of these desired outcomes are being achieved and often to a resounding degree. The results demand further research in this area but also beg the question of their applicability. Now that we have these data, and are developing a corpus of knowledge in support of these hypotheses, what next? So what? What do we do with this information?

Application

We can make the results of this dissertation more concrete, more applicable, on a number of levels, and rather than going on at length with a recap and summary of the dissertation itself, I intend to use the balance of this paper to propose ways to render this work more applicable.

A contribution can be made in terms of direct application to a single university; in our earlier discussion we looked at one university, Simon Fraser University, and at its internationalization strategy. It will be germane to this discussion to see how the findings of the current research might impact international programming there, or more broadly how it might impact the agenda of internationalization.

A contribution can be made to the body of literature; only now is quantitative evidence in support of outcomes and study abroad becoming more readily available. Further, the current research findings need to be used in support of internationalization at home; how can we use outcomes-motivated programming to affect that large stay-at-home population, and what forms of suasion are needed to convince stay-at-home faculty to adopt curricular change to that end?

Perhaps more importantly, a contribution of this work to the literature is in the articulation of a context through which to view the activity of study abroad, so that practitioners are under no illusions about the motivation of the state or the institution or the individual in supporting the activity; in turn they might respond with outcomes-motivated programming and evaluation of existing programming to better assist the student participants in achieving their aims. Further, they can assist their home campuses and the stay-at-home populations of students and faculty to inspire outcomes-motivated programming at home.

A contribution can be made by putting forward recommendations for further research that colleagues might pursue; both researchers and practitioners across the globe have dynamic populations of willing subjects walking into and flying out of their offices on a daily basis. Longitudinal studies, large populations, more attention to control

groups, more detailed qualitative studies, all will be valuable contributions to the corpus of literature.

Finally, we can contribute by showing how program design can be enhanced by working backwards from desired outcomes; in order to maximize benefit to all stakeholders, and thus ensure longevity for our programming, practitioners need to be pro-active in fending off accusations of study abroad as mere academic tourism; instead we need to show unequivocally that engagement in a well-structured study abroad program may in fact better deliver articulated and hoped-for outcomes for academic programming than many domestic programs do, regardless of discipline. Additional to the intellectual and disciplinary growth, the participant will come home with the added benefit of new experience and personality growth unattainable at home. Establishing formal and transparent links between outcomes and programming models will serve the larger institutional goals of interdisciplinarity, and ultimately will be of great benefit to future administrators and researchers as well as to the primary stakeholders themselves.

Simon Fraser University

Simon Fraser University is an example of a North American university that has attempted to embrace internationalization. Many of the fundamentals are in place at the institution, and through relatively wide community consensus, together with both administrative support and a welcome convergence of rhetoric and budget, there is increasingly widespread buy-in to articulated goals and activities; it is at this juncture that stakeholders in the institution can begin to realize real benefits. Much work remains to reach an ideal, however.

The benefits of a sound internationalization strategy and process are manifold, but the strategy must accommodate the differences between globalization and internationalization; it must encompass more than merely a series of activities, and these must involve the entire community. These benefits, when derived from student mobility programming, are of great value to the entire community: to the students themselves, for the many reasons shown earlier; they are of benefit to the now diverse and dynamic classrooms the students have populated overseas and now do back at home upon their return, having participated in the most intensive learning experience of their lives; they are of benefit to the staff and faculty they deal with in learning and research, both at home and abroad; they are of benefit to the fellow students they are in contact with, both at home and abroad, and these are often the stay-at-home population whose contact with mobile students needs to be encouraged and channelled into productive activity within and outside of the classroom; and ultimately this is of benefit to the departments, faculties, and institutions they return to. These are students who have returned with more advanced personal and interpersonal skills, with better defined academic and career paths and who, upon return often land jobs or access graduate school upon the strength of their international experience. They return having experienced life on their own, having lived and studied under different learning systems and styles, having learned and developed new understandings of world cultures, of the similarities and differences between cultures, and perhaps most importantly, having tested and pushed the limits of their own tolerance and gained in the process.

The institutional ideal referred to earlier would necessarily include an infusion of all curriculum with an international dimension; incentive and opportunity, recognition

and reward, and financial, career and academic support for international experience for staff, faculty and students; a dynamic, diverse and international demographic that supports and is encouraged to support tolerance and diversity; concrete, achievable and articulate international goals for each academic and administrative unit; an institutional mission statement, policies and budgets that reflect its importance; sustainable partnerships and active alumni chapters; contract, research and development activities; and the utilization of returning students to great effect in the classroom and in the broader community. These lofty goals can be realized.

Faculty, departmental and service units could begin to articulate goals and strategies to achieve those goals, towards qualitative and quantitative change in curriculum and programs. Integrated and area studies could be introduced or re-invigorated. Budget planning could better begin to accommodate the international. Mandatory and program-specific study abroad could be introduced, much as co-operative work terms are a mandatory component of some academic programs; international co-operative education could be further brought into the mainstream. Academic reward and recognition for students, staff and faculty could be implemented, easing student concerns of transfer credit and both staff and faculty concerns of dead-end careers should they fall out of the confined parameters of 'progress through the ranks' and too-well defined research and publication requirements. Fund raising and development activity could be directed towards scholarships for both incoming and outgoing students, partly targeting a revitalized alumni community that would again begin to experience regular and senior visits and feel itself a part of the community. Targeted and diverse recruitment strategies could be implemented, based upon secure funding, enriching the campus and classroom

and encouraging the University's students to consider an international experience. Senior co-ordination of the various units and their activities, and sound two-way communication practices and information sharing would foster the innovation, entrepreneurialism and buy-in for internationalization that neither neglect nor micro-management have encouraged.

Most relevant to the current discussion is how the institution might address and consider internationalization through the activity of student mobility, and specifically through a greater emphasis on outcomes-motivated programming. A student's international experience needs to complement and dovetail into the academic experience at home; there needs to be a growth in appreciation of its academic and intellectual value as well as its experiential value (and relevance to the goals of an interdisciplinary and liberal arts education) in terms of career goals and lifelong learning. There needs to exist strong and sustainable partnerships pursuing achievable outcomes and goals; having the student learn new languages and cultures and new ways of thinking and learning must be a given, and we need to construct our programmes to ensure these outcomes. The international exchange of credit should be a given, and returning students must be used to enrich campus and classroom life through specific activities and towards specific ends. Ultimately, the international nature of the experience and the benefits derived from the period abroad will open new career paths and opportunities, as well as access to graduate work and research. The experiential component of the student experience need not be sacrificed by the application of outcomes-motivated programming, and in fact can only be enhanced.

One example of outcome-motivated programming that might take place is that a specific study abroad course or curriculum should be created that will allow the granting of course credit for that one course, through a designated home department that will allow the student to get useable credit towards her degree. The course will encourage the participating student to engage in activities before, during and after the international experience that will enhance the intellectual and personal growth. Activities in each stage of the course need to be identified with reference to the desired outcomes. Pre-departure activities can end in a pre-departure orientation program and will include a documented research program on the host country that should address on even a cursory basis the politics, history, geography, language, culture and customs, religions, cuisine, education, laws, safety, agriculture and industries of the country; if possible there should be a meeting with local community groups from that country, and perhaps a meeting (organized by the university) with the local consular official from that country. This might then require a paper or a presentation.

