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Participation in Higher Education International Experiences: the role of habitus, rational cost-benefit analysis, and university based context

Greg Gundersen

A thesis submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education
University of Bath
Department of Education
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Glossary

**College and University:** These terms are used interchangeably throughout this paper. The author understands that these are very different institutional types in the United Kingdom (UK) and elsewhere in the world, but it is common practice in the United States and articles that will be cited in this paper to use either term when referring to a higher education or post-secondary education institution.

**Internationalization:** “The process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2004, p. 11).

“Internationalization” is a broad scope term that can represent anything in the form of academic mobility for students and teachers, international partnerships, projects, academic programs, and research, branch campuses, on-line distance learning, or international dimension to the curriculum, (Knight, 2004).

**International experiences abroad:** Study abroad has been defined as “students who cross national borders for the purpose or in the context of their studies” (Kelo, Teichler, & Wächter, 2006, p. 5). However, this study also incorporates service and volunteer work abroad (along with study abroad), so the term “international experiences abroad” will be used to encapsulate all of these experiences.

**International experiences at home:** According to Knight (2004, p.17), “The term internationalization at home has been developed to bring attention to those aspects of internationalization which would happen on a home campus, namely, the intercultural and international dimension in the teaching learning process, the extracurricular activities, and the relationships with local cultural and ethnic community groups”.

**Cultural competencies:** “Intercultural mind-sets are developed through increasing knowledge and comprehension of cultural self-awareness, deep cultural knowledge, and sociolinguistic awareness; this awareness leads to adaptability and flexibility within different cultural contexts, which then lead to effective and appropriate communication and behaviors within intercultural situations” (Deardorff, 2009, cited by Soria, 2013, p. 5).
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“I did not wish to take a cabin passage, but rather to go before the mast and on the deck of the world, for there I could best see the moonlight amid the mountains.

—Henry David Thoreau
Abstract

As universities look to provide more access and increase the level of participation in their international education curricula, the focus on international experiences at home has intensified. However, extremely little research has been conducted on the factors associated with participation in these forms of experiences. The purpose of this study was to address this lack of research by identifying factors that influence university students’ participation in a broad scope of internationally-themed experiences.

The study was designed to identify significant factors that indicate the influence of habitus, rational cost-benefit analysis, and the context of the student within the university on a student’s likelihood of participating in international experiences while at a university. Results from an on-line questionnaire survey of students at a large research university in the United States (n=422) were analysed through cross-tabulations and logistic regression analysis.

The findings of this study indicate that the importance that students perceive participation has in achieving their goals, their participation in other cultural and travel experiences, their financial status, and their field of study are significantly associated with participation in international experiences. The findings support the work by Perna (2006), Salisbury et al. (2009), and Glaesser and Cooper (2013) that argue that habitus, rational action, and the context of the student within the university work in conjunction to influence a student’s educational choices and outcomes.

Given that factors such as race, financial status, and field of study showed differing associations with the two outcomes of participation in abroad and at home international experiences, this study suggests that international at home experiences provide an opportunity for universities to establish international experiences that are more accessible to students that typically do not study abroad.
Chapter 1: Introduction

International guest lecturers, international festivals, language courses and tutors, and other international and culture related activities are not new to university campuses. What is new is the concept of bringing these activities under the auspices of planned curriculum or a central “internationalization” office.

Internationalization of the campus curriculum and co-curricular activities have recently become an important priority for many higher education institutions. And rightfully so. A large shift in the globalization of economic, political, security, media and health fields create new and ever changing realities and challenges (Brustein, 2007). According to Brustein (2007, p. 382), “to respond to these changes and meet national needs it is essential that our institutions of higher education graduate globally competent students”. In 2004, The National Association for State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC, 2004) issued A Call to Leadership, urging university presidents to focus on internationalization as a way to enhance, broaden, and enliven academic learning, discovery, and engagement. Many colleges and universities recognize the need for globally literate citizens to meet the demands of an increasingly interdependent world and see study abroad as a way to develop students’ cross-cultural skills (Bollag, 2004).

Although, study abroad programs have increased exponentially over the past decade, it is unrealistic to expect that all, or even most, students will be able to study abroad. In fact, according to the Institute of International Education (IIE, 2015), only around 10% of United States undergraduate students study abroad before graduation. Research has shown that there are multiple barriers that limit participation, including a student’s financial situation, (Desoff 2006), a limit in the understanding of the potential benefits (Goldstein & Kim, 2006), a lack of faculty and campus support (Mathews, Hameister, & Hosley, 1998), a student’s field of study (Stroud, 2010), gender (Stroud, 2010), parents’ level of education (Carlson, et al., 1990), family and work responsibilities (Brux & Fry, 2009), lack of previous travel experience (Stroud, 2010) and levels of ethnocentrism (Goldstein & Kim, 2006).

Due to these barriers, it has become evident that other forms of international experiences are needed in order to provide access to a wider and more diverse group of students. Mestenhauser and Ellingboe (1998), Marginson, (1999), Van der Wende, (2001), and Leask (2009) argue that a paradigm shift needs to occur by changing the focus of internationalization curriculum efforts away from training a few students to be future international affairs specialists, to one that prepares all students to live and work in a global setting. In order to achieve these goals, this needs to include a “holistic approach to internationalisation that incorporates wide-ranging strategies within both the formal and the informal
curriculum” (Leask, 2009, p. 209). International activities on the home campus are now starting to become viewed as a valuable alternative to abroad experiences as a way to develop students’ cross-cultural competencies and skills, and recent research has shown that these experiences can be an effective way for students to gain global and international competencies equal to or better than some study abroad experiences (Soria, 2013).

However, no research has been done to identify the factors that influence participation in international experiences at home. And, although much research has been done on identifying factors for participation in study abroad, the research is scattered, does not have a consistently researched theoretical model or explanation, and appears to not factor in other abroad experiences such as internships and service learning. The purpose of the following study is to research the factors that are influential in determining the participation or non-participation of students in international experiences beyond the scope of just study abroad. The results of this study provide a theoretical framework for understanding students’ access to and participation in educational experiences at higher education institutions. Furthermore, the results may also be helpful to education practitioners that are considering the development of more international experiences as a way to increase participation rates of their students by identifying possible barriers and motivations to these initiatives. The first chapter of this paper will begin by specifying the problem addressed. Chapter 1 will also state the purpose and significance of the study, as well as briefly introduce the theoretical perspectives and methodology used in the study.

1.1 Contextual Background of the Researcher

My work in higher education began in a Student Housing office where I managed academic programs for first year students. These programs included math and writing tutoring, time management workshop, and social events. Even though these were programs that my colleagues and I felt would benefit many students, many students did not participate. We were always curious about participation patterns in these programs but were never allowed to conduct a formal assessment. However, this did not stop us from paying attention to patterns and speculating on reasons. For one, we noticed that few students from the African American and Latino/a communities participated in our events. We also noticed that participants were predominantly female. Lastly, we noticed that students are busy and have to choose from multiple programs, events, social engagements, study sessions and personal responsibilities. This made us wonder if something about our programming, advising center or staff was not welcoming or comfortable to certain student groups, or if they perceived our programs to be unimportant compared to other options.

I am currently working in a Study Abroad office where I advise students on abroad program options as well as the requirements for the International Studies minor. In this position, I have observed some of the
same dynamics and patterns of student participation that I observed in Student Housing. As someone that would like to see and provide equal access to educational opportunities for all students, this is troubling. This is what drives my interest in this particular research area. I want to better understand student participation in a wide context of higher education experiences so that practitioners can identify ways to provide more equitable, accessible, and desired programming.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

As will be presented in Chapter 2, there is a wealth of knowledge on study abroad participation factors. However, two issues exist. One is that the literature on this is scattered and no consistent models have been formed to bring the literature together under one theoretical narrative. The other issue is that not every student is able to study abroad even if they desire an international experience. As Ms. Aw (cited in Fischer, 2015) argued, “The real push, however, has to be in home-campus classrooms. Even if we double the numbers, most students will not go abroad. The place where there is the opportunity to make the greatest inroads is the internationalization of the curriculum.” Universities are beginning to address this issue by creating more opportunities for students to gain an international experience while on their home campus but there is no research on what factors might positively or negatively influence students’ participation in these opportunities. It is possible that the influencing factors, barriers, and motivations for participation in at home international experiences could be very similar to those for abroad experiences, leading to a scenario in which the same groups of students are the only ones accessing both forms of opportunities.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the factors that influence undergraduate university students’ participation in international experiences that include but also go beyond study abroad. Based upon the literature on study abroad that indicates that participation is influenced by a wide variety of factors, this study analyzed the association of multiple factors on international experience participation. This analysis included a comparison of the factors that are associated with abroad participation and those that are associated with participation in international experiences at home. This comparison allowed for a more in depth understanding of previous research into study abroad by viewing the identified participatory factors in relation to those of a similar yet different experience. The findings and analysis also create a new theoretical framework for participation factors associated with on-campus experiences; a field previously deficient of research.
1.4 Significance of the Study

Addressing this research problem has several benefits. First, it begins the research on participatory factors for at home international experiences, which has previously not been researched. Likewise, it establishes a theoretical model that can be used in further research on participation factors for general (not just internationally focused) on-campus activities; which is also an area that has limited research. This study also contributes to the large and growing body of research on study abroad participation by adding another form of international engagement in which to compare the participation factors identified in previous literature. Having a better understanding of the factors that influence participation in all international experiences will allow higher education practitioners to work better with their student populations by identifying whether or not students that have been shown to have barriers negatively affecting their access to study abroad are engaging in other international experiences as well as identifying the factors that are influencing their choice process. For one, it will allow them to create more purposeful opportunities that meet the needs of diverse student groups. It will also allow them to have a more informed understanding of where, when, and how marketing and outreach efforts need to occur; efforts such as encouragement from faculty to participate, language in the university mission statement, or addressing engagement during orientation sessions.

1.5 Theoretical Perspective

In reviewing the literature in the field of study abroad, it is apparent that there is not only a large gap in the literature due to an exclusion of other forms of international experiences, but also that there is a disconnect between the type of analytical approach that many practitioners in the field use to discuss participation in study abroad compared to what is being theorized through academic research. In my experience working in a study abroad office, it appears that many practitioners in the field use standard descriptive statistics based on students’ personal characteristics to analyze participation. But academic research in the area of study abroad participation identifies several theoretical perspectives that show a more complicated picture of contributing factors. Economic theories such as cost-benefit analysis (DesJardins and Toutkoushian, 2005) and sociological theories such as habitus, social capital, and cultural capital (Walpole, 2003) have been utilized in literature to explain the nuances of how students make decisions related to participation in education. These studies suggest that it is critical to study the context of the student’s background, experiences, social structures and current environment in order to gain a full understanding of how the student’s personal identities are associated with their educational choices and participation. Therefore, this study will examine factors that are indicators of both symbolic capital and rational analysis in order to gain a holistic perspective on possible influential factors of participation.
1.6 Research Method

The purpose of this study was to expand the research on factors influencing participation in international experiences by students in higher education institutions to include participation in internationally themed experiences completed at home. Utilizing theoretical frameworks described in the writings of Perna (2006), Salisbury, Umbach, Paulsen, and Pascarella (2009), and Glaesser & Cooper’s (2013), factors indicating habitus, social capital, cultural capital, and rational analysis are analysed. A simple random sample that represented a cross section of the undergraduate student population at the university completed a quantitative on-line survey. Data from the survey was analysed via SPSS software through descriptive statistics, cross tabulations, and logistic regressions models. Texts by Field (2013), Newby (2014), and Creswell (2013) provided information in guiding these methods.

1.7 Conclusion to Introductory Chapter

As higher education institutions in the United States attempt to meet the demands of globalization there is an intensification in the focus on internationalization efforts of their campuses. Although the concept of internationalization is not new to higher education, the demand for students to graduate with global competencies, skills, and experiences is increasing. Chapter 1 has presented the background, purpose, and significance of this study, the statement of the problem, the theoretical position of the study, and the methodology used. It concludes with a brief statement about the limitations and delimitations of the study. Chapter 2 will present a more detailed description of the background of internationalization of higher education, a review of literature that has researched student choices related to higher education experiences, such as decisions to attend university, participation in study abroad, and engagement in on-campus opportunities, and present relevant theoretical frameworks describing factors related to participation in educational experiences. Chapter 3 will present the research questions for the study, detail the settings and characteristics of the participants in the research sample population, discuss the ethical considerations, and outline the research design and methodology used for collecting data. The results of the data collection will be presented and analyzed in Chapter 4. This chapter will include basic descriptive statistics as well as statistical analysis of the data relating to each research question. This analysis is continued in Chapter 5 through a discussion that links the statistical findings of this study to the research presented in the literature review. The discussion builds to an argument that a student’s previous experiences, social interactions, and situated context within the university work in conjunction to influence their perceptions of the costs and benefits associated with participation. A theoretical model emerged from the process of doing this research that provides both researchers and practitioners a more insightful and useful explanation of the relationships between the multiple factors that influence
participation in international experiences. Chapter 5 will also include a discussion of the implications and limitations of the findings, as well as suggestions for further research in the field. The goal of this research study is to provide a more holistic understanding of the factors that influence the participation of students in internationally focused higher education experiences, with the hope that it will lead to greater access to these experiences for a larger amount and more diverse group of students.
Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature on undergraduate student participation in higher education experiences. Specifically, it will focus on internationally themed experiences and the factors that influence and predict participation or non-participation. Recent developments in globalization have placed pressure on the higher education community to provide students with greater opportunities to participate in international experiences in order to gain intercultural skills and global awareness (Knight, 2012). In the United States the internationalization of higher education as means to deliver these skills is being seen as imperative to national security and diplomacy as well as a critical component of the nation’s ability to compete in the global marketplace. (Altbach, 2002; Brustein, 2007; Tarrant, 2010). According to Knight (2012), as institutions have realized that a low percentage of their students participate in an abroad experience, more attention is being paid to campus based international initiatives. “An interesting development in the conceptualization of internationalization has been the division of internationalization into “internationalization at home” and “cross-border education” (Knight, 2012, p. 34). Figure 2.1 illustrates Knight’s (2012) conceptualization of these two pillars of higher education internationalization as a reaction to globalization. At the top of the model, Knight explains internationalization of higher education as both a reaction to and an agent for globalization. The model further displays how internationalization efforts of higher education can come in the form of both crossborder initiatives, such as mobility of student and staff, and in the form of initiatives at home. Examples of at home initiatives are internationally themed extracurricular activities and international learning outcomes integrated into course curriculum.

Previous research on student participation in international themed higher education experiences has predominantly focused on students’ participation in abroad or cross-border experiences. The findings from these studies shows an interesting mix of factors that influence participation, including personal characteristics, backgrounds, previous experiences, goals, and anxieties. However, extremely little research has been conducted on students’ participation in the internationalization at home experiences that are offered by institutions. This chapter will begin with a discussion of the merits of and reasons for an internationalized curriculum. I will then summarize the findings of literature that researched participation factors for study abroad and literature that researched student engagement in on campus experiences (such as student clubs, jobs, and research). Lastly, theoretical models of student participation and decision making in an educational setting will be presented.
2.2 Internationalization of higher education – rationales, efforts, and outcomes

In this section, the rationales driving higher education’s efforts to internationalize will be presented. These rationales include the impact of globalization on higher education, as well as student and public opinion, within the United States, that internationally focused experiences are an important component of a university student’s education.

2.2.1 Internationalization of higher education as a reaction to globalization

*The reality of 21st century higher education is a combination of the global, the national, and the local... Governmental policy, the influence of multinational corporations, multilateral actors such as the World Bank and the European Union, and technological change all contribute to the direction of higher education worldwide* (Altbach, 2006, p. xiii)

As discussed by Hudzik (2011) and Knight and de Wit (1995), although the movement of students, faculty, and ideas across national borders has informally been part of the fabric of higher education since medieval times, over the past several decades globalization has led to ever-growing call for international
initiatives at US higher education institutions that go beyond just student and faculty mobility. “Globalization”, is defined by Hudzik (2011, pp. 15-16) as “the rise of factors and forces that transcend borders and sovereign states… alters and weakens political and economic boundaries, and intensifies the cross-border flow of nearly everything—but especially knowledge, ideas, and learning.” Global phenomenon such as the rise and fall of the Cold War, the establishment of the European Community, and an increase in the ease and speed of cross-nation communication and travel brought about a conscious effort by governments to establish connections and alliances through collaborative partnerships, outside of politics, through forums such as business, media, and education (Knight and De Wit, 1995). The concept of internationalization of higher education is a reaction to the impact of this occurrence of globalization in the 1980s and 1990s (Knight, 1999; Hudzik, 2011; Deardorff and Jones, 2012) and is defined as “the process of integrating an international dimension into the research, teaching and services function of higher education” (Knight 1993 as cited in Wachter, 2003, p. 5).

According to Mestenhauser (2003), the motivations behind these internationalization efforts have traditionally been competitive in nature driven by monetary and political incentives and were designed to develop only a handful of international experts. Knight and DeWit (1995, pp. 9-14) distinguish four specific categories of rationales for this push towards internationalization: economic, political, cultural, and educational.