The second component of this course would be a series of activities that must be done while abroad, and must be documented through photographs or taped interviews or some such media and again needs to be supported by a paper or journal. These activities could include participation in cultural events such as music concerts or festivals; perhaps a cooking course; if possible attendance at a religious ceremony; a discussion with a local politician; a history of the local transit system; a volunteer stint or internship (or *etage*) in a local business or office. Visits to markets and to the countryside. Some indication that the student has taken pains to understand the culture, and to disengage from fellow

international sojourners in order to penetrate the host culture with some degree of validity and authenticity.

The final component of this 'course' would be realized upon the student's return home; the subsequent term could be used in the completion of the required papers, in public presentations to classrooms and the community and in other specially-arranged forum, in a certain number of volunteer hours in support of internationalization activities on the home campus or elsewhere in the community, and perhaps some other form of outreach activities to the former host community. Perhaps not all students would participate in such a program, but those that do could anticipate credit for an additional course (perhaps having been given free tuition to that course) and perhaps completion of this course and the international program, coupled with proven fluency in a different language, could be sufficient to provide to the student some special international designation on his degree, much in the way an Honours designation or a Co-operative Education designation is currently granted to some degree recipients.

This is but one of a myriad of options that might be adopted and adapted for use by a university such as Simon Fraser in support of more outcome-motivated programming and in its march towards greater internationalization.

Contribution to the Literature

The results of this research will contribute to the growing corpus of literature and data supporting international mobility and the achievement of specific outcomes as a result of this participation in an international program. The number of journals dedicated to aspects of international education is growing, as is the complexity and professionalism

of their peer-reviewed articles they contain. Degree programmes are being created and filled in North America and Europe that cater to students with a vocational interest in international education. Regional and international conferences increasingly devote important segments of their programs to reports on recent and ongoing research activity. Training and certification programmes are proliferating as the field becomes better established and realizes its own needs for quality, evaluation and a shared recognition of professional credentials. It is a dynamic period in international education, and despite world events that often threaten to discourage international mobility, participation rates continue to rise and programs continue to grow. As such, the current research will add to the body of literature and will encourage similar studies of different populations towards a critical mass of data and research incontrovertible in their support for international education and the acquisition of international learning outcomes.

A contribution of this work that might have broader impact is in the introduction and presentation of a context through which to view the activity of study abroad; practitioners need to be under no illusions about the motivations of the state or of the institution (and by extension of themselves) or the individual in supporting the activity. They need not buy wholesale into such a construct but need to better appreciate the various factors at play in this activity, and perhaps alternate contexts will be raised and a healthy debate might ensue.

Additionally, another contribution of this work is in the introduction of an exhaustive listing and categorization of outcomes, a set and its subsets, a menu of sorts, a continuum; usage of such an approach may gain some currency in the field. It might assist researchers in honing their fields of study and further assist practitioners in the

modification and creation of outcomes-motivated programming. We will address this latter issue later in the chapter.

Further Research

It is beyond the scope of the present research to articulate and research all of the skill sets and talents that study abroad participants bring to the table; to assess what might affect individuals' motivations, choices and abilities to study abroad; that motivate students to pursue the disciplines they study; or dictate the reasons they choose to study in a particular location either at home or abroad; it is further beyond the scope of one study to attempt a correlation of these factors and variables with the outcomes achieved from the study abroad period. Even so, research of such phenomena will be valuable indeed for international program design, modification and evaluation, for the purpose of student recruitment into programs, and for the design of programs for that large stay-at-home population.

That said, the results of the survey addressed here might also speak to other issues and raise interest in further research:

- What could constitute a control group for study abroad research purposes, given the attributes much of the study abroad population brings to the equation? For example, do students with, say, a higher grade point average have a greater predisposition towards embracing an international experience and thus a greater disposition to embrace the learning outcomes we hope to facilitate?
- Do these same students then self-select themselves into the programs and render impact studies less germane?
- Are there academic, career or personal factors that predispose these students to study abroad or to choose a particular destination?

- What, if any, are the relationships between the program, the destination, the participant – and his or her background and family and pre-study abroad experience – and the outcomes?
- What other factors might affect success on the overseas program? What type of success?
- Would it be possible to devise a research program using two study abroad populations, with all else being equal except the content and /or structure of the overseas program, and test for outcomes based upon only these variables? (For example, variables that might be introduced between two otherwise ‘like’ populations overseas could include level of contact with host nationals, and with fellow nationals from home; home stay versus dormitory living; language of instruction; length of program; location of program, in terms of institution type, or urban or rural settings; type and context of pre-departure orientation, and of re-entry orientation; classroom settings versus work or internship components, etc. Each of these variables could be studied in correlation with desired outcomes, pre- and post-experience studies could be done, or more longitudinal studies in terms of career follow-up could be pursued.)
- Are the learning outcomes we hope to encourage achieved only by those who study abroad, and not by those who stay at home? Is it possible to design programming for the stay-at-home population? If so, are these outcomes in some way transportable or transferable to the students who remain at home? Can we pilot ‘domestic’ programming that might achieve similar goals?
- How much time abroad – and how much cultural immersion while abroad – are necessary to inculcate hoped-for competencies?
- Can we – and if so, how can we – structure our programs to enhance desired learning outcomes? What types of programs will yield what type of results?
- How can we better design research and utilize research findings to fashion and modify international programs that optimize the potential for positive outcomes?
- To what extent does the prestige and dominance of a learner’s home country affect his or her socialization to a foreign country and a less-dominant culture?
- What are the differences between the impact of time abroad on a sojourner undertaking the backpacking Grand Tour as opposed to the

student spending a similar time abroad on a formal academic experience?

There are many questions: How do expectations of outcomes differ from the state, the institution and the student? Are these outcomes being achieved by all participants of our international programs and, if not, is it program structure or individual predisposition that carries more weight? And what of the students? Do these outcomes in any way mesh or overlap with their own reasons for wanting to participate in a mobility program? Surely there must be some overlap. Do they achieve different outcomes? Do their experiences differ? Based upon what criteria?

“Though differences must clearly exist in the experiences of student categories (not only from different nations and cultures, but, for example, native English speakers and others, those from Western industrialized countries and others, those financially self-sufficient and others, visible minorities and others, familial, and single people, and men and women), such specifics have not been researched.” (Harris 35)

Each of these could be addressed through the study abroad offices of universities around the world; researchers and practitioners alike could engage in longitudinal studies, studies with large populations that either share uniform characteristics or are unique in their diversity. More attention can be paid to control groups, to the stay-at-home population, to outcomes achieved by the general student population; specific attention might be given to a control group of those stay-at-home students in overtly interdisciplinary liberal arts-type program, given this study’s assertion that the goals of such an education might be better achieved through a period of study abroad. More detailed qualitative studies could be pursued; all of the above will be valuable contributions to the corpus of literature.

Several references have been made throughout this dissertation, and specifically in this the concluding chapter, about the stay-at-home population, and about what might be done for that population to give them the same opportunities to achieve some of the learning outcomes achieved by the study broad population. We will here spend some time discussing valuable work being done on the notion of Internationalization at Home, and then offer a programming model that is outcomes-motivated for both study abroad and stay-at-home populations.

Internationalization at Home

The concept of working at home as well as abroad – as an integral part of an internationalization strategy – has been around from some years, but was truly put into practice by a dedicated group of Europeans at a European Association for International Education (EAIE) conference in Maastricht, where “in an overcrowded cellar” the inaugural chapter of Internationalization at Home (IaH) was formed. The Special Interest Group within EAIE was formed, to quote one of its primary architects, Dr Bengt Nilsson to deal

with questions on how we can give the non-mobile students an international dimension to their education. Can our work with internationalisation also contribute towards finding ways to equip our students with the necessary basic tools to identify and interpret stereotypes in all situations of cultural difference? Can it support the personal development of each student regarding concepts such as courage, broadmindedness, intercultural understanding and racism resistance? What kind of student do we want to produce in the coming decade? (1)

Despite overwhelming success in making mobile the European student (and faculty) population, there is still only about 10% of the student body moving domestically, or internally within the European Union, on an annual basis. This fact

alone raised the flag as to how to address that stay-at-home population; some universities have gone as far as making this non-mobile population the centrepiece of their internationalization strategies. International student mobility was the first and immediately the most easily comprehended component of the international; it led naturally to other aspects of internationalization and in fact remains the foundation for most international activity, as well as a motivation for more diverse international activity.

If international mobility is in fact a major component of internationalization, and if both the state and the institution appreciate that it is a key component in the process of both nation-building and citizen building, than it would behove both the state and the institution to offer that 90% of stay-at-home students both a European and an international dimension to their education. IaH was formed to encourage discussion and research and ideas and to assist practitioners in helping that non-mobile majority of students to achieve some of the same outcomes as the mobile population, to assist them in gaining better understandings of countries and cultures, and to encourage their acquisition of new levels of tolerance, understanding, respect and knowledge for others in an increasingly global society and economy and, especially in Europe, in an increasingly multicultural environment?

Internationalization at home – or in our context, the facilitation of the achievement of international learning outcomes to a non-mobile student population – may in many ways be a more onerous process than organizing similarly-motivated activities abroad. Considerations for the two types of activity – the domestic and the international – may overlap, but certainly in planning for programming for the non-mobile we must consider the following:

- program and curricular content, necessarily with senior administrative and faculty-level buy-in; this may require further training of staff as well as support towards the mobility of faculty
- constructive exposure to non-host country nationals, both students and faculty, in classroom, community and/or work settings
- constructive exposure to home country nationals (student and faculty) returned from an international experience
- use of distance or computer technology for liaison while some population of host and home country nationals (students and faculty) while they are still abroad; for example, joint classroom assignments with classes and students abroad
- co-operation with foreign partners in pursuing these same internationalization goals and outcomes.

The exercise begs the question as to whether the outcomes can be the same for the two populations of students, assuming if we can that outcomes-motivated programming is pursued by both populations. At this juncture, in the absence of such comparators, we cannot know this answer; however, were such programming models put in to practice, we would address some of the concerns outlined earlier in recommendations for further research, and we would in essence be creating a control group who stays at home. This is a factor worthy of consideration in the adoption of new programming models.

As we near a conclusion to this discussion, it is here appropriate to introduce a model for an outcomes-motivated program that will encourage the achievement of international learning outcomes for the mobile population but will also lend support to internationalization and outcomes-motivated programming at home and for the stay-at-home population of students and faculty. The inspiration for this model comes from a number of sources, including both the EU-Canada and NAFTA consortia exchange agreements as well as Simon Fraser University's own successful field school programming. An earlier iteration of this model was drafted as part of a submission to

Human Resources Development Canada (HRDC) as it sought ideas for expansion of its state-supported international mobility schemes; it has since been modified for use by local colleagues and in fact is now being successfully put into practice at a local college and with its partners in a North American mobility program.

Outcomes-motivated Program Design

One approach to program design is to take what we know about mobility and international programming off the table, start from scratch and work backwards from hoped-for outputs – in our case a list of desired outcomes –towards the design of a program that will maximize the likelihood of achieving stated outcomes, one that will maximize benefit to all stakeholders. Components of that program should each then logically refer back to the anticipated outcome they support.

It is an unfortunate reality that still today practitioners need to be pro-active in fending off accusations of study abroad as mere academic tourism – or as ‘gravy’ on the meat and potatoes of the real academic programs – objections that hail from the outside community as often as from conservative bastions within academe; instead it needs to be shown unequivocally that engagement in a well-structured study abroad program may in fact better deliver articulated and hoped-for outcomes for academic programming than many domestic programs do, regardless of discipline. The intellectual outcomes can be addressed and achieved at home to most degrees; it is in the achievement of the added value to the intellectual that one turns to the international, and it is of most necessity to the achievement of the personal outcomes that participants need to be engaged in focussed activities of an international nature.

Establishing logical and transparent links between outcomes and programming models will serve larger institutional goals of interdisciplinarity, and ultimately will be of great benefit to faculty, administrators and researchers as well as to the primary stakeholders themselves.

By way of example, we would here like to bring forward a model for consideration that does these things; it maintains an eye to both the mobile and the non-mobile populations of students; it is outcomes-motivated in that it includes both academic and life experience and growth within the program, which will necessarily affect the key outcomes identified and researched earlier in this document. And finally it attempts to combine all of the most important and most salient components of a mobility programs into its design; these would normally include considerations such as the following:

- strong institutional commitment
- strong bilateral or multilateral partnerships, with the potential for the creation of institutional networks
- long-term commitment with articulated and achievable goals and objectives
- a mutual embrace of internationalization by all partners
- participation of both students and faculty from participating institutions; that is, a program that accommodates the mobility of both student and faculty
- potential for student internships
- joint programming and ideally progress towards mutual degree recognition
- reciprocity of students and faculty
- pre-approved recognition and international exchange of credit

- removal of barriers to participation by innovative funding and in-kind contributions of both state and institution
- student awards as well as flexible and variable contribution options for funding and student support.

This ideal program we construct from these foundations should address outcomes on different levels; it is a given that we want participants to achieve the stated academic, intellectual and linguistics objectives of the academic program, the intellectual outcomes; that is, we want to give them the opportunity to master the disciplinary content of their program, be it engineering or political science, and albeit with a strong flavour of the international and of different points of view within that intellectual objective. There is a value added that international can offer to any discipline and this needs to be brought to the fore in program design. Further, we want participants to engage in the learning or mastery of new or other languages wherever possible, and as such some sites for this model should necessarily be in host countries where a language other than English is spoken and used in the classroom. These are some components of dialogue that need to take place between academics and practitioners in the design of the program, for it is after all is said and done an academic program, and its success will be largely be assessed measures of intellectual and disciplinary growth and the marks of academic evaluations.