**Economic rationales**

According to Robson (2011, p. 620), “economic imperatives have increasingly driven the internationalization agenda (Tian & Lowe, 2009; Turner & Robson, 2008) with the commercialization of higher education and growth in international markets and cross-border student flows (Varghese, 2009).” Positive effects on economic growth and future economic relations motivate both governments and businesses to invest in internationalization of higher education, while the globalization of the labor market drives the demand for students, and the high tuition fees from foreign students provides financial incentives to the institutions (Knight and De Wit, 1995).

**Political rationales**

Knight and De Wit (1995) view international partnerships in education as being an investment in future diplomatic and political relations. With the aim of creating future advocates for the host country, bringing in foreign students creates a base of individuals that have knowledge of the host country’s culture and political system. Likewise, sending students to a foreign country is intended to increase the country’s experts in the languages and cultures of nations which are strategically important yet little understood.
Senator Christopher J. Dodd, Democrat of Connecticut, in 2005 summed up the United States’ political stance in regards to international education by stating, “At a time when our security needs are more important than ever, at a time when our economy demands that we enter new markets, and at a time when the world requires us to engage in diplomacy in more thoughtful and considered ways, it is extremely important that we have at our disposal a multilingual, multicultural, internationally experienced work force” (cited by Bollag, 2007, p. 24).

*Cultural rationales*

Linked with political rationale is an argument that internationalization of higher education can serve as a form of exportation of national culture and moral values to other countries (Knight & De Wit, 1995). Mayor (1989, cited in Knight and De Wit, 1995) contends that it can also serve as a means of developing an awareness of culture and its meaning in society. Increasingly, universities are recognizing the importance of confronting students with other cultures as a strategy for developing an individual’s global, international, and intercultural competencies (Knight and de Wit, 1995; Soria, 2013). The International Association of Universities (2005, p. 1) states that higher education needs to prepare students for an internationalized world by engaging them in an internationalized curriculum that “promotes cultural diversity and fosters intercultural understanding, respect, and tolerance among peoples”.

*Educational rationales*

Along with the rationale of developing students’ abilities to understand and function effectively in a multi-cultural environment, higher education institutions see other benefits to internationalizing their campus. For one, international partnerships can provide resources, expertise, and opportunities that might not otherwise be available to the university and its students (Knight and De Wit, 1995). Another possible benefit is an increase in international rankings for a university that creates an international curriculum, recruits foreign students, and participates in international partnerships (Knight and De Wit, 1995).

**2.2.1.1 Internationalization of the Curriculum At Home**

Mestenhauser (2003) and Nilsson (2003) create a compelling argument that internationalization efforts should be viewed less as a tool for institutional ambitions and more as a learning and teaching strategy; one in which all students can and should participate. According to Mestenhauser (2003), internationalization efforts have previously been too focused on projects and programs designed to create a handful of elite international affairs experts, and in doing so, neglecting to consider that many other graduates in science, health, education, etc. will work and interact in a globalized world. “Other commentators in various parts of the world have argued for the need to ensure that an internationalised
curriculum develops the skills and knowledge required to prepare all students to live and work in a global setting” (Leask, 2009, p. 208). Some institutions are responding to this call from students, government, and business leaders for a more internationalized higher education system by establishing a new curriculum designed with international and multicultural dimensions (Caruana & Ploner, 2011; Robson, 2011). The request is for a more holistic and deliberate internationalization of the institution which incorporates both formal and informal curricular components as well as both abroad and at home experiences. Examples such as international themed courses, international events and programs on campus, cross-cultural communication training, foreign branch campuses, and language programs (Rizvi, 2007; Montgomery, 2012). This has given rise to the concept of internationalization of the curriculum with international at home as a component. Table 2.1 displays a comprehensive framework of “at home” international experiences provided by Knight (2012, p. 35). Leask (2009, p. 209) defines internationalization of the curriculum as,

\[
\text{The incorporation of an international and intercultural dimension into the content of the curriculum as well as the teaching and learning processes and support services of a program of study. An internationalised curriculum will engage students with internationally informed research and cultural and linguistic diversity. It will purposefully develop their international and intercultural perspectives as global professionals and citizens.}
\]

An internationalized curriculum is a holistic concept that involves both formal and informal components. The formal curriculum is defined by Leask (2009, p. 207) as, “The sequenced programme of teaching and learning activities and experiences organized around defined content areas, topics, and resources, the objectives of which are assessed in various ways including examinations and various types of assignments, laboratory sessions, and other practical activities”. This includes for-credit academic initiatives such as certain language courses and courses that add a global element to their syllabi.

An internationalized curriculum should also go beyond the periphery of just the classroom to include informal curriculum. Informal curriculum is “the various extracurricular activities that take place on campus: those optional activities that are not part of the formal requirements of the degree or programme of study” (Leask, 2009, p. 207). This can include study abroad, student clubs, guest speakers, and social events. The most commonly known and discussed experience is study abroad, but according to data from IIE (2015) only around ten percent of US undergraduate students study abroad. From a social justice perspective, it is clear that institutions cannot rely solely on study abroad to supply an international experience for all students. Nilsson (2000, p. 21) argues that, “over the past 15 years, we have somewhat neglected the important question of how to give non-mobile students an international dimension in their
university education”. International and cross-cultural skills and competencies are highly valued capital for graduating students. However, if only an elite ten percent of students are able to acquire these skills through expensive and time consuming study abroad experiences, and higher education institutions value creating multi-cultural learning outcomes and internationalized education opportunities for all of their diverse groups of students then strategies and initiatives, other than just study abroad, must be in place (Nilsson, 2003; Salisbury et al., 2009). The international education organization, NAFSA, calls for efforts to create “access for the many” and an emphasis in “responding to the non-traditional student” (Hudzik, 2011). At home initiatives, which is defined by Nilsson (2003, p. 31) as “any internationally related activity with the exception of outbound student mobility”, can create these opportunities for a larger number and greater diversity of students to get an international experience since students do not need to leave their home country, and in some cases spend extra money, in order to gain access (Anderson et al. 2008; Montgomery 2009; Parsons 2009; Jackson & Huddart, 2010). Mestenhauser (2003, p. 6) also argues that adding at home initiatives to international efforts allows a campus to go “beyond the narrow confine of a formal curriculum and incorporates all international resources now abundantly available in most of our local communities because the world is indeed at our doorstep and “them” is “us” while “us” is also “them.”

In conclusion, there are two pillars on which the argument for an internationalized curriculum that includes at home initiatives rests. One is that in order to provide access to international experiences to a broader scope of the student population the understanding of internationalisation should go beyond just mobility. The other is that a strong emphasis on teaching and learning in a culturally diverse setting allows a university to adjust the traditional teaching paradigms to include a transfer of knowledge in which everybody is involved in the process. (Mestenhauser, 2003; Nillson, 2003; Wachter, 2003). Due to the lack of research on at home curriculum, this paper will focus predominantly on that specific aspect of internationalization. However, study abroad will be utilized as an underpinning of this study due to the theoretical frameworks that the rich amount of literature on the subject provides. This paper will also predominantly focus on informal curriculum due to the amount of choice that students have to participate in these experiences. Formal curricular experiences such as language courses will be part of the study but only to the extent that students have a choice to attend or not.
Table 2.1
*Framework for Internationalization "At Home" (Knight, 2012)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Examples</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum and programs</td>
<td>New programs with international theme infused international, cultural, global, or comparative dimension into existing courses</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Foreign language study</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Area or regional studies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Joint or double degrees</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching/learning process</td>
<td>Active involvement of international students, returned study abroad students and cultural diversity of classroom in teaching/learning process</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Virtual student mobility for joint courses and research projects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Use of international scholars and teachers and local international/intercultural experts</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration of international, intercultural case studies, role plays, problem solving scenarios, project-based learning, teams, learning communities, resource materials</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Service-learning</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Integration of global learning outcomes and assessment</td>
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<tr>
<td>Research and scholarly activity</td>
<td>Area and theme centers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Joint research projects</td>
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<td></td>
<td>International conferences and seminars</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Published articles and papers</td>
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<td></td>
<td>International research agreements</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Research exchange programs</td>
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<td></td>
<td>International research partners in academic and other sectors</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Integration of visiting researchers and scholars into academic activities on campus</td>
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<td>Co-curricular activities</td>
<td>International/global leadership development programs</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Interdisciplinary seminars and think tanks</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Distinguished speaker seminar</td>
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<tr>
<td>Extracurricular activities</td>
<td>Student clubs and associations</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>International and intercultural campus events</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Language partners, friendship programs, student speaker programs</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Liaison with community based cultural and ethnic groups</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Peer support groups and programs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liaison with local community based cultural/ethnic groups</td>
<td>Involvement of students in local cultural and ethnic organizations through internships, volunteering, placements and applied research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Involvement of representatives from local cultural and ethnic groups in teaching/learning activities, research initiatives and extra-curricular events and projects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.2.2 Student support for an internationalized campus

Bourn (2010, p.27) states that, “there is clear evidence from around the world that more and more students wish to have a greater sense of global connectedness”. Other researchers are also finding that students are generally enthusiastic about international learning experiences in order for them to be prepared to work and interact in diverse and multi-national environments (Montgomery 2009; Anderson et al., 2008; Ippolito, 2007; Jackson & Huddart, 2010). A review of Green’s (2005, pp 4–8, 19) national study, in the US, on student attitudes and beliefs about international experiences shows further evidence that students see the value in international education:

- Approximately 85 percent of students believe it is important to know about international issues and events to compete successfully in the job market.
- Nearly 90 percent believe it important to know and understand other cultures and customs to compete successfully in the job market.
- Nearly 60 percent say that all undergraduates should be required to study a foreign language.
- Over 70 percent say that all undergraduates should be required to study abroad.
- Nearly 75 percent say that all undergraduates should be required to take internationally focused courses.
- Nearly 90 percent agree that the presence of international students enriches learning.
- Two-thirds of students believe it is the responsibility of all faculty to help them become aware of other countries, cultures and global issues.

2.2.3 Public support for an internationalized campus

Not only do the students attending university believe that international education experiences are important, but the general American public appear to share in this sentiment. In 2001, the American Council on Education, surveyed 1,006 respondents over the age of 18 about their attitudes, experiences, knowledge and perceptions of international education. Their findings echoed those of Green’s in that the majority of respondents believe that international experiences should be a component of a university student’s experience (Hayward & Siaya, 2001):

- 75 percent of respondents “strongly agreed” or “agreed somewhat” with the statement that students should have a study abroad experience some time during college or university.
- 73 percent of respondents “strongly agreed” or “agreed somewhat” that students should have a work or internship experience abroad at some point during their studies.
79 percent of respondents “strongly agreed” or “agreed somewhat” that when selecting a college or university, international education opportunities should be an important consideration.

In 2006, NAFSA: Association of International Educators, conducted a similar study in which they surveyed a broad cross section of over 1,000 Americans to assess their opinions on the importance of university students enhancing their global preparedness, knowledge of other cultures, and foreign language skills, taking part in a study abroad experience, and interacting with international students. Their results also show that there is strong support from the public for the inclusion of international components to higher education curriculums and missions (NAFSA, 2006):

- 90% believe that it is “important” or “very important” to prepare students for a more global society.
- 92% believe that learning a foreign language will enhance students’ job competitiveness.
- 77% feel it is important for future university students to participate in study abroad program.
- 86% value the opportunity for students to interact with students from other countries.
- 94% feel it is important to prepare future generations for a more global society by having them learn about cultures from around the world.

2.2.4 Current Internationalization efforts in US higher education

Some institutions are responding to this call from students, government, and business leaders for a more internationalized higher education system by establishing a new curriculum designed with at home international and multicultural dimensions (Caruana & Ploner, 2011; Robson, 2011). Although the push for the internationalization of formal and informal curricular components outside of student mobility is a fairly recent development and critics such as Reid (Reid and Spencer-Oatey, 2012, p. 127) state that it “is often more rhetoric than reality”, the Association of American Colleges and Universities has provided support to more than 100 universities to incorporate global learning into their core curricula (cited in Wilhelm, 2012). A review of university webpages shows that there are numerous institutions that are currently very conscious and direct about setting a broad scope to the internationalization of their curriculum. The University of Minnesota and University of Michigan provide two examples of institutions that have verbiage in their webpages that show a holistic commitment to the internationalization of their institution through formal and informal curricular efforts:

University of Minnesota http://global.umn.edu/icc/about.html

For the University of Minnesota, internationalizing the curriculum and campus includes all learning experiences through which students, faculty, and staff can gain global and intercultural
competencies. Specifically, we seek to develop faculty and staff capacity to enrich curricula and develop pedagogy—either within study abroad programs or on-campus learning—that focuses on global learning outcomes. Through partnerships on-campus, in the community, and abroad, GPS Alliance professionals provide guidance and direction for the University efforts to internationalize the student learning experience for all 67,000 students system-wide.

University of Michigan [http://global.umich.edu/campus/](http://global.umich.edu/campus/)

_We go out into the world, but we also bring the world to U-M. A global experience is possible right here on campus. Check out the links to the many courses, degree programs and activities that connect our community to a variety of cultures. There are centers and institutes that foster global connections through the funding and promotion of research, study, teaching, curriculum enhancement, publications, conferences, lectures, exhibits and performances in the arts. Getting involved in student-run organizations and activities is another great way to explore global themes and meet international students, faculty and staff. And don’t miss out on the international lectures, conferences, concerts, cultural festivals, films and plays that are held almost daily in the U-M community._

Another university, Arcadia University, has created "global connections" seminars that include “international” experiences off campus such as visiting the local ethnic market or meeting with community members of foreign descent to discuss relevant international and cultural issues.

As a student and professional in the higher education field, I have personally seen specific examples of internationally themed experiences on the campuses in which I have worked, visited, and studied. The opportunities for international engagement include:

- Internationally themed student accommodations
- Language and culture exchange programs
- International film series
- International conversation coffee hour
- International guest lecture series
- Cultural celebrations
- Global leadership programs

For the university in which the data for this paper was collected an essential part of their _Vision of Excellence_ is that every student has an “international experience” before they graduate. Although the definition of what constitutes an international experience is currently being discussed and re-evaluated at
this university, the following experiences are currently listed on their Global Affairs website as international options for students:

- Study Abroad
- International Internship
- Peace Corps
- Participate in or join the planning committee for International Education Week
- Major in an internationally focused field of study (e.g. International Relations)
- Join an internationally themed student organization
- Join the International Students Club, the primary organization representing the international student body.
- Read the Internationally Engaged newsletter
- Sample international cuisine offered at the Dining Commons, Union, Pub, or food trucks on campus
- Take a class with Extension
- Volunteer with the PAL Program - Partners in Acquiring Language
- Enroll in a class with an international focus
- Participate in a domestic internship with a company that has global offices or global connections
- Complete the “World Cultures” General Education requirement
- Apply for a Fulbright Student scholarship
- Search for faculty who share your common interests in the Faculty with International Linkages
- Volunteer to meet with senior international delegations
- Participate in an activity through the Cross Cultural Center
- Attend a program at the International House
- Participate in Sister City activities
- Volunteer with Amnesty International

2.2.5 Outcomes and benefits of participation and engagement

Crucial to the reasoning behind the need for this particular study is the notion that participation in an international at home experience can be a benefit to students. Although there is limited research specifically focused on the benefits of participating in domestic-based internationally themed experiences, the research on related topics supports the notion that these experiences can provide positive outcomes to students in multiple ways. Literature on engagement in general on-campus initiatives shows that it plays an important role in persistence to a degree. Furthermore, research on participation in internationally
focused initiatives, including study abroad, interaction with international students, and attendance at international events on campus can benefit students in areas such as language skills, intercultural competencies, and personal and career development.

2.2.5.1 Outcomes associated with on-campus student engagement

Research shows strong evidence that students benefit greatly from being involved in on-campus activities. The understanding of the long term benefits that students receive from being involved in on-campus activities is rooted in Pace’s (1982) research on student effort and Astin’s (1984) theory of student involvement. Pace (1982) surveyed 12,000 undergraduates from forty different colleges and concluded that the key predictor for academic achievement is the effort that students put into utilizing campus resources and facilities, including academic programs, on-campus jobs, the library, and faculty interaction. Astin expanded on this behavioral concept by adding psychological dimensions such as motivation. According to Astin’s theory (1984, pp. 528-529), “the greater the student’s involvement in college, the greater will be the amount of student learning and personal development.”

Tinto (1993) developed the Interactionalist Model of Student Departure which focused more on how the interaction between a student’s perception and their behaviors lead to their decision to persist at or depart from a campus. The central premise of Tinto’s model was that students’ decisions to persist or withdraw from university depend on their behaviors while at the university and their successful academic and social integration within the college. In 2005, Pascarella and Terenzini reported results that were largely consistent with Astin’s and Tinto’s views, concluding “that the level of student involvement and integration in any of the components of an institution’s academic and social systems can be a critical factor in students’ persistence decisions” (cited in Feldman, 2005, p. 426). Other research in this area shows further evidence that there are desirable outcomes for students who attend events and interact with campus faculty, staff, and fellow students; not just from the direct learning objectives of the event but also from indirect long-term benefits. As cited in Trowler (2010), studies on the benefits of being involved on campus have consistently shown positive outcomes in many areas, including:

- Critical thinking (Gellin, 2003; Kuh, Palmer, & Kish, 2003; Pascarella, Edison, Nora, Hagedorn, & Terenzieni, 1996; Pike, Kuh & Gonyea, 2003)
- Practical competence and skills transferability (Kuh, 1995)
- Cognitive development (Astin, 1993; Baxter Magolda, 1992; Kuh, 1995; Pascarella, Seifert & Blaich, 2010)
- Self-esteem, psychosocial development, productive racial and gender identity formation

- Moral, ethical, and personal development (Evans, 1987; Jones & Watt, 1999; Kuh, 2009)
- Accrual of social capital (Harper, 2008)
- Improved grades (Astin, 1993; Tross, Harper, Osher, & Kneidinger 2000)
- Aspirations and persistence rates (Astin 1993; Feldman, 2005; Seidman, 2005)
- Positional advantage in the job-market (Nemanick & Clark, 2002; Roulin, Bangerter, & Yerley, 2011).