Additionally, however we need to construct a program that assists and encourages students, wherever possible, to achieve the other outcomes as well; participating students should be given the tools to:

- achieve a change in or confirmation of academic discipline
- achieve a change in or confirmation of a chosen career
- support the likelihood of completion of the degree in progress

- support the likelihood of further education after the international experience
- become sensitive to and use different registers of English
- develop an understanding of different and international business practices
- develop an understanding of and tolerance towards different cultures
- further develop levels of tolerance towards difference, levels of tolerance towards ambiguity
- further develop levels of sensitivity and tact
- develop a better understanding of the world and of the interconnection between global and local events
- increase their psychological preparedness for new situations
- further develop increased and diverse problem-solving techniques
- further develop increased self-confidence, autonomy and self-awareness.

It is an ambitious plan to accommodate these goals, these structures and also attempt to address the needs of both the mobile and the non-mobile student.

Thematic Education Network (TEN) Model

The model being put forward can be coined Thematic Education Networks, or TEN. In short, it is a carousel-type program where the term of study moves between participating partners, and as such there can be as few as two or three partners or as many as can realistically be accommodated. By way of example, a cohort of students and at least one participating faculty member from each institution will embark on the carousel at their own institution, where they will be joined by students and faculty from other participating institutions, or other points on the carousel. All will participate in the program for one term there in classes taught by visiting faculty or jointly by visiting and

local faculty – and most students and faculty will follow the carousel to the next location.

At any given time and in any given location there will be students and faculty from virtually every member of the network, participating in classes together and with host country national students and faculty.

The model was developed (and is currently in use) to address aforementioned issues of outcomes and quality program design, and it attempts to do so in that it:

- creates networks of institutions co-operating on a single disciplinary theme
- assumes significant levels of faculty involvement and travel, and assumes joint programming and joint curriculum development between institutional partners to ensure sustainability
- requires networks of institutions from across a geographic catchment area co-operating on the creation and delivery of programming and curriculum on a specific disciplinary theme
- requires 100 percent credit transfer
- requires both student and faculty mobility
- allows for great flexibility in terms of funding support by countries and institutions and individuals. Further, it encourages in-kind support where levels of financial support are at issue
- supports group rather than individual student mobility, with a flexible approach to the numbers of participants for any given country or institution
- ensures maximum individual student and group exposure to and contact between host and home country students and faculty, and guarantees participation of stay-at-home students and faculty
- supports internships where feasible
- can be modified for use by level and type of post-secondary institutions
- allows for a flexible number of institutions, countries and students in each program; for example, one program might have only four

countries involved, another fourteen. Countries/institutions may self-select and financially support only those thematic networks they choose to, not the entire program.

- addresses issues of both student and professorial reciprocity
- supports both the internationalization of curriculum and participating institutions.
- supports the creation of real partnerships and their sustainability through components such as faculty involvement in program design and joint delivery.

Network Creation

The network of partners is established based upon their willingness to engage students and faculty in the discipline in question; for the sake of this example, let us say it is trade and immigration in the Americas. We have identified and engaged with a network of both North and South institutions for this program, from Canada, the United States, and Mexico; from Central American and from South America. (In practice and depending upon articulated goals, the theme and the inspiration of the design practitioners, the network might consist of partners identified on geographic or regional terms (such as the Americas or the Pacific, or Europe), or on disciplinary themes (such as trade, engineering, archaeology or development studies.) Institutional membership in the networks can thus easily be either geographic or regional or thematic in composition, with no reference to geography.

Joint Programming/Credit Transfer/Sustainability

Faculty members from the participating partner institutions develop a common two-term curriculum on the theme chosen for the project. This design takes place well in advance of any student mobility in order to provide time to acquaint the administration and faculty at each institution with the academic model, thus ensuring that credit issues are resolved through their participation in the design of the curriculum and in the teaching

of the program. Institutions might easily use or incorporate existing curricula or course material into the curriculum. Joint programming and joint recognition of others' programming will lead to truly sustainable partnerships and guarantee full transferability of courses.

Each program involves two terms of curriculum developed around the theme. The two terms will be complementary and students can choose to take one or both terms, in any order. They can opt out after one term to pursue other studies or an internship and opt in again later. The cycle is then repeated over, with modifications and growth to existing curricula and the creation of more advanced levels within the program. This model may initially require external funding and as such might best be envisaged in five-year periods, with any one institution and country hosting the program only two or three times in the five-year cycle, depending on the number of participating countries and institutions. There is then a repeating cycle of terms of curriculum and host institutions with a changing composition of both students and faculty involved at each destination.

The model encourages reciprocity in that it sees that for every term of an international cohorts in one destination, for example at a Canadian institution, there would be three to four other stops on the carousel, other destinations at which Canadian students would be studying and Canadian faculty members meeting colleagues and teaching.

There are numerous logistical and funding issues that need to be addressed in the model, and have been addressed in a pilot implementation of the model, but germane to this discussion is not the logistics and administration of the model, but rather its

objectives and its likelihood to support the achievement of desired outcomes better than many existing models of mobility.

The internationalization benefits of this model, of moving students, faculty and curriculum, are outstanding. The achievement of international learning outcomes is facilitated by a number of factors:

- there are both home and host country nationals – both students and faculty – involved in every term and in every country
- there is some overlap of both students and faculty for each term of the carousel-type program
- participants from some countries may never set foot in Canada, for example, but their participation in the program will necessarily allow them to study with Canadian students and under the tutelage of Canadian faculty
- large numbers of stay-at-home students at each participating institution will by design be involved in activities both inside and outside of the classroom at each location
- the sustainability of such a program will be encouraged by the strong faculty-level linkages forged as instructors participate in this carousel program, teach in one another's classrooms and share in each others research
- the potential 'upside' of joint degrees, cross-listing of courses and credits, joint research activity, ongoing faculty exchange, and joint programming could all be developed, and would be encouraged by the dynamism of the exchange.

Concluding Remarks

It has been a long path to arrive at this point, perhaps, as T.S. Eliot suggests at the beginning of this chapter, arriving here at the start for the first time. For what has been accomplished on this long journey home?

A philosophical context has been established for the activity of study abroad, one that shows from historical times to the present the ongoing role of the state in guiding and supporting higher education and its continuing attempt to influence the course of education – as well as the composition and qualities of its citizenry – through the more modern and novel activity of encouraging student mobility, largely in a North-North direction and largely between and amongst like-minded and developed trading blocs.

The context we have introduced uses trends such as globalization and massification, and the related academic response of internationalization, to in part explain the rationale of the state for this continued involvement, and also to explain the motivations of the institution and the individual to engage in the activity of study abroad. All anticipate some gain, some outcome. The assumption is that some gain is achieved by all, hence their ongoing support. But what are these outcomes?

We established a set of potential study abroad outcomes, and established a list of the three primary stakeholders: the State, the Institution and the Individual. From this menu of potential outcomes, each chooses a subset, or chooses overlapping sets as it were, to justify their involvement and support. There are economic and linguistics imperatives, as well as intellectual and personal; some are concrete and some less so.

We researched the literature, embraced a methodology and devised a research instrument to test whether these outcomes were in reality being achieved; we further explored discussion as to whether the achievement of these outcomes was significantly and causally related to the study abroad activity itself or perhaps had a causal relationship with some other variable.

Data were conclusive and positive and corroborated previous qualitative and quantitative studies in showing the positive effects – both intellectual and personal – of a period of study abroad. Recommendations were made as to how to improve the current research as well as on other research topics germane to the field of outcomes study.

Of great import in our discussion was exploration of the applicability of these findings, and how practitioners might use outcomes as a motivation for new program design. Outcomes-motivated programming and the adoption and adaptation of a mobility model such as that presented here would go even further than much of the laissez-faire mobility programming common in the field in achieving sought-after outcomes for both mobile and non-mobile students, and for the furtherance of internationalization objectives of the institutions.

We can conclude by affirming that it is the role of the state to support education, to educate its citizenry, and to prepare them for the changing world and cultures through which they will move and in which they will live, prosper and trade.

It is also the role of the institution to prepare its students for this same changing world and economy, to give them the tools needed for them to lead productive, reasoned and positive lives, and to help them achieve their economic and academic goals as well as support their personal betterment towards constructive engagement in a global society.

And it is – as we have seen qualitatively and quantitatively – both the responsibility and the interest of the student to grasp whatever possible from the international opportunities available from higher education, in order to make business and economic links as well as lifelong friendships with a diverse group of contacts in a

changing world, and most importantly to see this landscape and their own through the new eyes offered them through these life-enhancing opportunities.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Comparison of Founding EU Nation state responsibility for post-secondary education

Due to the complex linguistic, religious and political complexion of the country, **Belgium** has a community-based system where the national government shares powers with the regions, provinces and communities. The majority of funding support for post-secondary education comes from the communities.

Northern Ireland and Scotland have long had autonomy over their own education systems, which closely resemble those of England and Wales in many but not all regards and, overall, **Britain**'s system of education can be "distinguished by its disunity" (Wickremasinghe 845). Institutions like to see themselves at arms length from the central government(s), from which they receive all of their funding.

France has a central Ministry of Education that funds and oversees primary, secondary and tertiary education, the latter in the form of universities and training institutions on the one hand and the grand écoles on the other.

Germany is unique as a founding member of Europe in that it is a federal system within the European federation. The eleven former West German states (Länder), now coupled with the five former East German (Länder) have fiscal, legislative and administrative responsibility over post-secondary education, with some input from Berlin to ensure that they adhere to a common national framework, for the advancement of national scientific research, for non-traditional vocational training and with other minor exceptions such as for medical examinations.

The central government in Athens exercises absolute state control over post-secondary education in **Greece**. Education is completely free at all levels and state control has not allowed for the creation of private institutions, accounting for the large number of Greek students studying at universities elsewhere in the EU. Institutions are autonomous and have self-governing bodies but are under the control of the central Ministry of Education, which funds the institutions from the national budget.

Ireland also enjoys a centralized and national system of education, although both government and religion have played a part in its evolution. Although the universities and colleges retain a surprising degree of autonomy over administration and curriculum, the government continues to be their major source of funding, funnelled through the Higher Education Authority, an independent statutory body at arms length from the government.

Until 1990, the provinces in **Italy** exercised authority over the university system, but with new legislation designed to help ease the country's transition into the EU, all universities now come under a special central Ministry of Universities and Scientific and Technological Research.

Luxembourg's size dictates that all education is centrally administered. There is no university but there is a funded Centre Universitaire that functions as a first-year equivalency at all Austrian, French, and Belgian universities, as well as at most in Germany and some in Scotland.

A national system of education is practised in the **Netherlands**, with funding largely coming from the Ministry of Education in the centre. An exception can be found

in the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries, responsible for the small agricultural sector. Private institutions are tolerated.

Portugal practices central control over higher education, consisting of both universities and polytechnic institutes. Its general law allows for private institutions as long as they adhere to national standards and provisions; the state fully funds public institutions.

Spain tolerates private universities but the great majority of its institutions are public. It has recently begun the process of the devolution of its central control to the seventeen autonomous 'communities' that now make up the nation. The authority of the national Ministry of Education and Science varies widely in these various constituencies, with some such as Catalonia and the Basque country having absolute autonomy over education and others hoping to emulate them. The central government hopes to maintain control over general policy and continues to fund universities.

Appendix 2: EU–Sponsored Mobility Programs

Stemming from the various EU proclamations since its inception, the last two decades have seen the creation of a number of EU-sponsored programs³⁹ including:

- **EURYDICE**, a databank open to administrators on education and educational development throughout the Community.
- **ERASMUS** (European Community Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students), first proposed to the EC in 1985, Erasmus anticipated moving 10% of all university students within the EC to another EC member state for some period of study. For those 90% who would need to stay at home, the program also encouraged the mobility of 10% of the teachers, so that most everyone would have access to other-EU content in the classroom. Lower than predicted numbers after the first three years (45,000 in 1987) promoted a doubling of the budget and an expansion into another scheme for the mobility of Science-only students; in 1994, in its eighth year of operation, ERASMUS had an annual budget of ECU 96.7 million (with the ECU -- or European Currency Unit -- trading reasonably close to par with the US \$).
- **TEMPUS** was initiated in 1990 to broaden the boundaries of Erasmus to include students from the new democracies in Central and Eastern Europe. It continues to involve former Soviet states in European exchange; the YOUTH FOR EUROPE program encompasses all training activities for youth between 15 and 25 years of age and moved over 70,000 young people in its first two years of activity.
- **COMETT**, a program to support collaboration between EC universities and industries, one strongly supportive of internships (also known as co-operative work placements or *étages*).
- **LINGUA**, a program supporting the training of language teachers and the proliferation of language learning opportunity through scholarships and the exchange of students, teachers and materials;
- **SOCRATES** came into existence in 1995 after the EU had grown to 15 member states. It emerged as an “umbrella” mobility program that

³⁹ All figures in the program descriptions below relating to numbers of students moved and program expenditure have been cited from European Commission web pages at or linked directly to <http://europa.eu.int/comm/education> and the statistical analysis at <http://europa.eu.int/comm/education/socrates/erasmus/statisti/fore.html>. Citations for each figure have been omitted from the text for the sake of clarity and brevity.

encompasses Erasmus (higher education), Lingua (language learning), Comenius (K-12 education), and other activities including adult education, open and distance learning, and other information and technology exchange. Other programs involved networks governing new technologies, a centre for vocational training and both European schools with an international syllabus and a European University Institute offering post-graduate courses in European social sciences. Maastricht gave new impetus to a harmonization of a number disparate activities and programs, which were now implemented and managed out of Brussels through the European Commission for Education, Training and Youth. SOCRATES is managed out of Brussels with certain responsibilities for the program ceded to national agencies. In 1995 it was granted a working budget of 850 European Currency Units (ECU) for its first five years of operation, or approximately 170 million ECU per year; this budget was revisited in 1997. In its first year of operation, academic year 1995/96, Socrates moved 316,000 students and 26,000 teachers within Europe; an additional 80,000 young people took part in joint training projects and exchanges, over 5000 educational institutions entered into new partnerships within the EU, including 1800 universities;

- SOCRATES was created in 1995 simultaneously with a vocational training mobility program called **LEONARDO DA VINCI**, with a five-year budget of 620 million ECU, or 124 million ECU per year. Leonardo da Vinci spawned over 88 independent studies, and over 1500 pilot projects involving 24,000 partnerships; 54,000 people received mobility grants. The new seven-year plan (2000-2006) has a budget of ECU 1.15 billion. It is now open to all EU and European Free Trade Area (EFTA) countries as well as those preparing to join the EU, a total of 31 European countries.