2.2.5.2 Outcomes associated with participation in international experiences

Being involved in international initiatives can bring added benefits to students such as improved language skills, and multi-cultural communication and understanding. Brustein (2007) also notes that there is a demand in the workforce for globally competent workers with familiarity of other cultures. The majority of research in these areas has been conducted on the outcomes of studying abroad and shows strong support for the notion that there are psychological, cognitive, and career and gains associated with an international experience. However, there is also further evidence that some of these gains can be accomplished on or close to a student’s home campus. The outcomes associated with abroad and at home international experiences will be presented in the following subsections.

Studying abroad

The development of second language acquisition through study abroad has been widely researched (Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsberg, 1995; Kline, 1998; Freed, 1998; Hadis, 2005; Isabelli, 2007), and on a whole, shows higher levels of gains in speaking, listening, and comprehension abilities for students who study abroad in comparison to students that stay at home, as well as reduced anxiety when speaking the language (Allen & Herron, 2003). Furthermore, Norris and Gillespie (2009) and Dwyer (2004) found that these improvements were enhanced even more as the length of stay, local community immersion, and the number of local classes that students take increase.

It has also been shown that studying abroad can positively influence the acquisition of international and cultural knowledge and cross-cultural skills. Research evaluating the impact of study abroad on university students tends to support the argument that study abroad participants show signs of personal and intellectual development in areas such as:

- Global-mindedness (Clark, Flaherty, Wright, & McMillen, 2009)
• Intercultural competence and awareness (Clarke et al., 2009)
• Intercultural communication skills (Douglas & Jones-Rikkers, 2001; Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Clarke, et al, 2009)
• Personal values and self-identity development (Dolby, 2004; Hadis, 2005)
• Openness to and appreciation of diversity (Douglas & Jones-Rikkers, 2001)
• Altered career and social aspirations including an increase in working abroad or working for international firms (Wiers-Jenssen, 2008; Clarke, et al, 2009)
• Increased interest in cross-culture and international affairs and politics (Carlson, 1990; Hadis, 2005)

*International experiences at home*

Although the number and scope of studies is limited, research into campus diversity and international curriculum suggests that studying abroad is not the only means by which students can obtain positive outcomes that are related to intercultural competencies. In regards to developing competencies such as an appreciation of diversity, understanding of complexities involved in global issues, and cross-cultural working skills, participating in on-campus international activities may actually be more beneficial to students than studying abroad (Soria, 2013). Globally-focused activities such as interactions with international students, campus events, symposia, conferences, and participation in internationalized courses have also been shown to have a positive effect on students’ intercultural sensitivity, intercultural understanding, global-mindedness, and on their openness to learning about diversity (Klak & Martin, 2003; Parsons, 2009; Soria, 2013). In Parson’s (2009) study of 1,302 Australian and United States students, those that were involved in international courses, group projects with international students, attended internationally themed events, and had international professors and Teaching Assistants, showed significant positive effects on internationalization variables such as international knowledge, cross-cultural communication skills, and international political, academic, and charitable involvement.

Furthermore, interaction with a diverse student body, that includes international students, has been shown to positively develop the international competencies of domestic students. Both the formal and the informal curriculum of a university provide many opportunities for students to learn by reflection on their own experiences in cross-cultural encounters as well as ‘vicariously’ through observing others engaged in both successful and unsuccessful cross-cultural encounters (Cox, McKendree, Tobin, Lee, & Mayes, 1999). Studies involving measures of cosmopolitan concept, cultural pluralism, international career aspirations, understanding of their own culture, support for internationalism, political liberalism and
world-mindedness (O’Leary, 2001; Sharma & Jung, 1986), showed positive effects for domestic students who reported greater contact or more friendships with international students (Parsons, 2009).

Other research has shown that participation in campus events and programs that provide opportunities for cross-cultural interactions between students can also lead to gains in cross-cultural communication skills. Klak (2003) surveyed students that attended a Latin American Celebration on campus and found that students’ attitudes shifted toward a greater engagement with, openness to, and acceptance of cultural differences. Leask and Carroll (2011) also noted that students involved in the Business Mates program at the University of South Australia (a peer-mentoring program matching domestic and international students) were more likely to indicate they had improved their skills in cross-cultural communication than those involved in other programs.

### 2.2.6 Conclusion to internationalization of higher education

What the preceding literature review shows is that there are many strategies and initiatives that are currently being utilized by universities to meet the call to increase their international efforts. However, the research on factors that influence students’ participation in these initiatives is primarily focused on study abroad. Even though Green’s (2005) data shows that students want to participate in on-campus initiatives that have an international focus and Soria (2013) reported findings that suggest that internationalization at home efforts on campuses have higher rates of student participation and engagement than some of the more traditional study abroad programs, there is a dearth of research on the factors that influence participation in these initiatives.

The research also suggests that there are academic, career, social, and psychological benefits associated with participation in international experiences at home. More specifically, participation in international themed activities on or close to the home campus appear to provide students with some of the same cross-culture developmental benefits as studying abroad (such as increases in intercultural sensitivity, intercultural understanding, global-mindedness, and openness to diversity). Further studies need to occur in order to fully understand the outcomes of an internationalized formal and informal curriculum, but the current research does create a basis for the argument that thoughtfully planned international experiences and curriculum at home can provide domestic students the opportunity to gain or increase some of their international or cross-culture skills, attitudes, and behaviors. Therefore, it is important to understand which students are participating in these experiences and what factors are influencing their ability and desire to participate.
In order to have a better understanding of the full picture of student participation in international experiences more attention needs to be paid to initiatives outside of just study abroad. This study will address this issue by analyzing the factors that influence participation in various international experiences. Due to the lack of available studies that focus on factors associated with participation in international initiatives at home there are no established theories and very little research in this specific area in which to ground this study. Therefore, the research and literature on participation in study abroad and general on-campus engagement will be reviewed in the following sections and then utilized to develop a framework for the data collection and analysis of this study.

2.3 Explanatory factors and models of student engagement in higher education experiences

Although related research suggests that there are benefits to engaging in international experiences at home and there is a growing effort for campuses to establish more of these initiatives, there is a clear absence of research on the factors that influence or describe participation in this form of activity. In 2005, The American Council on Education (Green, 2005) surveyed students about their motivations and barriers to engaging in campus-based international experiences. However, other than the research provided by Green, relevant literature on student engagement in higher education experiences is focused on either study abroad or general on-campus engagement. The following section reviews Green’s findings as well as the literature on determinants of participation in study abroad and international experiences at home in order to identify some likely influential factors and a theoretical framework that can be used as the foundation for this study. Individual factors identified in research will be presented first, followed by a discussion of relevant theoretical models used by researchers to explain how these factors interact to influence student decisions and outcomes.

2.3.1 Presentation of individual factors

The following subsections will present factors associated with university students’ participation in study abroad, engagement on campus, and participation in international experiences at home.

2.3.1.1 Factors influencing participation in study abroad

According to data from the Institute of International Education (IIE, 2015) regarding US study abroad programs lasting from less than eight weeks up to a full year, there are several clear trends and gaps in the demographic characteristics of the participants. One wide gap is in the fields of study of the students that participate. Social Sciences and Business Management majors make up 22% and 21% respectively of the
total participation. No other field of study besides Humanities (10.8%) represents 9% or more of the participants. IIE’s data also shows a gap in gender distribution with 65% of the participants being female and only 35% male. Race/ethnicity also has significant differences in participation rates with white students being the clear majority of participants (76.4%) compared to Asian, Native Hawaiian, or Other Pacific Islander (7.7%) and Hispanic or Latino (7.6%). Juniors and Seniors (60.4%) also make up a clear majority of the participants which includes undergraduate, graduate, and postgraduate students.

But the story of factors that influence participation rates in study abroad goes much deeper than these personal characteristics. Salisbury et al.’s (2009) study on intent to enroll in a study abroad program showed an influence of a complicated structure of social and cultural capital with socioeconomic status, level of parents’ education, and an interest in reading and writing having an effect at the early stage of a student’s decision making process about whether study abroad is feasible. Further exploration of the research in the field of study abroad participation shows that influential factors come in many forms including finances, perceived value of attendance, institutional, social and psychological factors.

**Costs and benefits**

Standard conjecture in the field of study abroad is that a student’s financial situation plays a major role in their decision to participate. It is believed that many students from low economic situations are unable to participate due to the costs associated with travel. Research in the area of study abroad participation supports this notion. Multiple studies have shown that the actual cost of the program is one barrier to participation (Booker, 2001; Clemens, 2003; Lozano, 2008). Likewise, other research has shown that as students’ financial status increase, so does their rate of attendance (King & Young, 1994; Desoff, 2006). Many governments and universities supply financial aid to students in an effort to balance this discrepancy and increase attendance. However, Souto-Otero, Huisman, Beerksens, de Wit, and Vujic, (2013) found that the size of the grant that a student receives was a factor in participating, suggesting that the financial barrier for some students goes beyond just the cost of tuition, but also includes transportation to and from the host country, living costs while there, and other expenses.

Another key factor influencing participation appears to be the depth of knowledge that students have about the benefits and experience of studying abroad. As could be predicted, students that expect study abroad to increase their career opportunities are more likely to participate (Carlson, Burn, Useem, and Yachimowicz, 1990). Likewise, those who expect to have a positive experience through studying abroad are also more likely to attend (Goldstein and Kim, 2006). Goldstein and Kim (2006) also found that students with a favorable perception of the benefits of language acquisition were more likely to have favorable feelings about study abroad. Relyea, Cocchiara, and Studdard (2008) concluded that students...
that are more averse to risk study abroad at a lower rate suggesting that these students perceive a lack of safety as a possible reason not to participate.

However, not all students have the access to information about these experiences that is needed to have a full knowledge of what experiences are available, what is involved in each experience, and what benefits can be obtained through participating. This uncertainty or simple lack of knowledge is highlighted in some studies as one of the biggest barriers to studying abroad (Mathews, Hameister, and Hosley, 1998; Peterson, 2003; Souto-Otero, et al., 2013). Furthermore, it has been shown that some students do not participate in study abroad simply because they have difficulty in finding the right program that matches their wants and needs, or because their perception is that the education they will receive abroad is inferior to what they will receive at their home campus (Souto-Otero, et al., 2013; Gore, 2005).

**Institutional factors**

The characteristics of the student’s university also appear to have an influence on participation in study abroad rates (Dessoff, 2006; Marcum, 2001; Yucas, 2003). Salisbury, et al. (2009) found that students at liberal arts colleges are more likely than students at community colleges or research based universities to study abroad. Lower participation rates at research universities and community colleges are thought to be due to a lack of faculty and staff support provided to students at these institutions. It is suggested that faculty at these institutions have lower levels of interactions with students outside of the classroom and thus have less personal connections with students and provide less encouragement to participate than faculty at liberal arts colleges (Mathews, et al, 1998; Stroud, 2010). It has also been suggested that the rate of study abroad participation increases as an institution’s graduation rate and the percentage of various ethnic groups enrolled in the institution increases (Bailey Shea, 2009).

The student’s context within the university also appears to be an important component of participation. Studies have shown that a student’s field of study, their academic goals, and the amount of engagement that they have in the university experience all correlate with participation in study abroad (Stroud, 2010). The intent to major in the fields of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) or in a professional area such as architecture, medicine, nursing, or physical or occupational therapy is negatively related with planning to study abroad (Stroud, 2010; Salisbury, 2009). However, this lower participation rate for STEM students is not necessarily from a lack of interest in the experience (Salisbury, 2009). Research by Goldstein and Kim, (2006) and Dessoff, (2006) shows that students that do not study abroad are more likely to be concerned about staying on pace to graduate on time than those that do participate. They also argue that these students that are concerned about time to graduation tend to be in the male dominated field of studies, such as physical sciences and math, and are hindered from studying abroad.
due to the inflexibility in their course requirements. This suggests that STEM students do not feel that studying abroad is an option for them due to time constraints, even if they are interested in participating. Furthermore, the desire to pursue a graduate degree, the level of interest in reading and writing, the student’s undergraduate grade point average, worries over credit transfer, and the level of the student’s involvement in academic and extracurricular activities all influence levels of participation (Klahr and Ratti, 2000; Dessoff, 2006; Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Salisbury, 2009).

Social, Cultural, and Psychological factors

The desire to study abroad is also impacted by several social, psychological, and cultural factors. Several influential factors are associated with a student’s relationship with their family. According to Stroud (2010), the geographic distance of campus to a student’s home, and living with family all appear to have an effect on students’ plans to study abroad. Carlson’s (1991) and Salisbury’s (2009) studies found that participants are more likely to come from families with highly educated parents. And Brux and Fry’s (2009) study highlights family responsibilities, family disapproval, and a desire to study in a region corresponding to their family’s heritage as primary concerns of multicultural students associated with decisions in regarding studying abroad. Brux and Fry (2009) also reported that work responsibilities, safety concerns and fears of racism were barriers to participation for students from a racial minority.

Personal relationships, beliefs, and attitudes have also shown to be important factors in the decision-making process (Mathews, et al., 1998; Goldstein and Kim, 2006; Souto-Otero, et al., 2013). For one, higher levels of ethnocentrism were associated with decreased participation rates (Goldstein and Kim, 2006). Conversely, Stroud (2010) states that students that expressed that it was important to know about other countries and believe in the importance of diversity are more likely to go abroad.

Lack of confidence in second language skills also has been shown to negatively correlate with study abroad participation. Souto-Otero, et al. (2013) found that lower confidence in foreign language skills is a barrier to participation and multiple other researchers have found that lack of foreign language knowledge lowers participation rates (Desoff, 2006; Goldstein & Kim, 2006; Mathews, et al., 1998). On the other hand, confidence in traveling appears to positively influence participation. Students that have previously studied abroad or attend a campus that is over 100 miles from home are more likely to study abroad than those students with little to no travel experience (Carlson, 1991; Stroud, 2010).
2.3.1.2 Factors influencing student engagement on campus

The research on factors associated with students’ on-campus engagement is not near as vast as the research on participation in study abroad, but a similar picture involving institutional, demographic, social, and cultural factors is shown to be present. Pike and Kuh (2005) and Kezar and Kinzie (2006) suggest that engagement levels are influenced more by institutional qualities and practices than about student pre-college characteristics. For example, the research by Pike, Smart, Kuh, & Hayek (2006) shows that attending a university that offers doctorate degrees is negatively correlated with engagement levels. Positive correlations were found though in relation to the amount that faculty encouraged students to engage. These findings suggest that students are more engaged in enriching educational experiences on campuses where faculty place a high level of importance and value on participation (Dewey & Duff, 2009; Kuh, Chen, Nelson Laird, & Gonyea, 2007; Kuh, 2008; Stohl 2007).

The way in which an institutional mission of a university approaches policies and practices for engaging students also plays a major factor in the level of student engagement on campus (Kezar & Kinzie, 2006). Pike, et al. (2006) also explored the relationship between institution expenditures and engagement and found a complex system of correlation.

Other research has identified ways in which student characteristics and their social context within the university have an influence on their level of or type of engagement on campus. For one, gender appears to have some influence. On average, female students tend to take greater advantage of educational opportunities, such as interacting with faculty (Sax, Bryant, & Harper, 2005). Kuh (2009) identified “risk” factors, such as being academically underprepared, the first in the family to go to college, or being from a low-income background, as having a negative impact on the likeliness of a student to participate in educational activities during college. In regards to post-matriculation, living on campus has been positively correlated to engagement (Pike & Kuh, 2005; Terenzini, Pascarella, & Blimling, 1996) and living in a residential learning community can also bolster a student’s sense of engagement and attachment to the campus community (Kuh, 2009).

Being a first generation student has also been show to negatively impact the amount that a student engages on campus (Pike and Kuh, 2005; Kuh, 2008). Presumably, this is in large part due to their lack of awareness of activities that are available as well as a lack of assistance from their parents in identifying benefits associated with engagement. Pike and Kuh (2005) suggest that other factors associated with first-generation students, such as lower educational aspirations and living off campus, also negatively influence a student’s level of engagement.
According to Walpole (2003), low socio-economic status (SES) students spend less time in student clubs and groups than their high SES peers. This has been shown to be in part due to low SES students’ active ties off-campus with family and work obligations that pull students away from integrating into the social life on campus (Nora, Cabrera, Hagedorn, & Pascarella, 1996). However, the literature also suggests that it is important to understand the context of these personal connections, as they are not responsible for only negative correlations. Support from family and friends can help to smooth the adjustment to campus for low SES students and encourage a student to become engaged in their university experience (Cabrera, Nora, & Castaneda, 1993; Nora, et al., 1996).