Appendix 3: International Learning Outcomes Inventory

Intellectual Development

Kauffman et al argue that intellectual development is the primary rationale for study abroad programs and ultimately focuses on activities such as “foreign language learning; the expansion of learning in the major; and the increased general knowledge the student gains” (34). In terms of our own categorization of potential outcomes, we will further break down those intellectual development into academic and disciplinary outcomes, career and business outcomes, and linguistic outcomes.

Academic and Disciplinary Outcomes

- successfully completing the course or program overseas
- developing further the ability to communicate ideas
- engaging in scholarly activity that uses paradigms and models from cultures different from our own
- developing further the ability to solve problems
- assuming the ability to continually learn
- realizing a change in or confirmation of the direction of a chosen academic discipline
- completing the degree in progress and/or pursuing a further education after the international experience
- displaying a marked intellectual and professional development
- achieving agreed markers of academic achievement in a broad general education
- achieving agreed markers of academic achievement in a specialized field of study or discipline, for example, learning the use of the scientific method
- demonstrating an understanding of the interconnectedness of political and economic systems

- demonstrating an awareness of world geography, economics, politics, religion, philosophy, history, literature, the arts, and other aspects of culture; generally displays a knowledge of the interconnections between global and local issues
- understanding how policy decisions made by one government affect other nations
- exhibiting an awareness of the interrelatedness of global societies
- understanding how prevailing world conditions, developments, and trends are associated with issues such as religion, conflict, economics, population growth, economic conditions, human rights, etc.
- demonstrating a knowledge of the relationship between local and global issues

Career Choice and Preparedness

- realizing a change in or confirmation of a chosen career
- displaying an ability to work as a team member
- displaying an ability to use technology
- accepting and responding positively to criticism and feedback
- adapting business English and business etiquette to the needs of international clients
- gaining a knowledge of international business practices
- gaining further respect for a code of ethics
- adapting plans, strategies and behaviours to meet challenging conditions with or outside of the unit (organization, school, program, group)
- gaining further skills in analytical and strategic thinking
- gaining an understanding of how an intended field of work or study is viewed and practiced in different cultural contexts
- gaining an understanding of the impact of diverse cultures, languages, economies, and other relevant factors on organizational performance

- gaining the ability to work effectively in diverse group settings
- developing an appreciation of international business etiquette
- viewing issues from both a Canadian (domestic) and global perspective
- developing intercultural competence
- developing resiliency and coping skills
- developing a comfort level in one's ability to participate in the global marketplace
- developing a comfort level sufficient to be able to work and live in a foreign culture and handle cultural differences
- pursuing further travel and/or work abroad after the international experience.

Business Practices

- identifying and suggesting new ideas to get a job done
- learning to focus on quality
- applying an understanding of global business dynamics to work
- taking a global view in planning and action.
- functioning effectively in an international and highly competitive economic arena
- supervising, and be supervised by, individuals from diverse nations and cultures at home and overseas
- contributing to solutions to issues that transcend national boundaries, using sufficient intercultural skill to ensure widespread participation
- understanding different and international business practices
- understanding, speaking and writing – and being willing to further study – the languages in which business is conducted
- developing the ability to imagine, analyze, and creatively address the potential of other local economies and cultures

- developing a knowledge of commercial, technical, and cultural developments in other pertinent locales, and who the key players are
- developing an understanding of local customs and negotiating strategies
- developing the ability to work effectively in a foreign 'company culture'.

Linguistic Skills

- appreciating the learning of new languages and their importance in academe, in the work place and in life in general, and being able to identify ways to maintain or improve language skills over time
- acquiring basic to advanced skills to native-like fluency in an additional language or languages
- using a foreign language to communicate; that is, the participant is able speak, listen, read and write in a language other than his or her first language
- identifying and use information from other languages, demonstrated through using foreign language skills to enhance learning in other academic areas or as a window to cultural understanding
- adapting one's way of communication to the existing conventions in other cultures
- operating with linguistic effectiveness within formal and informal settings of another culture or multicultural context

Personal Development

As discussed previously, it can be strongly argued that a participant's personal development is fundamental to all other potential outcomes, in that it manifests itself in all other attributes, from academic, intellectual and linguistic growth to social, attitudinal and behavioural attributes. These involve both the interpersonal and the intrapersonal

that Kauffman et al address, further suggesting that the “majority of [outcome] studies have focused on change in interpersonal development” (99) such as self awareness, self confidence, self reliance, increased independence and autonomy. The vernacular we choose to adopt is that of attitude, behaviour and socialization, or rather attitudinal change, behavioural change and social change as potential outcomes of the study abroad period. We have further broken down the category of attitudinal change to look at Cross-cultural and Intrapersonal skills as well as Interpersonal skills.

Attitudinal

Personal: Cross-cultural/Interpersonal

- developing further international understanding and intercultural competence
- developing further Canadian (domestic) and global perspectives
- developing an awareness of one’s own values and biases and how these influence interactions and relationships with others
- developing a tolerance towards differences as a means of understanding, appreciating and demonstrating knowledge of other cultures as well as one’s own culture
- developing an understanding of one’s own culture in a global and comparative context
- recognizing that the home culture is one of many diverse cultures and that alternate perceptions and behaviours may be based in cultural differences.
- recognizing and respecting people's diversity and individual differences
- developing an understanding of the role of culture in identity formation, social relationships, and the construction of knowledge systems
- demonstrating respect for diversity
- understanding the ways that culture shapes an individual's world view

- learning to develop multiple perspectives, such as developing the ability to perceive any given event from more than one cultural viewpoint
- demonstrating an understanding of the common human experience and knowledge of intercultural issues and viewpoints
- learning to accept cultural differences and tolerate cultural ambiguity
- developing a willingness to learn from others who are culturally different
- developing a willingness to engage in diverse cultural situations
- demonstrating movement from being sympathetic to being empathetic toward people from other cultures
- demonstrating resistance to cultural stereotyping.
- displaying curiosity about global issues and cultural differences
- learning to think globally
- learning to appreciate the language, art, religion, philosophy, and material culture of different cultures
- developing the ability to adapt in the context of another culture
- contributing to world peace and stability
- developing a better understanding of the world and of the interconnection between global and local events
- developing the ability to creatively imagine another's perspective, and if needed to "switch codes" into this perspective and to know where one's own values interrupt such code switching.

Personal: Intrapersonal

- demonstrating coping and resiliency skills
- adapting resourcefully to different cultures
- developing a tolerance for ambiguity

- learning to adapt effectively to varying levels of pressure, challenge, change, adversity and stress
- learning to cope with ambiguity
- developing further sensitivity and tact
- developing a psychological preparedness for new situations
- developing increased and diverse problem-solving techniques
- developing increased self-confidence
- developing increased independence and autonomy
- developing increased self-awareness
- developing a willingness to assume a position of leadership
- learning to demonstrate a positive attitude towards change
- learning to be flexible and open to change
- learning to seek personal growth
- being aware of how one is viewed by others.

Behavioural

- displaying the ability to operate and communicate in and across cultures
- displaying the ability to work and function abroad and in different cultures in an appropriate manner
- displaying the ability to communicate, interact and make decisions in ways that demonstrate sensitivity to culture, language, political realities and practices
- displaying the ability to adapt quickly and show flexibility
- displaying the ability to deal effectively with multiple demands and competing priorities
- displaying the ability to be interdependent and show awareness and understanding of larger groups and systems

- displaying the ability to live responsibly with others
- displaying behaviour that lacks ethnocentrism, that shows movement beyond ethnocentrism to a position approaching empathy
- displaying the ability to see others as they see themselves, given their conditions and values
- willingly engaging with people from other cultures
- displaying coping and resiliency skills in unfamiliar and challenging situations
- displaying the ability to withhold judgement
- displaying an understanding of how a different setting can affect one's style of interaction

Social

- acting with an understanding of the knowledge and traditions of other cultures
- attempting to minimize the impact of one's own cultural and gender biases and practices on others
- seeking to understand the circumstances and need of those one encounters from their perspective (e.g., cultural, political, economic and social);
- displaying a willingness and ability to communicate
- interacting at home and within their local communities with a Canadian (domestic) citizenry that is of increasing racial and religious diversity
- displaying the ability to work effectively in group settings
- using appropriate use registers of English for different situations
- displaying skills appropriate for relating to others in various cultures and situations, such as academic settings, social venues, and professional environments
- displaying the ability to mediate cross-cultural interactions and is able to facilitate intercultural relations for and between others

- displaying the ability to make contacts with foreigners and sustain these contacts
- demonstrating an ongoing willingness to seek out international or intercultural opportunities
- displaying an ability and willingness to develop and sustain an international network
- displaying an ability to cope in a knowledge-deprived foreign context with a 'domestic' frame of mind and knowledge base.

Appendix 4: Survey

1. Current Personal Information

- 1.01 First Name: _____ Last Name: _____
- 1.02 Age: 19-24 25-29 30-34 35-39 40+
- 1.03 Sex: Male Female
- 1.04 Ethnicity: West European East European African Arab/West Asian
 East Asian South East Asian Latin American
 First Nation South Asian Other: _____
- 1.05 Did you immigrate to Canada (i.e. are you originally from another country)? yes no
- 1.06 Level of Post-secondary education achieved:
 Certificate Diploma Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____
- 1.07 If you are currently participating in an academic program, what is your focus?
 Agriculture Business Computing Science
 Education Engineering Fine and Performing Arts
 Foreign Languages Health Sciences Hospitality/Tourism
 Humanities Law Mathematics
 Physical Science Social Science
 Education/Kinesiology Technical Vocational
 Social Work Other: _____
- 1.08 Level of Post-secondary in which you are currently enrolled:
 None Other Certificate Diploma Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____

- 1.1 Current Employer: _____ Private sector Public sector
- 1.1.1 Type of business, service or industry of employer (e.g. health services, retail clothing, mechanical engineering, _____) Private sector Public sector
- 1.1.2 What is your current job title: _____
- 1.1.3 What are your main job duties: _____
- 1.1.4 Has an international education assisted in the performance of the duties of your main job? yes no
- Comments: _____

2. International Program Information

This section is to assess the type of program pursued and the circumstances surrounding this choice.

- 2.1 Home Institution: _____
- 2.2 Host Institution: _____
 independent study other
 formal exchange program
- 2.3 Host Country: _____
- 2.4 Language of Instruction: _____
- 2.5 Why did you choose this destination? (check all that apply):
 Climate Family heritage
 Language Academic fit
 Culture Relatives or friends in the region
 Cost of living Investigating future academic opportunities
 Travel opportunities Encouragement and support from family at home
 Investigating career opportunities Other: _____

- 2.6 Academic focus of international program:
- | | | |
|---------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Agriculture | <input type="checkbox"/> Business | <input type="checkbox"/> Computing Science |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Education | <input type="checkbox"/> Engineering | <input type="checkbox"/> Fine and Performing Arts |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Foreign Languages | <input type="checkbox"/> Health Sciences | <input type="checkbox"/> Hospitality/Tourism |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Humanities | <input type="checkbox"/> Law | <input type="checkbox"/> Mathematics |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Physical Education/Kinesiology | <input type="checkbox"/> Science | <input type="checkbox"/> Social Science |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Social Work | <input type="checkbox"/> Technical | <input type="checkbox"/> Vocational |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Other: _____ | | |

2.7 Program start date: _____ Program end date: _____

2.8 Number of terms of program: _____

2.8 Upon completion of the formal international program, did you extend your stay in the host country?

- No Yes

If so, for how long? _____

2.9 Why: Academic Personal Business
 Immediately upon completion of the formal international program, did you travel or live in another country?

- Yes up to 1 month 2 – 6 months 6 – 12 months 1 year +

If so, for how long? _____ Why: Academic Personal Business

3. Experience Prior to International Program

This section is to assess your personal circumstances immediately prior to departure.

3.1 Level of post-secondary education completed prior to departure:

- Certificate Diploma Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____

3.2 Type of academic program in progress prior to departure:

- Certificate Diploma Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____

- Academic focus prior to departure
- Agriculture
 - Education
 - Foreign Languages
 - Humanities
 - Physical Education./ Kinesiology
 - Social Work
 - Other: _____
- Business
 - Engineering
 - Health Sciences
 - Law
 - Science
 - Technical
- Computing Science
 - Fine and Performing Arts
 - Hospitality/Tourism
 - Mathematics
 - Social Science
 - Vocational

- 3.3 If you were employed prior to participating in the program, in what sector;
 Retail Service Hospitality Education Child care High Tech Banking/Finance
 Transportation Trades Other: _____
- 3.4 What were the major impediments to pursuing this international experience, if any? (check all that apply):
 Financial Credit transfer Time commitment
 Family commitments Personal commitments Language
 Lack of academic incentive Health Personal safety concerns
 Career progress Climate Culture
 Other: _____
- 3.5 In addition to the BCCIE award/grant, did you receive any financial assistance, No Yes
awards or scholarships?:
(a) If yes, from: _____ Amount: _____
(b) If yes, from: _____ Amount: _____
- 3.6 Total estimated cost of international program: _____ \$ _____
- 3.7 Prior to departure, what language(s) did you speak or had you studied?
_____ At which level: Beginner Intermediate Advanced
_____ At which level: Beginner Intermediate Advanced
_____ At which level: Beginner Intermediate Advanced