2.3.1.3 Factors influencing student engagement in international experiences at home

Although related research suggests that there are benefits to engaging in at home international experiences and there is a growing effort for campuses to establish more of these initiatives, there is a clear absence of research on the factors that influence or describe participation. Green (2005), in a study for the American Council on Education on student experiences and beliefs regarding international education, surveyed over 9,000 students from eight US universities. The survey found that the main reason students participated in internationally-focused campus events was for personal interest and development. The study also found that work and family responsibilities and participation in other recreational activities were the main barriers for attendance. However, other than this study, no other further research on the factors associated with student participation in international experiences at home was identified.

2.1.1.1 Summary of factors influencing engagement in higher education experiences

The overall collection of literature on student engagement in formal and informal curriculum shows that there is not one prevailing factor that can be viewed as the key to understanding or predicting student engagement. Instead, it is a complex system of multiple factors. Table 2.2 displays the multitude of factors that have been shown to have an influence on student engagement in study abroad, on-campus experiences, and at home international experiences. As can be seen, multiple factors are relevant in both study abroad and on-campus experiences, including the mission and actions of the university, the students’ gender, the students’ goals and anxieties, and the context of the support that students receive from home and campus. From the one study conducted on international experiences at home it appears that the perceived benefits of participation and the involvement that the student has in other responsibilities are also factors that appear to be significant across multiple types of experiences. Since there are so many factors, and varieties of types of factors, that can be hypothesized as having an
influence on at home international experience, it is prudent to test a theoretical model that considers all of these forms of possible influencers. In the next section, I will discuss multiple theoretical models that have been used to describe students’ decision-making processes and participation in education. I will also expound on the theoretical model that was utilized for this study.

Table 2.2

Identified factors that influence student engagement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study abroad</th>
<th>On campus engagement</th>
<th>International experiences at home</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Race</td>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Perceived benefits</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Gender</td>
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<tr>
<td>Socio-economic status</td>
<td>Socio-economic status</td>
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<tr>
<td>First generation college student</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived risks</td>
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<tr>
<td>Perceived benefits</td>
<td>Information available</td>
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<tr>
<td>Information available</td>
<td>Information available</td>
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<tr>
<td>Availability of wanted experience</td>
<td>Living on campus</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Support from faculty and staff</td>
<td>Support from faculty and staff</td>
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<tr>
<td>University mission</td>
<td>University mission</td>
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<td>University academic focus</td>
<td>University academic focus</td>
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<tr>
<td>Field of study</td>
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<td>Educational aspirations</td>
<td>Educational aspirations</td>
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<td>Grade point average</td>
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<td>Involvement in other activities</td>
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<td>Distance from campus to home</td>
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<td>Living with family</td>
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<td>Parents’ education level</td>
<td>Parents’ education level</td>
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<td>Support from family</td>
<td>Support from family</td>
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<td>Work responsibilities</td>
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<td>Work responsibilities</td>
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<td>Safety concerns</td>
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<td>Fears of racism</td>
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<td>Level of ethnocentrism</td>
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<td>Foreign language skills</td>
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<td>Believe in importance of diversity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Previous travel experience</td>
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2.1.2 Theoretical models explaining influential factors of participation

Salisbury, et al. (2009, p. 122) state that, “in order to examine the factors that influence intent to study abroad, it is first necessary to identify an appropriate theoretical framework (Smart, 2005) that can account for the range of actors relevant to college student decision-making processes.” This is also true for studies that examine participation in international experiences that go beyond just study abroad. The preceding review of literature in similar fields creates a strong indication that a broad range of factors need to be examined in order to fully understand what influences a student’s choice to participate in international experiences.

Based on the research of factors that determine participation in study abroad and on-campus initiatives, it can be hypothesized that the factors determining participation in international experiences at home are a complex mix of student background characteristics, context, and capital, institutional factors, and rational analysis of costs and benefits. Therefore, in order to create a study that examines participation in these experiences a theoretical framework must be identified that can account for the wide range of possible influential factors (Salisbury, et al., 2009).

When considered individually, neither economic theories of rationality nor sociological theories such as habitus are adequate for understanding the nuances of student decisions across varying groups. Manski (1993), argues that economic approaches offer a framework for understanding decision making, but are limited by their failure to examine the nature of information that is available to decision makers. On the other hand, sociological approaches shed light on the ways in which individuals gather information, but do not identify the ways in which individuals make decisions based on this information (Perna, 2006).

The strengths of a theoretical model that integrates economic and social approaches is that it assumes that the process of making decisions in regards to education may vary across cultural, socioeconomic, and other groups, and it also recognizes the influence of school, community, social, economic, and policy contexts (Paulsen and St. John, 2002; St. John and Asker, 2001; Perna, 2006). Glaesser and Cooper’s (2013) work on the educational decision-making of students supports this notion. Their interviews with German and English students show evidence of a rational cost-benefit analysis in the choice process of students but also evidence that rational action cannot fully explain students’ educational decisions and behaviors alone. They argue that the social class status and the habitus of students create lower and upper boundaries on their aspirations, and thus influence the choices that students perceive to be accessible to them.
In the following section I will present four different theoretical models and concepts that have been used in research that examined students’ decision making processes and participation in higher education. This section will begin by addressing the theoretical stance, strengths, and limitations of three theoretical concepts: (1) theories of rational choice and action; (2) Bourdieu’s (1973) Habitus; and (3) Astin’s (1970, 1993) Input-Environment-Output. The section will culminate with a description of Perna’s (2006) Model of Student College Choice. It will further describe how the use of the Model of Student College Choice as the framework for the design of this study allows for not only an analysis of how each of the multiple theoretical perspectives influence the outcome of participation but also how they interrelate to do so.

2.1.2.1 Rational Choice and Action Theories

Rational Choice and Action Theories were begun as economic theories and were later brought into the field of sociology as a way to understand social processes through the actions of individual actors. Rational Action Theory, as described by Glaesser and Cooper (2013, p. 3), “explains actions by assuming that actors undertake a cost-benefit analysis before acting”. According to Coleman (1990), rational choice theorists propose that actors engage in some form of optimization when making decisions and will choose the action that will have the best outcomes. Green (2002) expands on this concept by outlining five generally accepted assumptions of rational choice-making. The first is that rational action involves utility maximization in which individuals choose actions that are best for their beliefs, objectives, and outcomes. It might be egalitarian in nature, monetary based, or might include threats of punishment or promise of rewards (Scott, 2000; Glaeser and Cooper, 2013). The key point is that the perceived optimal outcome is in line with the individual’s value beliefs. The second assumption is that consistency is part of the definition of rationality and requires that all outcomes are regarded as being equal or unequal. “The theory of formal rationality does not judge the rationality of the agent's preferences: ‘rationality’ pertains only to the relations among her preferences” (Satz and Ferejohn, 1994, p. 73)” The third assumption is that individuals seek to maximize the expected value of a payoff instead of the actual value due to the decision making process occurring in a state of uncertain assumptions. Individuals can only make decisions on the future based on the information that they have now and what they have learned in the past. The fourth is that the maximizing actions of individuals are the relevant agents, not collective actions. Although the collective outcomes of social groups are explained through the reference of individual actors, rational choice making theories only explain choice as an individualistic action. Lastly, it is assumed by theorists that models of rationality apply equally to all persons in a study. This is not to say that individuals cannot have unique characteristics but that it has to be assumed that the assumptions listed above are all homogeneous in their relation to each individual.
The main critiques of rational choice and action theories, through the lens of social science, is that it (a) is post-dictive instead of predictive, (b) postulates that decisions are based mainly on extrinsic material benefits and not intrinsic motivators, (c) is too focused on the individual action with too little attention given to the social dynamics that influence the individual actor, and (d) assumes an uncommon real life in which situations and decisions are not muddled, unfocused, and unchanging (Goode, 1997). As Glaesser and Cooper (2013) state, “the rationality of any goal must be understood, not in absolute terms, but relative to individuals’ starting situations.” For one, as Des Jardins and Toutkoushian (2005) point out, individual students do not have equal access to information and can only evaluate choices based on the options that they are aware of and their knowledge of the possible costs and benefits of each choice. Furthermore, an individual’s choice can be a rational one, but only relative to the accuracy of the information that is available to them (DesJardins and Toutkoushian, 2005). Therefore, theoretical models that include rational choice components should not assume that students have perfect and complete information, but instead evaluate college options based on the available information about the benefits and costs (Perna, 2006). Thus, in order to fully understand the reasoning process that students go through while making decision about their participation in higher education, it is important to take into account their current and previous social and environmental contexts.

2.1.2.2 Habitus

Habitus (Bourdieu, 1973) is thought of as the internalized set of dispositions that an individual has to certain actions and can include the person’s attitudes, beliefs, and demeanour. These dispositions are influenced by a primarily unconscious internalization of our place within a social structure that is developed during our early childhood. Through this internalization, one develops a feel for what is possible and what is not possible when interacting with a field in which interactions, transactions, and events occur (Bourdieu, 2005; Thompson, 2008).

Pierre Bourdieu (Bourdieu, 1973) began the conceptualization of habitus as a way of bringing together the idea that we are both free agents in our thoughts and actions as well as influenced by social structure. In this manner, it is understood that subjects interact with society both externally and internally (Horvat, 2001). As shown in Figure 2.2, according to Davey (2009), our decisions and actions (practice) should not be viewed as the work of habitus alone, but instead are the product of the relation between one’s symbolic resources (social and cultural capital) and the disposition (habitus) one has toward the utilization of those resources, within a specific area of society and time (field).
Furthermore, through habitus we develop a “feel for the game” in which aspirations and expectations of what is possible are conditioned by past outcomes (Bourdieu, 2005; Thompson, 2008). Past outcomes are heavily influenced by the amount of economic and symbolic capital we have developed within a specific field. Our knowledge and understanding of the field, the nature of our relationships in the field, and our status within the field are all forms of capital that establish our ability to understand and to be comfortable with the rules of the game. A lack of feel for the game can lead to a scenario in which an individual feels like a “fish out of water” in a particular field and thus chooses not to participate (Thompson, 2008).

According to Walpole (2003), family background, social and cultural capital, and habitus have been shown to impact levels of educational aspirations from the earliest schooling experiences, through high school, to the choice to attend college, and extending beyond college. Bourdieu and Passeron (1977, 1979) discussed in their findings on the impact of habitus on students’ decisions to attend college that students from middle class backgrounds were shown to be more likely to attend university than those from working class backgrounds not because of the access policies and procedures from the institutions as much as how the individual students perceived their fit with the institution. Those students from the middle class saw university as a natural step and felt at home upon arrival, but those from the working class saw university as “not right for me” (Thompson, 2008). Findings from other research lend support to Bourdieu and Passeron’s argument by showing that family income and education levels, as well as family values, outlooks, and attitudes toward education can affect students’ desire to attend university and their degree aspirations (Griffin, del Pilar, McIntosh, and Griffin, 2012; Perna, 2006; Perreira, Mullan Harris, and Lee, 2006).

The main critique of habitus is that it is constraining and deterministic with too much focus on pre-reflective dimensions of action (Reay*, 2004). As Jenkins (2002) and Crossley (2013) argue, Bourdieu places an emphasis on the unconscious impulses of individuals with little respect and attention to internal dialogues, resistance, or reflective choice.
2.1.2.3  Astin’s Input-Environment-Output

Alexander Astin’s (1970, 1993) Input-Environment-Output model (Figure 2.3) has been used extensively in literature related to higher education and student outcome assessment. Astin (1993, p. 37) states that “the I-E-O model is specifically designed to produce information on how outcomes are affected by different educational policies and practices”.

**Figure 2.3: Input-Environment-Output (I-E-O) Model (Astin, 1970, 1993)**

Inputs refer to the student’s “static” personal characteristics such as race and gender, as well as the talents, goals, interests, and potential for learning that the student brings to the university setting.

The environment is the context of the higher education institution that has the ability to affect a student. This can include university policies and procedures, academic curriculum, facilities, personal relationships and teaching styles.

Outputs refer to the components of the student or the student’s experience that the university can or does influence. Outputs are measurable effects on areas such as a student’s gain in knowledge or skills, personal achievements, or changes in a student’s values, aspirations, interests, and activities.

The strength of this model is that it brings a multivariate approach to looking at the influencers of certain outcomes. By including the student’s pre-university characteristics as well as the contexts of the university, it allows the researcher to obtain possible relationships or identify contributing factors associated with the change in a student.

The main limitation of this model is that it does not take into account phenomena outside of the institution that might be influencing the student while enrolled in the university. Social pressure from family and friends, media, financial changes, changes in the local community or world can all be significantly influencing the student at the same time as the institution itself. Another limitation of this model is that it does not consider the factors that are potential barriers or benefits to participation and how the students’ analysis and weighing of these factors influences their decisions.
2.1.2.4 Conceptual Model of Student College Choice

Laura Perna’s (2006) conceptual model for examining student college choice (Figure 2.4) is similar to Astin’s (1970, 1993) Input-Environment-Output model in that it considers how a student’s past and present contexts influence outcomes. However, it provides a more holistic framework for understanding the decisions that university students make about their higher education opportunities due to its inclusion of both economic and sociological theoretical perspectives. Based on the student choice construct (Paulsen and St. John, 2002; St. John and Asker, 2001), Perna’s (2006) model assumes that college enrolment decisions reflect an individual’s situated context. The center of the model is a human capital investment model which includes the resources available to a student and the monetary and non-monetary cost-benefit analysis a student will use to form a decision. Surrounding and influencing this cost-benefit analysis are layers of context including the university’s characteristics, previous school and community characteristics, changes in policy, and the student’s habitus, demographics, and social capital (Perna, 2006).

Human Capital and Individual Investment

At the center of the Student College Choice model is the influence of the economics of human capital and individual investment. Theories of human capital and individual investment were begun as theoretical explanations of rational decision making in the field of economics in the 1950s and 1960s and then later brought into the field of sociology as a way to understand social processes through the actions of individual actors (Paulsen, 2001). Human capital is the productive capacities that are possessed by an individual or society, such as knowledge, understandings, talents, and skills. A base principle of human capital and individual investment theory is that individual students implicitly calculate the value of the choice options by comparing their perceptions of the returns or benefits with the expected investment costs of participation (Paulsen, 2001). Human capital theorists postulate that the choices that students make (what school they attend, what they study, what activities in which they participate) are a product of their decisions to invest or not invest (time, money, energy, etc) in higher education - which is a medium that influences human capital in its ability to augment students’ aptitudes (Paulsen, 2001). As Perna (2006, p. 106) states, “Rational models of human capital investment assume that individuals decide to invest in additional education based on a comparison of the expected lifetime benefits with the expected costs (Becker, 1993; Ellwood and Kane, 2000; Paulsen, 2001)”.

40
The following subsections describe other areas in which Perna’s (2006) model addresses the social dynamics and contextual layers that influence a student’s knowledge of the choices available to them and the perspective they have about the costs and benefits of each choice.

Perna’s conceptual model recognizes that there are differing resources available to students and thus proposes that an individual’s evaluation of the costs and benefits associated with educational options are influenced by four contextual layers: “(1) the individual’s habitus; (2) school and community context; (3)
the higher education context; and (4) the broader social, economic, and policy context” (Perna, 2006, p. 116).

Habitus

According to Perna (2006), habitus is the internalized system of thoughts, beliefs, perceptions, preferences and dispositions that is derived from one’s social context and history. It subconsciously conditions an individual’s college-related expectations, attitudes, and aspirations by defining what is a “reasonable” action and what is not. (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977; Paulsen and St. John, 2002; Horvat, 2001).

The theory of habitus postulates that navigation and success in the educational system requires a student to possess the knowledge of ‘the rules of the game’ to go along with their academic competence. Because they are less familiar with educational expectations, curriculum, and social rules than students from mainstream backgrounds, students from minority or low socio-economic backgrounds are less likely to be successful in school and participate in potentially beneficial academic experiences (Bourdieu, 1993; Barrett and Martina, 2012).

However, an educational institution can also have a positive influence in regards to a student’s habitus and eventual outcomes. Although an individual’s predispositions associated with habitus begin to form at birth and the individual’s family and close social networks are prime influencers of the development of habitus, an educational institution can also provide a variety of avenues that shape a student’s habitus. According to Barrett and Martina (2012, p. 259), “institutional and curricular aspects of the organization of schools, the diversity of the student population, and pedagogy can shape and indeed transform students’ habitus to promote more equitable educational opportunities and outcomes”. These aspects of an institution can create opportunities for students to consciously reflect, question, and confront their perceptions and attitudes about their educational and personal goals (Reay, 2004; Barrett and Martina, 2012).

Perna’s model also recognizes the influence that an individual’s social and cultural capital have on shaping their habitus.

Social Capital

Social capital is the ability to access resources that are acquired by an individual through social relationships, membership in social networks, and other social structures (Coleman, 1990; Field, 2003; Lin, 2002). Field (2003, p. 13) states that, “social capital consists of personal connections and
interpersonal interaction, together with the shared sets of values that are associated with these contacts”. Coleman’s (1988) approach, which is used extensively in educational research, “suggests that social capital is derived from two types of relationships: the relationship between children and their parents and relationships between a parent and other adults” (Perna, 2006).

Perna’s model proposes that social capital, in regards to decisions about higher education involvement, may be manifested in two ways. For one, individuals acquire information about college and gain educational expectations through parental involvement and expectations, as well as through the influence of their peers (Hao and Bonstead-Bruns, 1998; McDonough, 1997). Secondly, school officials may also be a source of college-related social capital for students through providing information on possible options (McDonough, 1997) and through encouraging students to pursue those options (Gonzalez, Stone, and Jovel, 2003; McDonough, 1997; Perna, 2000).