- 3.8 What language(s) did you study to prepare for the program? _____
- 3.9 Prior to participating in the international program, what country(ies) had you *visited* and why?
- (a) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- (b) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- (c) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- (d) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- 3.10 Prior to participating in the international program, what country(ies) had you *lived* in, why and for how long?
- (a) Country: _____ Work Personal Family Other: _____
relocated
- For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 19-24 25-30 > 30
- (b) Country: _____ Work Personal Family Other: _____
relocated
- For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 19-24 25-30 > 30
- (c) Country: _____ Work Personal Family Other: _____
relocated
- For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 19-24 25-30 > 30
- 3.12 What language(s) were spoken by your mother? _____
- 3.13 What language(s) were spoken by your father? _____
- 3.14 Had your mother travelled internationally? Yes No
- 3.15 Had your father travelled internationally? Yes No
- 3.16 Mother's level of post-secondary education: None Certificate Diploma
 Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____
- 3.17 Father's level of post-secondary education: None Certificate Diploma
 Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____

3.18 Did you participate in a pre-departure orientation? Yes No
 If yes, by whom was it delivered?

- University/ College International Office Academic Department
 Consulate/Embassy
 Government Agency Consulting firm Other:
 How was the orientation delivered? In-person Individual Handouts only Via internet
 group session appointment Other;
 1 - 2 hours half day full day other:

3.19 What topics were covered during the orientation?

Travel arrangements	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no	Accommodation	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no
Administrative details	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no	Finances	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no
Culture Shock	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no	Safety	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no
Health (e.g. immunizations, prescriptions, prophylactics)	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no	Emergency contact information	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no
Canadian missions abroad	<input type="checkbox"/> yes <input type="checkbox"/> no	Average	Not valuable
	Very valuable	Valuable	4
	1	2	3
Was the orientation valuable?	1	2	3
Comments:			4
			5

3.2 Looking back, rate the anticipated impact of this experience on you:		very positive	positive	neutral	negative	very negative
	Social life (e.g. making new friends, losing old friends)	1	2	3	4	5
	Family life (e.g. homesickness, relations with family members)	1	2	3	4	5
	Academic plans and focus	1	2	3	4	5
	Acquiring or perfecting additional language(s) (to understand and be understood in every day conversation)	1	2	3	4	5
	Acquiring a better use of English appropriate to different situations	1	2	3	4	5
	Career choice	1	2	3	4	5
	Understanding of international business etiquette (greetings, thanking, socializing, gift-giving, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
	Demonstrating qualities of tolerance, sensitivity to others and tact.	1	2	3	4	5
	Understanding of the impact of historical events, culture, political structures, and geography on world events.	1	2	3	4	5
	Understanding interconnections between local and global issues	1	2	3	4	5
	Understanding the impact of Western liberal democratic views on one's perceptions of the world	1	2	3	4	5

	Ability to control the need to apply your own ideas of logic and structure on other individuals and cultures	1	2	3	4	5
	Psychological preparedness for the situations you might encounter in another setting	1	2	3	4	5
	Understanding of the day-to-day realities, political environment, and current events of other cultures	1	2	3	4	5
	Methods for handling challenging situations under difficult circumstances	1	2	3	4	5
	Independence / Autonomy	1	2	3	4	5
	Self Confidence	1	2	3	4	5
	Self Awareness	1	2	3	4	5

Comments: _____

4. Impact of International Experience

This section is to assess the impact of your experience after your return.

- 4.1 Level of post-secondary education completed upon return:
 Certificate Diploma Bachelors Masters Doctorate Other: _____
- 4.2 If your academic focus was modified upon return, why: _____
 What was your new academic focus?
 Agriculture Business Computing Science
 Education Engineering Fine and Performing Arts
 Foreign Languages Health Sciences Hospitality/Tourism
 Humanities Law Mathematics
 Physical Science Social Science
 Education/Kinesiology Vocational
 Social Work Technical
 Other: _____
- 4.3 Occupation, if changed: _____ Why: _____
- 4.4 What new language(s) did you speak upon return to Canada? _____
 What language(s) have you studied since returning? _____
- 4.5 If applicable, do you still use the language studied for the program? Yes No
 Upon return, were you given a re-entry de-briefing? Yes No
 If yes, by whom was it delivered?
 University/ College International Office Academic Department
 Consulate/Embassy
 Government Agency Consulting firm Other:

How was the orientation delivered? In-person group session Individual appointment Handouts only Via internet

What was the duration of the orientation? 1 - 2 hours half day full day Other

Was this a valuable experience? Yes No

What was the value of this? _____

4.6 What outreach activity did you plan to complete upon your return from the program?:
 presentation on-campus information booth/ display NGO liaison created web site
 other: _____

Were you able to follow through on your activity upon your return?: yes no

How successful was your outreach activity?
 Complete success Very successful Successful Partial success Unsuccessful
 1 2 3 4 5

Comments: _____

4.7 In any of your employment positions since returning from your international program, how important has it been to:

	Very Important	Important	Neutral	Somewhat Important	Not Useful
Speak a second language	1	2	3	4	5
Know about international business practices	1	2	3	4	5
Know about global issues	1	2	3	4	5
Better deal with other countries & cultures	1	2	3	4	5

4.8	Rate the impact of this experience as you now perceive it upon your:				
	Very positive	Positive	Neutral	Negative	Very negative
	1	2	3	4	5
Social life (e.g. making new friends, losing old friends)	1	2	3	4	5
Family life (e.g. homesickness, relations with family members)	1	2	3	4	5
Academic plans and focus	1	2	3	4	5
Acquiring or perfecting additional language(s) (to understand and be understood in every day conversation)	1	2	3	4	5
Acquiring a better use of English appropriate to different situations	1	2	3	4	5
Career choice	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding of international business etiquette (greetings, thanking, socializing, gift-giving, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
Demonstrating qualities of tolerance, sensitivity to others and tact.	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding of the impact of historical events, culture, political structures, and geography on world events.	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding interconnections between local and global issues	1	2	3	4	5
Understanding the impact of Western liberal democratic views on one's perceptions of the world	1	2	3	4	5
Ability to control the need to apply your	1	2	3	4	5

	own ideas of logic and structure on other individuals and cultures							
	Psychological preparedness for the situations you might encounter in another setting	1	2	3	4	5		
	Understanding of the day-to-day realities, political environment, and current events of other cultures	1	2	3	4	5		
	Methods for handling challenging situations under difficult circumstances	1	2	3	4	5		
	Independence / Autonomy	1	2	3	4	5		
	Self Confidence	1	2	3	4	5		
	Self Awareness	1	2	3	4	5		

- 4.9 Since returning to Canada from the program, what country(ies) have you visited and why:
- (a) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- (b) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- (c) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____
- (d) Country: _____ Work Personal Family choice Other: _____

- 4.10 Since returning to Canada from the program, what country(ies) have you lived in, why, and for how long?
- (a) Country: _____ Work Personal Family relocated Other: _____
For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 19-24 25-30 > 30

- (b) Country: _____
 For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 Work Personal Family relocated Other: _____
 > 30
- (c) Country: _____
 For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 Work Personal Family relocated Other: _____
 > 30
- (d) Country: _____
 For 0-6 months 7-12 13-18 Work Personal Family relocated Other: _____
 > 30

Overall, was your international program a positive experience?

- No Yes

What was the primary outcome of the program for you?

What was the most useful aspect of the program?

What had the most long-lasting impact?

Additional Comments:

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