Cultural capital

According to Perna (2006, p. 111), “Cultural capital refers to the system of attributes, such as language skills, cultural knowledge, and manners, that is derived, in part, from one’s parents and that defines an individual’s class status (Bourdieu, 1986; Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977)”. The knowledge that a student has about the cultural norms of higher education can influence educational aspirations, selection of educational opportunities, or the benefits of their educational investment (Bourdieu and Passeron, 1977; Perna, 2006).

Perna’s (2006) model shows two variables that express the concept of cultural capital: (1) cultural knowledge, and (2) the value placed on college attainment. McDonough’s (1997) study showed that the amount of cultural knowledge that students possess influences their search for educational opportunities. Students from high-SES families appear to be more productive in their education-related decisions due to their possession of the dominant class’s cultural knowledge, which is enhanced by their greater access to resources and more experience with similar decisions. The second variable, value placed on college, is highly influenced by parental encouragement (Hamrick and Stage, 2004; Hossler and Stage, 1992). Parents can also help students make choices that will align their educational aspirations with their occupational aspirations (Schneider and Stevenson, 2000).

School and community context

The second contextual layer in Perna’s model is the school and community context of a student’s current school. The conceptual model of student college choice recognizes how the social and organizational structures within a student’s secondary school system assist or hinder a student from choosing to attend
post-secondary school (McDonough, 1997). Once again drawing upon Bourdieu’s (1986) assumptions, Perna proposes that the social context (field) that an individual is in influences how their habitus and capital are utilized to form their behavior. Through analysis of research by (McDonough, 1997; Kirst and Veneezia, 2004; Schneider and Stevenson, 2000), Perna (2006) argues that a school’s mission, social structures, bureaucratic processes, quantity and quality of information, amount of time devoted to counselling interactions, structure of curriculum, level of trust built with students and the level of encouragement that they give to students about attending college, all show to be impactful in the decision making process of students. In utilizing Perna’s model for this study on participation in international experiences while in college, the school and community context is related to the student’s home university. With the outcome in this study being a student’s participation in international experiences instead of “college choice,” the focus of this contextual layer is adapted in this study to the structure, mission, and interactions of the student’s home university.

Higher education context

The higher education context layer (layer 3), recognizes that student choice is also shaped in two ways by the institutions that are of possible consideration for the student. One way that an institution may shape a student’s decision to enrol is the information that the university conveys through active marketing and recruiting efforts (Chapman, 1981). The university might also passively shape a student’s decision through their location (McDonough, Antonio, and Trent, 1997), attributes, and characteristics (Perna, 2006). In this study, the phenomena that is being considered by the student is not attendance at another educational institution; instead, it is participation in various educational experiences offered by their current institution. Therefore, the focus of this layer is adapted in this study to incorporate the context of experiences offered; specifically, the location, cost, and accessibility of the experience.

Social, economic, and policy

Layer four of the conceptual model of college choice assumes that social, economic, and policy contexts can directly and indirectly influence students’ decisions. The social context associated with this layer may include the demographic characteristics of the local community, such as race and level of college education (St. John, Musoba, and Chung, 2004). The economic context may include characteristics of the local labour market, and the policy context may include governmental and educational policies and structures that discourage, or encourage, college enrolment; for instance, policies that influence financial aid or curriculum requirements (Veneezia, Kirst, and Antonio, 2003; Perna, 2006).
2.1.3 Conclusion: Explanatory factors and models of student engagement in higher education experiences

The literature on study abroad and engagement in higher education show a combination of multiple factors that influence participation. These various factors include economic and symbolic capital, habitus, institutional and academic contexts, and rational analysis. Glaesser and Cooper (2013) introduced a theory of subjective rationalization in an effort to explain educational choices of students in this holistic manner. They argue that, due to their objective stance, rational choice and action theories cannot fully explain participation behaviour alone. They state that although their research does show evidence of rationalization in the process of undergraduate students making educational choices, the lower and upper boundaries of the choices that are perceived to be available vary by the class of origin of the students. These boundaries of perceived possibilities show the influence of a student’s habitus as described by Bourdieu (2005). Glaesser and Cooper’s (2013) study is important in that it shows that a study of educational decision-making must include an examination of factors that indicate the influence of both habitus and rationality.

The strength of Perna’s (2006) Conceptual Model for Examining Student College Choice is that it incorporates both of these theoretical concepts as well as various layers of context of the student, institution, and experience. A weakness of the student-choice model is that it was developed as a tool to study how students make choices about which college to attend and has primarily been used in other research on student enrolment and persistence (McDonough, 1997; Perna 2006; Paulsen and St. John 2002). However, Salisbury, et al. (2009, p. 123) argue that, “if the student-choice construct can explain educational decisions at both the beginning and the end of an academic year, it seems more than reasonable—as Paulsen (2001), St. John and Asker (2001), and Perna (2006) have suggested—that the same construct might help to explain the educational decisions students make during college.” Salisbury, et al. (2009, 2010, 2011) recently applied the conceptual framework in this fashion in their studies on the decision-making process of students intending to participate in study abroad, and found the conceptual model to be an effective framework for studying students’ intent to participate in educational opportunities. Although the model of Student College Choice will need to be adapted to fit an analysis of the choice to participate in this specific form of educational experience, the multi-faceted framework that it provides makes it an appropriate tool to build a study with the goal of examining the influence of habitus, cost-benefit analysis, and the university’s context on participation in international experiences.
2.2 Conclusion to the literature review

Chapter 2 has presented a review of relevant literature on the internationalization of higher education, the benefits to students of participation in higher education based international experiences, and factors and theoretical frameworks explaining student participation in abroad and on-campus experiences. The current literature on factors associated with student participation in experiences abroad and on-campus suggest that a complex mix of factors influence participation in educational experiences. These include factors associated with a student’s habitus (represented by their social and cultural capital), the student’s situated context within the university, and a rational analysis of the costs and benefits of participation.

The following chapter will discuss the research methods used in this study, including an introduction to the research questions and description of the research design. It will also include the context of the study, the instrumentation utilized, the data collection procedures, and conclude with a discussion of the strategies used to analyse the data.
Chapter 3: Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

As discussed in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to expand the research on factors that influence undergraduate student participation in international experiences. The study was designed to go beyond the previous research on international curriculum participation that focuses primarily on study abroad participation by including other internationally themed experiences that occur on or near the student’s home campus. Many students participate in other forms of experiences that have international components through work, study, and social interactions, and the research reviewed in Chapter 2 shows that there are beneficial learning outcomes associated with participation in these experiences. Therefore it is important to conduct research that will provide insight into the factors associated with participation in these opportunities.

In previous research, participation in study abroad has been looked at singularly. Although this method has uncovered rich data about how the context of the students factor into participation, it makes assumptions about how those factors relate to the context of the experience itself. How can we know that the factors identified as influencing study abroad participation are unique to study abroad or even related to the “abroad-ness” of the experience without research on other experiences in which to compare and contrast these findings? Inclusion of both at home and abroad experiences in this study will improve our understanding of factors related to participation by including the contexts of the experience itself as possible factors.

The literature reviewed in Chapter 2, shows that the factors that influence the likelihood that a university student will participate in study abroad are a mix of personal identity characteristics such as race and gender, as well as various forms of capital (social, cultural, economic). Utilizing the research and theoretical frameworks developed on international education and student choice processes described in Chapter 2, this study researched the influence of habitus (demographics, social capital, cultural capital), rational analysis (costs and benefits), and the context of the student within the university (field of study and experiences) on a student’s likelihood of participating in international experiences while at a university. This chapter will describe the research methods used, including an introduction of the research questions and description of the research design. It will also include the context of the study, the sample population, the instrumentation utilized, and the data collection procedures. It will conclude with a discussion of the strategies used to analyse the data.
3.2 Research Question

Although it can be hypothesized that factors influencing engagement in internationally themed experiences at home will reflect those outlined in the literature on participation in study abroad and student choice processes, there have been extremely few studies that have addressed this specific category of student engagement.

This lack of research, coupled with the growing call for a more internationalized campus curriculum and culture, provides a present need to focus research efforts on developing an understanding of the factors that influence student participation in a broader range of international experiences that includes international at home initiatives.

This study was guided by the following research questions in order to meet that goal:

1. Research question one (RQ1): How is participation in international experiences influenced by rational cost-benefit analysis?
2. Research question two (RQ2): How is participation in international experiences influenced by habitus?
3. Research question three (RQ3): How is participation in international experiences influenced by a student's context within the university?
4. Research question four (RQ4): How do the factors that influence participation in international experiences at home compare or contrast to those that influence participation in international experiences abroad?

There are three main aims and objectives of this study. One is to bring greater breadth to literature on internationalization of higher education. Leask (2009, p. 209) argues that there needs to be a “holistic approach to internationalisation that incorporates wide-ranging strategies within both the formal and the informal curriculum”. However, although literature already exists on aspects of internationalization such as student mobility, organizational structure, and formal curriculum, there is no research on non-formal and informal curricular efforts. This study aims to fill in that gap by initiating research on participation in non-formal internationalized curriculum at home.

The second objective is to bring better understanding of access issues in regards to minority and low SES student participation in international experiences. It is well documented that study abroad tends to have participation gaps that disfavour poor and racial-minority students. In order to pursue efforts that could minimize the disadvantage that these students have in regards to gaining an internationalized education, it is important to know if these gaps in rates of participation also exist in at home experiences, as well as if
there are any similar or contradictory influential factors in participation in at home and abroad experiences.

The third objective of this thesis is to form a comprehensive model that can explain how the multiple factors influencing participation in international experiences interact. Previous literature suggests that participation is influenced by a complex structure of multiple factors. This study aims to explain how these factors connect in one theoretical model that can be used in both further academic research and by higher education practitioners.

Although a focus of the study is on identifying influential factors of participation in international experiences as a broad category as well as at home international experiences specifically, the strategy of including abroad experiences in the study provides several advantages. For one, since there have already been numerous studies on study abroad participation, the influential factors that have been identified provide a guiding framework for this study. Also, the data collected on abroad participation in this study can provide greater insight into the analysis by establishing the ability to compare and contrast the influencers of similar yet disparate experiences.

3.3 Research Design

To answer the research questions, a quantitative and correlational design approach was taken for this study (Creswell, 2013). A correlational design is defined by Creswell (2013, p. 12) as a nonexperimental form of research “in which investigators use the correlational statistic to describe and measure the degree or association (or relationship) between two or more variables.” In this study, the degree of the relationship between independent variables, such as personal identity characteristics and various indicators of economic, social, and cultural capital, and the dependent variables (participation in abroad and at home international experiences) was measured through logistic regression analysis. An on-line questionnaire survey was utilized as the research instrument.

The choice of this research design was predicated on the three principles in the objectives of the research questions. One of these principles was that the study was focused on determining what factors influence the decisions and actions that students make. Because of this, the experiences that are utilized in the study are all ones that are not mandated by The University. Certainly, an experience such as taking a class with an international student can be thought of as an international experience, but it (and other such factors) were not included in this study due to the lack of choice that a student has in that experience occurring.
Another guiding principle for this study was a desire to compare the factors that influence at home experiences to those identified in previous literature as being influential to participation in study abroad. This is important in that it will allow researchers and practitioners to have a better understanding of whether at home experiences are more accessible and utilized by marginalized student population than study abroad. A majority of the previous literature identified in the literature review on study abroad participation used quantitative data, so a quantitative design was used in this study to provide consistency in the comparative analysis.

The third guiding principle is associated with the third objective of the study - to develop a comprehensive model that can explain how the multiple factors influencing participation in international experiences interact. The research questions in this study ask to identify the influence of a broad range of possible factors that have shown to be influential to study abroad participation. A quantitative design allowed the researcher to incorporate all of these factors in a manageable study that could identify which factors hold the most influence when controlled for other factors. In turn, this can allow for an analysis of how these factors influence each other throughout the choice process.

3.4 The Survey

The questionnaire used for this survey can be viewed as Appendix 1. An on-line questionnaire survey was chosen as the research instrument for four reasons. One rationale for using a survey was that surveys provide the flexibility needed to obtain data from the multiple forms of variables required for this study. In this study it was important to identify the demographic characteristics of the students, the experiences that the students have had personally and while at the university, as well as their attitudes in regards to international and cultural learning. According to Johnson and Christensen (2004, p. 164), surveys can gather data on demographic information as well as “the thoughts, feelings, attitudes, beliefs, values, perceptions, personality, and behavioural intentions of research participants”; therefore it was the ideal tool for gathering a diverse range of information.

The second rationale was that most of the literature reviewed for this study utilized some form of a survey. Although I realize that there could be potential benefits of exploring this topic through underutilized qualitative measures, a significant portion of the analysis of this study’s finding relies on a comparison with related research. Therefore, I believe it is important in this instance to be somewhat consistent with previous research in order to have a basis for comparison.

The third rationale for using a survey was the large number of demographic factors identified in previous research on study abroad and student choice processes as holding possible significance; factors such as
race, gender, field of study, and economic status. A qualitative study might be appropriate if the research project focused on one of these demographics, but the focus of this study was to determine which of these factors are significant for participation in this form of experience. The number of personal interviews or focus groups that would be needed in order to include a significant sample of all of these demographic groups would not be manageable for one researcher in the time allotted for this study, thus making any findings related to students’ identities inconclusive.

The fourth rationale for implementing a questionnaire survey is that there is not data being collected by the university in regards to these international experiences that could be used to address the research questions.

The student choice construct and the integrated model of student choice developed by Perna (2006), and applied by Salisbury et al. (2009) in their research on factors influencing students’ intentions to study abroad, was used as a guide in developing the questionnaire instrument for this study. The research conducted by Salisbury et al. (2009) demonstrated that Perna’s model of student choice can effectively be used as a theoretical framework for identifying and evaluating factors that influence student participation in university experiences. What Salisbury’s (2009) study lacks though is an examination of the influence of others on the students’ choices, and an analysis of the influence of the perceived benefits of participation in study abroad. The former is a key indicator of habitus which has been indicated in other research as an influencing agent on education decisions. The latter can be an indicator of both cost-benefit analysis and habitus.

The questionnaire that was developed included 42 questions. Punch’s (2003) nine general steps in developing a questionnaire and Newby’s (2014) chapter on developing a questionnaire were referenced as a guide in creating and evaluating the survey for this study. The first eight questions asked the participants about factual information such as their field of study, race, and the level of education of their parents or guardians. The following 21 questions asked respondents to indicate if they have participated in various international experiences such as an internship abroad, language courses, and internationally focused student clubs. All of the experiences listed are not mandated by the university for graduation; thus, these are all experiences in which students had the choice to participate. The remaining questions were scale-based items in which students could indicate the amount of importance they place on international experiences, the amount of encouragement they receive from others to participate in international experiences, the enjoyment they receive in interacting with diverse cultures and ideas, the influence that the university has had on their development, and the amount of experiences they have had on campus related to cross-culture themes.
 According to Creswell (2013), pilot testing is an important component of survey development since it can improve the questions, format, and scales. In order to pilot test this questionnaire, a draft of the survey questionnaire was sent to five students. The students completed the survey and then met with me individually to discuss the survey design. In our meetings, as outlined by Newby (2014), I asked the students how easy it was for them to access the survey on-line, how long it took them to complete the survey, if there were any words, phrases, or instructions that they did not understand, or if they noticed any other issues with the questionnaire that they felt were important. The constructive feedback from these students resulted in changes to specific word choice, deletion of questions due to redundancy, and changes in the access settings of the on-line form.

3.5 The Setting

This study was conducted with undergraduate students at a large research university in the United States of America, which will be referenced as “The University” or “TU”. The University is a public university and has approximately 27,000 undergraduate students majoring in 104 different fields of study. The demographics of the undergraduate student population at TU consist of diverse socioeconomic backgrounds and races and is presented in Table 3.1.

TU’s main academic focus is on agriculture and sustainability with a reputation for solving problems related to food, health, the environment, and society. The University also puts a strong emphasis on social justice issues and cross-culture learning. The website for TU’s Office of Campus Community Relations states that TU:

*is a diverse community comprised of individuals having many perspectives and identities. We come from a multitude of backgrounds and experiences, with distinct needs and goals. We recognize that to create an inclusive and intellectually vibrant community, we must understand and value both our individual differences and our common ground. The UC Davis Principles of Community is an aspirational statement that embodies this commitment, and reflects the ideals we seek to uphold.*

Most of TU’s international efforts to this point have been focused on research partnerships and student mobility. TU’s study abroad office has a good reputation nationally and even more so locally. The total rate of participation is average compared to national rates, however rates of minority participation are higher. Other international experiences and initiatives on campus are very decentralized with little support from campus administration.
However, in recent years, TU has explicitly acknowledged the importance of strengthening and expanding its international programming. The university-wide strategic plans, the 2020 Initiative, and the 2012 International Advisory Committee report issued by a faculty committee appointed by the Provost, all highlight the importance of international engagement. A major recommendation of the 2012 International Advisory Committee report is the need for a strong centralized office to develop a robust international agenda for The University. In 2014 the office handling international matters on behalf of the university was reconstituted as Global Affairs and a Vice Provost & Associate Chancellor for Global Affairs was appointed to lead the office in September, 2015.

An essential of the Global Affairs office is that every student has an “international experience” before they graduate. Currently, the Global Affairs office is developing a Strategic Plan which includes defining what constitutes an international experience and expanding the menu and accessibility of international experiences for students, staff, and faculty.

For the reasons outlined above The University is an ideal choice as the setting for this study about participation in international experiences. For one, it has a well-established global affairs department that offers a variety of choices for students to participate in international experiences. Also, The University does not have the requirement that some universities have in which all students are mandated to participate in study abroad or some other form of international experience (which would remove the choice for students). Likewise, there is not a long-standing tradition of full student body participation in international experiences. However, there is an objective in its current strategic plan to increase the number of students that participate in international experiences, including both abroad and at home. This makes this institution an ideal university for this study because it provides a diverse array of options for international experiences, is beginning to build a culture within its faculty and staff of encouraging students to participate, has a goal to increase participation in international experiences abroad and at home, but still allows students to have a choice in their level of participation.

Another advantage of conducting the study at The University is that it is where I am employed. Although this creates ethical considerations that will be addressed later in this chapter, it also provides several advantages. First, it allowed me access to the student population. My relationships with staff across the university were vital in distributing the survey to a wide sample of students. First-hand knowledge of the international experiences that the university offers and the culture of the campus were also major benefits in both designing the survey and in analysing the results.
3.6 Data Collection

The survey was built and housed in Google forms since it allowed for confidential access to students, data collection and storage features, and easy dissemination. A link to the survey was emailed to faculty and academic advisors at The University with details on why and how this study was being conducted and instructions for students on how they could participate. A notification of approval from the university’s Internal Review Board, as well as details about confidentiality, anonymity, voluntary participation, and the reason for the study were all included in the survey. The faculty and advisors emailed a link and instructions to the survey to their respective students asking for volunteers to participate.

The survey was open during the last academic quarter (spring) and one summer session of 2015 (approximately two months’ total). The end of the academic year was chosen as the time frame in order to give students the full academic year to participate in experiences. The survey was kept open until the end of the first summer session in order to provide students ample time to complete the survey. It was expected that the survey would take students approximately 10 to 15 minutes to complete, which is consistent with the recommendation of Newby (2014) to keep questionnaires short.

The Participants

The sample for this study included a total of 422 undergraduate students and was conducted randomly. According to Vogt, Gardner, and Haefele (2012, p. 122), “the chief reason to conduct a random sample is to eliminate bias.” This is done by making the sample representative of the population being studied. Since one of the aims of this study was to understand the influence on participation of various student characteristics, such as gender, field of study, race, and economic status, a primary goal was to gather a sample that represented the university’s student population in all of these categories. Ideally, the survey would have been sent out in an email directly to the entire student body in order to achieve this sample, but approval for this was not granted from The University’s Office of Registrar. However, the survey was approved by the campus’ Institutional Review Board allowing me to self-disperse the survey to students.

Agreement was made with the director of the University Writing Program (UWP) to send the survey to students in UWP courses in the spring quarter and the first summer session in 2015. UWP courses were a suitable conduit for dispersing the survey because they are courses that every student, regardless of their field of study, needs to take before they graduate. This allowed for a simple random sample to be gathered that represented a cross-section of the student population since all students, regardless of field of study or personal demographics, are represented in these courses. Sixty-eight faculty members were
emailed the survey to send to their 95 sections of classes; each section had approximately 25 students. All four colleges within the university (Biological Sciences, Engineering, Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, and Letters and Sciences) also agreed to send the survey out to their students through their academic advisors. Through these two avenues of dispersion there was the possibility of the survey reaching every undergraduate student. As can be seen in Table 3.1, a representative sample was obtained in every category except for gender.

Table 3.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>% of Survey respondents</th>
<th>% of TU undergraduates</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex/Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial aid status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not file for aid</td>
<td>23%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filed for aid</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>77%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Major (field of study)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEM</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>59%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities, Arts, and Cultural Studies</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/don't know</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race/ethnicity</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial Minority</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>31%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Country of residence: USA</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>93%</td>
<td>93%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.7 Data Analysis

The data resulting from the surveys was analysed in order to determine which of the independent variables significantly influenced student participation in international experiences. Descriptive statistics, cross tabulations, and logistic regression models were generated using SPSS statistical software program.
Descriptive statistics for the dependent variables are shown first. Three dependent variables are used in the study. Two of the dependent variables are “abroad experiences” and “at home experiences.” The other dependent variable is “any international experience” which indicates if a student participated in any of the abroad or at home experiences offered.

The variable “abroad experiences” indicates if a student participated in any one of:

(a) Study abroad
(b) Internship abroad
(c) Volunteer or community service abroad

The variable “at home experiences” indicates if a student participated in any one of:

(a) Domestic internship with a company that has global offices or connections
(b) Language courses not required by your major
(c) International Education Week event
(d) Internationally focused major or minor
(e) Internationally themed student organization or club
(f) Partners in Acquiring Language (PAL) program
(g) Global Ambassadors
(h) International and Domestic Student Retreat
(i) International Buddy Program
(j) Other

The descriptive statistics for the independent variables is shown next with the number of respondents from each demographic category and their corresponding percentage of the total surveyed population. For the remaining independent variables, the minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviations are presented. Cross tabulation statistics were also conducted to examine how each demographic independent variable was individually related with each dependent variable.

For the crux of the analysis, eleven logistic regression models were created to identify significant predictors of participation in international experiences. Logistic regression was an appropriate choice as an analysis method given that the dependent variables are dichotomous (0 = did not participate, 1 = did participate) (Field, 2013). Since all of the independent variables have shown some form of influence on student participation in other academic studies, all of the models used forced entry method for logistic regression. For the first three models, independent variables that are respectively associated with the first three research questions were entered with a dependent variable of international experiences. The
remaining models have either abroad experiences or international experiences at home as the dependent variable. They are designed as paired models to address research question four which examines the differences and similarities in the factors that influence participation in abroad and at home experiences.

As discussed by Lomax and Hahs-Vaughn (2013), the odds ratios, beta values, and significance for each of the independent variables in the regression models were used for the analysis. Hosmer-Lemeshow, Cox and Snell, and model chi square are also presented for each model to show evidence of good model fit and prediction reliability.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

According to Newby (2014), ethical issues need to be considered throughout the entire research process. Before and during the research process I referred to the British Educational Research Association’s (1992) Ethical Guidelines for Educational Research. Approval for the survey was gained through the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at The University which reviewed the ethical implications of my study. Furthermore, my academic supervisors at The University of Bath also reviewed the methods, literature review, and research question pertaining to the survey and were consulted throughout the research process.

The survey questionnaire included a voluntary informed consent form that provided participants with a written description of my research aims and procedures. It also notified them that their consent was voluntary and that they could quit the survey at any time. Although I could not promise complete confidentiality, efforts were made to limit use or disclosure of personal information to people who have a need to review this information. Organizations that have approval to inspect and copy participants’ information include The University IRB and other University of Bath representatives responsible for the management or oversight of this study. Anonymity was offered to participants but most chose to provide their email as a way for me to contact them if they won the $100 gift card raffle that was offered. Participants were notified that their email would be utilized for payment purposes only and would not be used for any other purpose without their permission.

Participants were given my contact information and they were offered to contact me with any questions, concerns, or complaints. IRB’s contact information was also given. Participants could contact IRB for any of the following reasons:

- Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the research team.
- You cannot reach the research team.
• You want to talk to someone besides the research team.
• You have questions about your rights as a research subject.
• You want to get information or provide input about this research.

A further issue that needed consideration was the potential risks to participants in this study. They were disclosing some personal information that might cause some emotional tension, such as whether or not they qualify for financial aid and their parents’ educational attainment level. However, none of the questions go beyond the level of minimal risk and confidentiality was maintained in these regards. Data collected from the survey was stored on my personal computer with password protection and was not released to other parties.

I also needed to consider my dual role as an employee in the Study Abroad office at The University and as a researcher working with students and staff at The University. Throughout the process, I explained in writing that any participation by both parties was strictly voluntary and was being reviewed by the Study Abroad office. Because there are other departments’ programs listed in the survey, I will also need to be diligent about presenting my findings in a way that respects the work that they do.

3.9 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study
Due to the scope of this research project caution is advised in making any generalizations based on the conclusions of this study. The following limitations and delimitations should be noted: (a) Data was collected from one university, and only from those students that chose to participate in the study. (b) Data for the study comes from self-reported responses from participants. Although, it is assumed that participants gave accurate and honest answers to the survey questions, there is no reliable way to verify answers. (c) Responses were limited to the key factors that have shown relevance in the literature. It can easily be argued that there is a vast number of other variables (relationship status, high school attended, number of generations since immigration to the US, etc.) that are not included in this study that might be associated with participation in international experiences. Further research would be warranted to explore these variables, but since I was opening up research in a new area (at home international experiences), factors that have been previously identified in literature as being associated with participation in higher education were chosen as a more suitable option. Due to this, this research design will not be identifying any new factors in the broad area of international experience participation. (d) This study was limited to the time-frame of only one school year. (e) International experiences are just one form of experience that students can engage in while at a university. Other experiences might include recreational sports, community service, or tutoring, among others. Although this study can provide insight into the factors that are influencing participation in these non-international experiences, it is not a substitute for
researching them directly. (f) The bias of the researcher may produce potential limitations on interpretation of the data.

3.10 Conclusion to Research Methodology

This chapter described the method in which this study was conducted. In order to determine how habitus, cost-benefit analysis, and the context of the student within the university influence participation in study abroad and other international experiences a survey questionnaire was created based on Perna’s (2006) integrated model of student choice. The on-line survey was dispersed to the undergraduate student population at one university via campus staff and faculty. Finally, it was discussed that descriptive statistics and logistic regression were used to analyse the data using SPSS software. In Chapter 4, the data collected from the survey will be presented in the form of general demographic data as well as in the form of results from eleven logistic regression models that relate to each of the four research questions. Chapter 5 will then discuss the findings from the data and present conclusions, implications, and recommendations for further research.
Chapter 4: Findings

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to identify factors that influence student participation in international experiences. As noted in previous chapters, research has been conducted on only one of the many forms of international experiences in which students can participate - study abroad. The current study sought to identify the factors that lead to participation in other forms of internationally focused experiences and compare them to those influencing study abroad participation. Presented in this chapter are the results from this study. Data gathered from 422 participants’ answers to a questionnaire survey were used to answer the following research questions:

1. How is participation in international experiences influenced by rational cost-benefit analysis?
2. How is participation in international experiences influenced by habitus?
3. How is participation in international experiences influenced by students’ context within the university?
4. How do the factors that influence participation in international experiences at home compare or contrast to those that influence participation in international experiences abroad?

As Vogt, et al. (2012) recommends, descriptive statistics will first be presented, including the demographics of the participants as well as the participation rate for each variable. The chapter will then proceed to report the results from the logistic regression models. One logistic model was constructed for each of the first three research questions and four models were constructed for the final question.

4.2 Descriptive analysis

The following sections will present the descriptive data analysed in the study. The descriptive statistics for the dependent variables will be presented first. The descriptive data for independent variables will follow, including demographic characteristics of the surveyed population.

4.2.1 Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this study consisted of thirteen international experiences in which participants indicated their participation on the questionnaire. Table 4.1 provides a full list of the thirteen experiences, situated within one of the two categories (abroad and at home) used in the data analysis, and the amount of students that participated in each experience. Sixty percent of the students indicated that they had participated in some form of experience. Thirty-three percent of the students reported participation in an experience abroad. According to the records of The University’s Study Abroad Office, twenty-one
percent of 2014 graduating undergraduate population participated in a credit-granting activity abroad, which is significantly less than the participation rate reported in this study. The possible reason for this is the definition of the experiences. The university only counts experiences in which students are granted university course credits. This study’s survey allowed students to self-report any study, internship, or volunteer abroad experience with no restriction that the experience had to be credit-granting.

Forty-nine percent of the students indicated participation in an international experience at home. In regards to participation in at home international experiences, there are no official records kept at The University; or even unofficial records for some of the experiences. Attendance is not taken at a good portion of these experiences and no known study exists that asks students to identify their participation.

Table 4.1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent variables</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Any International Experience</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any International Experience Abroad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Study Abroad</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internship Abroad</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Volunteer or community service abroad</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Any International Experience At Home</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Domestic internship with a company that has global offices or connections</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language courses not required by your major</td>
<td>140</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Education Week event</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationally focused major or minor</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationally themed student organization or club</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partners in Acquiring Language (PAL) program</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Ambassadors</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International and Domestic Student Retreat</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International Buddy Program</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.2 Independent Variables

The data gathered from the independent variables is presented in two ways. First, the demographic characteristics of the survey participants will be described. Also, the range of scores for the Likert scale based variables will be presented along with their means and standard deviations.

Demographic Variable Data

In this study, seventy-five percent of the 422 respondents self-identified as female. There was also a high percentage of students that reported that they qualify for governmental financial aid for their academic needs (seventy-three percent), and that they had travelled abroad before matriculation at The University (seventy-six percent). Table 4.2 provides further data on the demographic characteristics of the surveyed population.

Table 4.2

*Survey Respondents Individual Background Characteristics*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex/Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Financial aid status</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not file for aid</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filed for aid</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Major (field of study)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biological Science</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agricultural Science</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental Science</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Science</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities, Arts, and Cultural Studies</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Math and Physical Sciences</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other/don’t know</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Race/ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/ethnicity</th>
<th>Count 1</th>
<th>Count 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiracial</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>165</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black or African-American</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic or Latinx</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Travel outside of the country before attending The University

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Travel outside of the country before attending The University</th>
<th>Count 1</th>
<th>Count 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have not travelled outside of the country</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have travelled outside of the country</td>
<td>321</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Country of residence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country of residence</th>
<th>Count 1</th>
<th>Count 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside of USA</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Father's highest level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest level of education</th>
<th>Count 1</th>
<th>Count 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended university but did not finish</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two year or technical college</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate university degree</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate university degree</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Mother's level of education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest level of education</th>
<th>Count 1</th>
<th>Count 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended university but did not finish</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two year or technical college</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate university degree</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate university degree</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Year in School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Freshman</th>
<th>Sophomore</th>
<th>Junior</th>
<th>Senior</th>
<th>Fifth Year Senior</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>167</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In order to suitably analyse the data in the subsequent sub-chapters some of the demographic data sub-categories shown above were combined.

Due to the low sample size of some of the race sub-categories, all of the race variables besides “White” and “Asian-Pacific Islander” were combined to create one “Racial Minority” variable. There were two reasons for allotting the variables in this manner. First, research suggests that students that identify as a racial minority on campus are less likely to participate in study abroad due to multiple factors including the feeling of already being immersed in a new cross-cultural experience while on campus. Whites and Asian-Americans are both highly represented on The University’s campus and all other races are significantly a minority population. Secondly, research by NAFSA (2016) shows that both White and Asian-American representation in study abroad is at least proportional to their representation in universities; conversely, other minority groups are similar to each other in that they see a decline in their representation in study abroad compared to their representation in the overall student body.

All science, technology, engineering, and math majors were combined into one variable: STEM. These fields of study are commonly classified and discussed as one entity in both the general higher education community and at TU specifically, as well as in previous research on study abroad participation.

In regards to year in school, Senior and fifth year Senior were combined. A majority of students at TU will finish in four years, but I found it necessary to add the fifth year senior category to the survey in order to avoid confusion for those particular students. However, the university classifies these students as “seniors”, and for the purpose of analysis there is no need to separate seniors and fifth year seniors since they are both culminating classifications.

One “parents’ education” variable was created by averaging the level of education of the participants’ father and mother.
Variables with scaled responses

According to Creswell (2013), the analysis of scaled variables “should indicate the means, standard deviations, and range of scores for these variables” (p. 163). Table 4.3 shows the minimum, maximum, mean, and standard deviation of all the independent variables that utilized scaled responses. Table 4.3 also presents the value of Cronbach’s α for the variables that were constructed from multiple survey questions. Cronbach’s α indicates the overall reliability of a scale. According to Field (2013), α scores in the region .7 to .8 will indicate good reliability. All of the scales created for this study have α scores that meet this criteria of reliability.

Table 4.3

Descriptive statistics for scaled independent variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>α</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of cultural courses or workshops attended at TU</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4.3152</td>
<td>3.2464</td>
<td>0.762</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of diverse interactions while at TU</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7.8033</td>
<td>2.5026</td>
<td>0.741</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of TU influence on intellectual, personal, and career development</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>16.4313</td>
<td>2.5058</td>
<td>0.766</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Importance of international experiences to student’s goals</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11.7962</td>
<td>2.5101</td>
<td>0.858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of encouragement from family and friends to participate in international experiences</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7.2393</td>
<td>1.9304</td>
<td>0.701</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of encouragement from campus staff to participate in international experiences</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.5758</td>
<td>1.0212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of openness to diversity</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>17.1445</td>
<td>2.5937</td>
<td>0.842</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The scale of “Number of Cultural Courses or Workshops Attended at TU” included three items. It asked students to state the amount of times that they have (1) taken a course at TU with a focus on diversity, (2) taken a course at TU with a focus on equality and/or social justice, and (3) participated in a cultural training course. The responses ranged from 0 to 12 with an indication that the average student participates in 4 to 5 of these sessions.
The “Frequency of Diverse Interactions” scale included questions about the participants’ frequency of having conversations relating to diversity and making friends with students from other cultures while at TU. Participants could respond on a scale of Very Often, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, and Never. The data indicates that the average student “sometimes” has a diverse interaction with another student on campus.

The remaining scales’ response possibilities included Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, and Strongly Disagree.

The “Amount of TU Influence on Intellectual, Personal, and Career Development” scale included responses to questions that asked students to state their agreement that interactions with TU staff, faculty, and students has influenced their development, helped them see connections between their career and how it affects society, and helped them connect course content with real life experiences. The scale indicates that the average student agrees to strongly agree that TU has had an influence on these facets.

“Level of Importance to Student Goals” included three items in which students could state the extent to which they believe that engaging in international experiences is important to their academic, career, and personal goals. The mean score indicates that the average student agrees that engaging in international experiences is important to their goals.

The results of the scale, “Amount of Encouragement from Family and Friends”, with a mean answer of agree, and the item, “Amount of Encouragement from Campus Staff to Participate in International Experiences” with a mean answer between neutral and agree, indicate that the students tend to feel that they get more encouragement from family and friends than from campus staff.

The “Level of Openness to Diversity” scale included four items. The scores from the scale indicate that the students tend to strongly agree that they enjoy meeting, talking with, and learning about people different than them, as well as taking courses that challenge their beliefs.

4.3 Cross Tabulations

Cross tabulation statistics were conducted for the rate of participation of each demographic independent variable and are displayed in Table 4.4. This included the percentage of students from each demographic category that participated in any international experience, an international experience at home, and an abroad experience.
Table 4.4

Rate of Participation by Demographic Variable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Any experience</th>
<th>At Home Experience</th>
<th>Abroad Experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All respondents</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex/Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial aid status</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not file for aid</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filed for aid</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>29%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major (field of study)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STEM</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities, Arts, and Cultural Studies</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Sciences</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race/ethnicity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian or Pacific Islander</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Racial Minority</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>62%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel outside of the country before attending UCD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have not travelled outside of the country</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have travelled outside of the country</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>51%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents’ level of education</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>46%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attended university but did not finish</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two year or technical college</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undergraduate university degree</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>49%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postgraduate university degree</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Of the total population surveyed, sixty percent of the students have participated in some form of international experience. Students participated in international experiences at home at a higher rate (49%)
than foreign experiences (33%). Females are participating at a higher rate than males in all experiences. Students that are studying in the STEM fields are participating in abroad experiences at a higher rate than other fields of study but at a lower rate in at home experiences. White students are participating at a higher rate than racial minorities and students of Asian background in abroad experiences but not in at home international experiences, and only at minimally higher rate for any international experience. Those that have travelled previously and those that did not file for financial aid participated at a greater rate in both abroad and at home international experiences. There was very little difference in participation rates between the varying levels of parents’ education level.

4.4 Logistic regression analysis

In order to answer the research questions, eleven logistic regression models were created. Based on Hosmer et al.’s (Hosmer, Lemeshow, and Sturdivant, 2013) principles on the number of parameters that should be included in a logistic regression model, it was decided to run smaller models that addressed each of the research questions rather than entering all variables at once into one large model. They state that, “the model contain no more than $p + 1 \leq \min(n_1, n_0)/10$ parameters” (Hosmer, et al., 2013, p. 408). The least frequent outcome in my survey data is 137 participants. $137/10 = 13$. Therefore 13-14 is the recommended maximum number of independent variable parameters to be used in a logistic regression model with this data.

Previous research indicates that all of the predictor variables used in this study play a significant role in participation. Due to this, the independent variables, displayed in Table 4.5, were entered into each of the models using the forced entry (also known as simultaneous) method. Lomax and Hahs-Vaughn (2013, p. 726) argue that, “this method of model building is usually used when the researcher does not hypothesize that some predictors are more important than others”. According to Field (2013, p. 322), “Some researchers believe that this method is the only appropriate method for theory testing because stepwise techniques are influenced by random variation in the data and so seldom give replicable results if the model is retested”.

Models 1-3

The dependent variable for the first three models was “participation in an international education experience” (1 = yes, 0 = no). The independent variables for each of these models related to research questions one, two, and three, respectively. The variables for these three models are presented in Table 4.5.
Models 4-11

These models were designed to address research question four, which considered the differences and similarities in the factors that influence participation in abroad and at home international experiences. They were designed as a set of two comparable models. One model with the independent variable “participation in abroad experiences,” and one with the dependent variable “participation in international experiences at home.”

Models 4 and 5 used the set of independent variables from model 1. Models 6-7, and 8-9 likewise used the set of independent variables from those used in models 2 and 3 respectively. For the final two final models, independent variables that were found to be significant in models 4-9 were entered.

4.4.1 Assumptions of Logistic Regression

The three assumptions of logistic regression (Lomax and Hahs-Vaughn, 2013) were considered. The assumptions of collinearity and independence of errors were tested. The assumption of linearity was not applicable due to the lack of any continuous variables.
Collinearity

Multicollinearity was tested in SPSS by running the collinearity diagnostic statistics option in a linear regression model with all independent variables. Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) for each variable were tested. All variables had a Tolerance value above .1 and a VIF value less than 10, thus indicating no issues of multicollinearity between independent variables (Field, 2013).

Linearity

According to Lomax and Hahs-Vaughn (2013), an assumption of logistic regression is that there is linearity between any continuous independent variables and the logit of the dependent variable. In this study all of the scaled variables had discrete values; therefore, the assumption of linearity was satisfied.

Independence of Errors

An assumption of logistic regression is that the same probability of a dichotomous outcome is maintained across the range of predictor variables (Peng, Lee, and Ingersoll., 2002). According to Peng et al. (2002, p.9), “the binomial assumption may be taken to be robust as long as the sample is random; thus, observations are independent from each other”. The sample in this study was accumulated randomly. Independence was assessed by evaluating the impact of outliers and influential cases on the logistic regression model. Outliers and influential cases were classified as having a standardized residual value greater than 3 and a Cook’s distance value greater than 1.0 (Field, 2013; Lomax and Hahs-Vaughn, 2013). Any outliers that were identified were removed from the model and a second regression analysis was run without the outliers. For the regression models that omitted outliers, the classification accuracy was less than two percent more accurate than the logistic regression models that included all cases. Thus, the binomial assumption of logistic regression was met and the original regression models were maintained for further analysis.

Good Model Fit

Good model fit was evidenced by non-statistically significant results on the Hosmer-Lemeshow tests. For well-fitting models, the Hosmer-Lemeshow goodness-of-fit test statistic should be greater than .05. Since that was achieved for all models, the null hypothesis that there is no variance between observed and model-predicted values cannot be rejected implying that the models’ estimates satisfactorily fit the data (Burns and Burns, 2008).

Likewise, measures of Cox and Snell, and Nagelkerke indicated a moderate relationship between prediction and grouping. For each model, the test of the full model against a constant only model was
statistically significant, indicating that the predictors, as a set, reliably distinguished between participation and non-participation. Consistently, the logistic regression models accurately predicted a greater percentage of the students in our sample compared to the constant only models. These results suggest that the predictors, as a set, reliably distinguished between students who participated versus those who did not.

4.4.2 Results of Logistic Regression Models

Based on the suggestions from Peng, et al. (2002), Field (2013), and Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn (2013) on how to report logistic regression results, the beta values, significance values, odds ratios, and goodness-of-fit statistics will be reported for each regression model.

Model 1: How is participation in international experiences influenced by rational cost-benefit analysis?

The first logistic regression model examines indicators of influence from rational analysis. Two independent variables, financial aid status and the importance of international experiences to students’ goals, were fitted into the regression with participation in any international experience (yes, no) as the dependent variable. Whether or not a student filed for financial aid represents the economic capital of the students and signifies the ability for a student to pay for program costs. The importance of international experiences to a student’s goals represents the expected benefits of investing in participation.

Results of this logistic regression model are shown in Table 4.6. Only the importance that students place on international experiences was shown to be a significant indicator of participation. The odds ratio for the importance of international experiences to students’ goals suggests that for every one-point increase in the importance to their goals, the odds are about one and a third times greater for participation. However, the influence of applying for financial aid showed no significance.

Table 4.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logistic Regression Analysis Model 1 Predicting Participation in International Experiences</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-2.55**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial aid status (no aid=1, received aid=0)</td>
<td>-0.358</td>
<td>0.699</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Importance of international experiences to student’s goals</td>
<td>0.275**</td>
<td>1.316</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosmer & Lemeshow ($X^2=7.81, df=8, p=.452$); Cox & Snell ($R^2=.102$); Nagelkerke ($R^2=.137$)
Model $X^2 = 42.26, p < .01$.

$n = 422, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01$
Model 2: How is participation in international experiences influenced by habitus?

The second logistic regression model examined how the indicators of habitus influence participation in international experiences. Seven independent variables were utilized to represent habitus: previous international travel, gender, race, the average education level of the student’s parents, the amount of encouragement from family and friends to participate in international experiences, openness to diversity, and financial aid status. The dependent variable was participation in any international experience (yes, no). Table 4.7 displays the results for this logistic regression model.

The only predictors that showed to be significant were the level of encouragement that family and friends gave to students to participate in international experiences and the student’s level of openness to diversity. The odds ratio for the level of encouragement from family and friends to participate in international experiences suggests that for every one-point increase in the level of encouragement, the odds are 1.22 greater for participation. The amount that a student is open to diversity also shows significance. For every one-point increase in the level of their openness, the odds are a 1.18 greater that they will participate in an international experience.

Table 4.7
Logistic Regression Analysis Model 2 Predicting Participation in International Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-3.805**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have not travelled outside of the country</td>
<td>-0.411</td>
<td>0.663</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender: Male=1, Female=0</td>
<td>-0.142</td>
<td>0.868</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race: Racial Minority=1, White=0</td>
<td>-0.019</td>
<td>0.981</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Race: Asian=1, White=0</td>
<td>0.086</td>
<td>1.089</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents average level of education</td>
<td>0.080</td>
<td>1.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of encouragement from family and friends to participate</td>
<td>0.200**</td>
<td>1.221</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of openness to diversity</td>
<td>0.163**</td>
<td>1.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial aid status (no aid=1, received aid=0)</td>
<td>-0.267</td>
<td>0.766</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosmer & Lemeshow ($X^2=9.60$, $df=8$, $p=.295$); Cox & Snell ($R^2=.119$); Nagelkerke ($R^2=.161$)

Model $X^2 = 53.47$, $p < .01$.

$n = 422$. one *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$
Model 3: How is participation in international experiences influenced by students’ context within the university?

The third logistic regression model tested the influence of factors related to the students’ context within the university on the dependent variable of participation in any international experience (yes, no). The following independent variables were used: major/field of study, year in school, amount of encouragement from campus, number of culture courses and workshops taken at TU, the amount of diverse interactions occurring at TU, and the amount of perceived intellectual, personal, and career development occurring for the student due to interactions at TU. Table 4.8 displays the results for this logistic regression model.

Table 4.8

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logistic Regression Analysis Model 3 Predicting Participation in International Experiences</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Odds Ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-3.805**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Humanities=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>0.231</td>
<td>1.260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Social Sciences=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>1.161</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Other/no major=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>0.503</td>
<td>1.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year in school</td>
<td>0.112</td>
<td>1.118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of encouragement from campus staff to participate</td>
<td>0.108</td>
<td>1.114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of cultural courses taken at TU</td>
<td>0.102**</td>
<td>1.107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of diverse interactions at TU</td>
<td>0.019</td>
<td>1.019</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of TU influence on intellectual, personal, and career development</td>
<td>0.164**</td>
<td>1.178</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosmer & Lemeshow ($X^2=3.51, df=8, p=.898$); Cox & Snell ($R^2=.096$); Nagelkerke ($R^2=.129$)

Model $X^2=42.42, p < .01$.

$n = 422$. one *$p < 0.05$, **$p < 0.01$

Two predictors were shown to be significant. The odds ratio for the amount of cultural courses and workshops taken on campus suggests that for every one course or workshop taken, the odds are 1.11 greater for participation in international experiences. The amount of influence that the campus has on the
intellectual, personal, and career development of the students also significantly influenced participation. Students in this study were 1.18 times more likely to participate in an international experience with every increase in their agreement that campus influenced their development.

Models 4-11: How do the factors that influence participation in international experiences at home compare or contrast to those that influence participation in international experiences abroad?

The following logistic regression models will be presented in paired groups with each paired model using one group of predictor variables. One model within each pair has a dependent variable of participation in an abroad experience (yes, no), and one model has a dependent variable of participation in an international experience at home. A comparison of the significant factors appearing in each model within a group will allow for an analysis of similarities and contrasts of abroad and at home international experience influencers.

Models 4-5: Rational Cost-Benefit Analysis

Table 4.9

Logistic Regression Analysis Models 4 and 5
Predicting Participation in Abroad and At home Experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Abroad</th>
<th></th>
<th>At home</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Odds</td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Odds</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-3.622</td>
<td>2.358</td>
<td>-2.358</td>
<td>0.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial aid status (no aid=1, received aid=0)</td>
<td>-0.593*</td>
<td>0.553</td>
<td>-0.361</td>
<td>0.697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of Importance of international experiences to student’s goals</td>
<td>0.274**</td>
<td>1.315</td>
<td>0.217**</td>
<td>1.242</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosmer & Lemeshow (X²=5.84, df=7, p=.559); Cox & Snell (R²=.092); Nagelkerke (R²=.129)
Model X² = 40.96, p < .01.

Hosmer & Lemeshow (X²=11.58, df=11, p=.71); Cox & Snell (R²=.070); Nagelkerke (R²=.193)
Model X² = 30.46, p < .01.

n = 422. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01

Table 4.9 displays the results of models 4 and 5. For abroad experiences, both variables were shown to be significant. The odds that financial aid applicants participated in abroad experiences are about half that of students that did not apply for financial aid. The odds ratio for the importance of international experiences to students’ goals suggests that for every one-point increase in the importance to their goals,
the odds are about one and a third greater for participation. Thus, both the ability to pay for an abroad experience and the perceived benefit influence the decision to study abroad.

Unlike abroad experiences, a student’s financial status was not a significant influencer on participation in at home international experiences. Only the importance to goals was shown to be significant. The odds ratio for the importance of international experiences to students’ goals suggests that for every one-point increase in the importance to their goals, the odds are about one and a quarter greater for participation.

**Models 6-7: Habitus model**

Table 4.10 shows the results for logistic regression models 6 and 7. For abroad experiences, the predictors that were shown to be significant were previous travel experience, the level of encouragement that family and friends gave to students to participate in international experiences, and the student’s level

![](image.png)
Students who have previously travelled outside of the country were more likely to participate in abroad experiences than those who have not had previous foreign travel experience. The odds of a student with no foreign travel experience to participate in an abroad program are .54 that of students who have previously travelled abroad. The odds ratio for the level of encouragement from family and friends to participate in international experiences suggests that for every one-point increase in the level of encouragement, the odds are a little less than one and a quarter greater for participation. The amount that a student is open to diversity also shows a positive significance. For every one-point increase in the level of their openness to diversity, the odds are a 1.12 greater that they will participate in an international experience.

The variables that predicted participation in international experiences at home were similar to those that predicted abroad participation. Both the level of encouragement that family and friends gave to students to participate and the student’s level of openness to diversity were predictors that showed significant. The odds ratio for the level of encouragement from family and friends to participate in international experiences suggests that for every one-point increase in the level of encouragement, the odds are 1.14 greater for participation. For every one-point increase in the level of their openness, the odds are a 1.17 greater that they will participate in an international experience. Unlike abroad participation, previous travel was not a significant factor for at home participation. All other factors were also not significant.

Models 8-9: University context model

Table 4.11 displays the scores for logistic regression models 8 and 9. The predictors in the study abroad model that were shown to be significant influencers on participation were the students’ field of study (major), their year in school (class), the amount of encouragement that they received from campus to participate in international experiences, and the amount of influence that TU had on their intellectual, personal, and career development. Contrary to other research on study abroad participation, students who major in Social Science or Humanities were less likely than Science, Engineering and Math majors (STEM) to participate in abroad experiences. The odds of a Humanities student to participate in an abroad program are .44 that of students in the STEM fields of study. And, the odds of a Social Sciences student participating in an abroad experience are .51 that of STEM students. Not surprisingly, the longer a student is in school the greater their chance is of participating. The odds ratio for the student’s year in school suggests that for every additional year in school, the odds are a little less than one and a third greater for participation. The amount of encouragement that students receive from campus to participate in international experiences also impacts their participation. For every one-point increase in the level of encouragement, the odds are close to one and a half times greater that they will participate in an international experience. The amount of influence that TU has on a student’s development also showed a
positive influence. With every one level of increase of perceived influence, a student is 1.18 times more likely to participate in an abroad experience.

Table 4.11

*Logistic Regression Analysis Models 8 and 9*

*Predicting Participation in Abroad and At home Experiences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Abroad</th>
<th>At home</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>Odds Ratio</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-4.958</td>
<td>-3.115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Humanities=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>-.814*</td>
<td>0.443</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Social Sciences=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>-.670*</td>
<td>0.511</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Other/no major=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>0.589</td>
<td>1.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year in school</td>
<td>.241*</td>
<td>1.272</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of encouragement from campus staff to participate</td>
<td>.360**</td>
<td>1.434</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of cultural courses taken at TU</td>
<td>0.055</td>
<td>1.057</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency of diverse interactions at TU</td>
<td>-.063</td>
<td>0.939</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of TU Influence on intellectual, personal, and career development</td>
<td>.161**</td>
<td>1.175</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosmer & Lemeshow (X2=4.71, df=8, p=.789); Cox & Snell (R2=.087); Nagelkerke (R2=.122)

Model X2 = 38.587, \( p < .01 \)

Hosmer & Lemeshow (X2=5.55, df=8, p=.698); Cox & Snell (R2=.106); Nagelkerke (R2=.141)

Model X2 = 47.290, \( p < .01 \)

\( n = 422. \) *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01

The predictors that were shown to be significant influencers of participation in experiences at home contrasted sharply with those of abroad participation. The influence of a student’s field of study on participation in experiences at home was the opposite of the results of abroad experiences. Students who were STEM majors were less likely to participate in international experiences at home than those who study in the Humanities or Social Sciences fields. The odds of a Humanities student to participate in an international experience at home are more than two times that of STEM majors, and the odds of a Social Sciences student participating in an at home experience are 1.7 that of STEM majors. Another variable that was significantly associated with participation in experiences at home is the amount of cultural
courses and workshops taken on campus. The odds ratio for this predictor suggests that for every one course taken the odds are 1.13 greater for participation.

_Models 10-11: Variables of significance models_

All of the variables that showed significance in at least one of the previous models were entered into the last two models: one with abroad experiences as the independent variable and one model with at home international experiences. This will allow for a more robust analysis of how all of these variables retain or lose their influence when controlled by the other influential variables. The results of these models are displayed in Table 4.12. As a reminder, all of variables discussed in this section showed significance in earlier smaller models. However, several of these variables did not continue to hold significance when put into models that included other factors that also showed initial significance. This suggests that these factors should be considered for analysis with the understanding that their influence can be explained through further contextual variables

The amount of importance to their future goals that students place on international experiences was shown to be significant to participation in both abroad and at home experiences. For every point increase in their view of importance, the odds are a 1.20 greater that they will participate in an abroad international experience and 1.14 greater that they will participate in an international experience at home.

Whether or not a student filed for financial aid was a significant predictor for abroad experiences with those students that file for aid being only .57 likely to participate. However, financial status was not a significant factor for participation in international experiences at home.

The results for travel experience were similar. Those students with no previous foreign travel experience were .50 times less likely to participate in an abroad experience, but travel experience held no significance for participation in international experiences at home.

The amount of encouragement from family and friends, encouragement from campus, and the level of openness to diversity, and the amount of TU Influence on intellectual, personal, and career development all showed no significance in both the at home and abroad participation models.

A students’ field of study was shown to be significant for both abroad and at home participation but in opposite ways. The odds that Humanities and Social Science students will participate in an abroad experience are, respectively, .48 and .63 times less than STEM majors. Conversely, the odds are 2.16 and 1.91 greater that Humanities and Social Science students will participate in an international experience at home.
The amount of cultural courses taken appears to have significance in one form of experience but not the other. Every extra cultural course taken at TU significantly increases the likelihood of participation in an at home international experience by 1.14 but does not hold significance on abroad participation.

Table 4.12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logistic Regression Analysis Models 10 and 11</th>
<th>Predicting Participation in Abroad and At home Experiences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Abroad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>-5.827</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Humanities=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>-0.810*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Social Sciences=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>-0.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Major: Other/no major=1, STEM=0</td>
<td>0.802</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Year in school</td>
<td>0.297**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of encouragement from campus staff to participate</td>
<td>0.209</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of importance to goals</td>
<td>0.183**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Filed for financial aid</td>
<td>-0.555*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have not travelled outside of the country</td>
<td>-0.702*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of encouragement from family and friends to participate</td>
<td>0.106</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of openness to diversity</td>
<td>-0.004</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amount of TU Influence on intellectual, personal, and career development</td>
<td>0.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of cultural courses taken at TU</td>
<td>0.039</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hosmer & Lemeshow (X2=11.55, df=8, p=.172); Cox & Snell (R2=.153); Nagelkerke (R2=.214)

Model X2 = 70.136, p < .01.

N = 422. *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01
A student’s year in school showed significance in regards to participation in abroad experience, with an odds ratio of 1.38, but not so for at home experiences. The predictor variable of a student’s year in school was not entered into the model representing participation in international experiences at home. A model was tested with the inclusion of this variable, but the Hosmer-Lemeshow test was less than .05 indicating that it was not a well-fitting model. With this variable removed, the Hosmer-Lemeshow test was .319, indicating an acceptable fit.

4.5 Summary of findings

The results from eleven logistic regression models predicting student participation in international experiences were summarized in this chapter. The independent variables that were statistically significant as predictors of participation in at least one model were:

1) The level of importance of international experiences to student’s goals - the more importance that a student placed on international experiences in relation to their goals, the more likely the student was to participate in an international experience; both abroad and at home;

2) The level of encouragement from family and friends to participate - the more encouragement that a student received from family and friends to participate in international experiences, the more likely the student was to participate in an international experience; both abroad and at home;

3) The level of a student’s openness to diversity - the more that a student was open to diverse thoughts and personal interactions, the more likely the student was to participate in an international experience; both abroad and at home;

4) The number of cultural courses taken at TU - as the number of culturally themed courses and workshops that a student engaged in increased, the more likely the student was to participate in an international experience at home but not an abroad experience;

5) Amount of TU influence on intellectual, personal, and career development - the more that a student believed that TU has had a positive influence on their development, the more likely the student was to participate in an abroad experience, but not an at home international experience;

6) Financial aid status - students’ financial status had a significant association with participation in an abroad experience, but not for at home international experiences;

7) Field of study – students that major in Humanities and Social Sciences fields were less likely than STEM majors to participate in an abroad experience, but more likely to participate in an at home international experience;

8) Year in school - the longer that a student was enrolled at the university, the more likely the student was to participate in an abroad experience, but not an at home international experience;
9) The level of encouragement from campus staff to participate - the more encouragement that a student received from campus staff to participate in international experiences, the more likely the student was to participate in an abroad experience, but not an at home international experience;

10) Previous travel outside of the country - students that had travelled outside of the US before enrolling at the university were more likely to participate in an abroad experience, but not in an international experience at home.

Only four variables showed no significance in any of the eleven models:

1) The frequency of diverse interactions at TU
2) Gender of the student
3) Race of the student
4) The average level of education of the student’s parents

Even though the findings indicated that there was no influence from many of the demographic factors including gender, race, and parents’ education, the significant predictors suggest that participation in international experiences is influenced by a combination of factors related to a student’s context within the university, an individual’s background characteristics, financial costs, and perceived benefits.

Given that many of the predictor variables were significant for one type of experience and not for the other, or showed a contrasting direction of influential effect between the two types of experiences, an analysis of the differences between the results of each model may provide the most insight from this data. This analysis will be discussed in detail in Chapter Five.
Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Overview

The preceding study set out to establish an understanding of the factors that influence participation in international experiences at higher education institutions. It was constructed through a review of relevant research and theories related to study abroad in an effort to uncover possible factors that influence participation in at home international experiences in relation to those that influence participation in international experiences abroad. A review of literature about participation in higher education experiences shows that very few studies have been conducted on participation in at home international experiences. However, there is robust research already present in the area of participation in study abroad and higher education choice processes. These studies on participation in study abroad and the choice process students go through in determining university attendance indicate that a myriad of factors influence students’ decisions. These factors include a student’s social and cultural capital, the university context, the cost involved in participation, and the perceived benefits of participation. Due to a lack of research in the area of participation in at home international experiences, these factors that have been identified as influential to undergraduate university students’ participation in other areas were utilized as factors of examination in this study. This study contributes to the academic literature on student participation by examining the influential factors of participation in international experiences at home, and by viewing these factors in relation to those that influence participation in study abroad. By examining these two forms of experiences together, the findings from this study create opportunities to (a) bring insight into the current literature on study abroad participation by viewing the participation factors of study abroad in relation to a similar yet significantly different type of experience; (b) identify factors that are associated with participation in international educational experiences at home; (c) develop an understanding of factors influencing engagement in campus based experiences, which is a previously lightly explored area; and (d) assess whether or not access to and interest in the broad scope of international experiences is limited to the small group of students identified in study abroad literature (white, high SES, female, liberal arts students).

In order to identify the factors that most significantly influence participation in international experiences at home and abroad, cross tabulations and logistic regression analyses were conducted. All variables identified in the literature, besides the level of education of the student’s parents appeared to be relevant in the cross tabulations. However, the factors that were shown to be the most significant indicators of participation in both at home and abroad experiences were (1) the importance that students place on international experiences in relation to their academic, career, and personal goals; (2) the cost of the
experience in relation to a student’s financial support; (3) the students’ field of study; and (4) the types of previous international and cross-cultural experiences that a student has had. These factors support models of participation proposed by Perna (2006) and Salisbury et al. (2009) in that the monetary cost of participation, the factors signifying the influence of habitus, and the context of a student’s association to the university all showed some form of relation to participation.

The following chapter will discuss how the results of the cross tabulation statistics and logistic regression models answer the research questions in relation to the hypotheses. The analyzation of the findings will be interpreted through reflection back to the literature review in Chapter 2. The first three sections of this chapter will discuss the results of the participation in relation to the following concepts: (1) rational cost-benefit analysis; (2) the influence of the students’ habitus on their decisions; and (3) the context of the students’ association with the university including the field of study, engagement on campus, and relationship with university staff. The fourth section will discuss the important differences and similarities in factors that influence abroad and at home international experiences, highlighting the importance of students’ financial status, field of study, and participation in other cultural experiences in determining participation in the two different experiences. Since there is a good deal of interplay between these concepts in how they influence participation, the discussion of each specific research question will be followed by a more general discussion of how all these concepts link and interact to influence the participation of a student. This portion of the discussion will include a theoretical concept model that ties these areas together to explain this phenomenon. This chapter will conclude by presenting the limitations of the study, implications resulting from the study, recommended practical applications and potential areas of future research.

5.2 Research question one (RQ1): How is participation in international experiences influenced by rational cost-benefit analysis?

According to Perna (2006, p.106), “rational models of human capital investment assume that individuals decide to invest in additional education based on a comparison of the expected lifetime benefits with the expected costs (Becker, 1962, 1993; Ellwood and Kane, 2000; Paulsen, 2001).” Previous research on study abroad participation supports this assumption in that factors such as the cost of participation, a student’s financial status, and the student’s perception of the expected benefits have all shown to be influential. Based upon this, the null hypothesis for research question one was that students’ financial status as well as the importance they place on participating in international experiences in relation to their future goals would both be non-significant factors in this study. However, the analysis of the findings of
this study showed significant influence from these variables; thus the null hypothesis for research question one can be rejected.

When looking at the descriptive statistics and cross tabulations there were no surprises with the two variables. As was expected, students that filed for financial aid assistance participated in both at home and abroad experiences at a lower rate. There was also a trend for increased participation rates as the importance of international experiences to students’ goals increased. However, the logistic regression models show varying results that need examining. The importance of these experiences to students’ goals remained a strong indicator of participation throughout all models. However, a student’s financial status was significant for the abroad model but not for the at home or all-experiences models. In order to provide clarity to the up-coming discussion about the influence of cost, it should be noted that at the university involved in this study most abroad experiences will carry an additional cost to the student of several thousand dollars (if nothing else, the flight from the nearest airport to any other country is expensive) that is sometimes not covered by financial aid packages, but the international experiences at home have little to no extra financial costs for the students.

The level of the importance that international experiences are to students’ goals was a significant factor for both abroad and at home international experiences. This is an indicator of rational investment in educational experiences that are perceived by the student to increase their human capital. These findings were congruent with the literature on rational choice, human capital, and individual investment decisions, since it shows that the perception the students have of the benefits of these experiences influences their decisions. This is similar to Burn, Carlson, Useem, & Yachimowicz (1990), who found that the expectation that studying abroad would be a benefit to their academic and career goals motivated US students to participate. This was also congruent with Relyea, et al. (2008), whose study argues that the likelihood of a student to engage in study abroad is higher when there is a perceived benefit to their career, even when controlled for risk propensity, age, gender, and language skills.

The analysis of the data on the outcome of all international experiences shows that participation is significantly influenced by the analysis of benefits but not by the burden of costs. Initially, this seems to partially support the null hypothesis that participation in international experiences is not significantly influenced by cost-benefit analysis. However, when at home and abroad experiences are analysed as individual outcomes there is an indication that the financial cost of the experience and a student’s financial status are significant. For the abroad experiences, congruent with other literature on study abroad participation (Desoff, 2006; Souto-Otero, et al., 2013), financial aid status was a significant influencing factor. However, for participation in international experiences at home, a student’s financial
status was not a significant factor. This suggests that there is an association between the amount of financial cost of the experience, a student’s financial status, and participation. Another possible explanation for the lower rate of participation in abroad experiences for students from a lower financial status is that they tend to have other perceived costs, besides just direct fees, associated with participation. Walpole’s (2003) research showed that students from low socio-economic status backgrounds tend to study and participate on campus less than their high-SES peers, which is due in part to more time spent working and a desire to not leave their family. This was supported by the descriptive statistics that showed students from low income status participating in both abroad and at home experiences less than their peers. However, in the logistic regression models, a student’s financial status had a significant association on participation in international experiences abroad but not at home. This suggests that the at home experiences create less of these non-monetary forms of costs for students since they are typically more accessible to busy students due to their (assumed) closer proximity to home and shorter length of time commitment compared to abroad experiences.

An interesting finding from this study is the inverse of the expected influence of a student’s field of study. Literature on participation in study abroad by Salisbury, et al. (2009), and Stroud (2010) showed that although STEM students have a desire to participate, they are less likely to participate than students in the Social Science and Humanities fields. It is suggested by NAFSA (2008) and Burn, et al., (1990) that this is in large part due to the strict and demanding structure of the course requirements for the majors in the STEM fields. However, in this study, students in STEM fields were more likely to study abroad and less likely to participate in at home international experiences than Social Science and Humanities students. A possible explanation for this is the availability of study abroad courses and experiences at TU that meet the graduation requirements for these fields of study. In recent years, TU has emphasized the creation of study abroad programs that specifically include required courses and internships for STEM majors. Conversely, courses that meet major specific requirements for other fields of study are more limited abroad than they are on campus. Students from these fields that study abroad may use their study abroad courses to create an optional minor or meet general education requirements, but these requirements can be less strict than major requirements, not mandatory for graduation, and have dozens of options available through on-campus courses. Thus, study abroad could conceivably be perceived as a more worthwhile investment for STEM students since the courses offered will more likely fulfil their specific graduation requirements. If it is the case that students are choosing whether to study abroad or not based on whether that experience will meet graduation requirements, it would be another sign that the students’ decisions are being influenced by their perception of the benefits of investing in this educational experience.
This significance association of perceived academic benefits, costs, and a student’s financial status signifies that students are utilizing a cost-benefit analysis to make decisions about participation in international experiences; and that the perceived benefits and costs of the outcome are both influencing the decision, thus indicating that students are taking a rational approach to their decision to participate in international experiences both at home and abroad. However, as will be discussed next, there is also evidence that their perceptions of what is considered a cost and a benefit is shaped by the student’s habitus and situated context.

5.3 Research question two (RQ2): How is participation in international experiences influenced by habitus?

Habitus is described as individuals’ perceptions about available opportunities, and their pre-dispositions to pursue those opportunities (Walpole, 2003). “A habitus emerges in concrete social systems—a family, a firm, an artistic subculture, a socioeconomic class, a political organization, or a society” (Pickel, 2005, p. 439). The conceptualization of habitus theorizes that, due to having mutual experiences and interactions, people from the same social systems develop similar patterns of expectations, thoughts, actions, feelings, and goals (Pickel, 2005; Walpole, 2003). Therefore, it would be expected that if habitus is influencing students’ participation in international experiences, the social systems in which the respondents are members, as well as indicators of social and cultural capital accrued through these systems, would show as significant factors in the analysed data of this study. As such, the null hypothesis for research question two is that there will be no significant influence on participation in international experiences from variables related to membership in social systems or that are indicators of symbolic capital.

Reports from the Institute of International Education (IIE, 2015) support the notion of the influence of social systems on participation. IIE’s data shows that there is differing participation rates for study abroad based on students’ race, gender, field of study, and socio-economic status (which includes the variables of financial status and parent’s education level). In regards to the findings of the cross-tabulations in this study, the data showed very little unexpected participation rates in regards to these specific social systems. White and Asian/Pacific Islander students participated in international experiences at greater rates than the racial minority students at TU, which is congruent with the literature. The same can be said for gender, with females participating at higher rates than males in both abroad and at home international experiences. Also, as expected, those students that did not file for financial aid participated at a greater rate than students that need financial aid to pay for their studies.
Congruent with the research by Portes (1998) who indicated that individuals attain social capital through their relationships within their social networks, many of the symbolic capital variables analysed in this study showed significance. The more encouragement that a student received from family and friends, the more likely they were to participate in international experiences. An increase in a student’s level of openness to diversity, as well as their participation in like experiences such as travel and cultural workshops, were also shown to positively influence participation. Similarly, the amount of TU’s influence on intellectual, personal, and career development had a significant impact on their decisions.

Since the logistic regression models indicate a significant influence of social and cultural capital variables and the cross tabulations showed a difference in participation rates based on demographic variables, evidence of the influence of habitus is present and the null hypothesis can be rejected. The following section will discuss how these variables indicate the presence of habitus as an influencer of participation in international experiences.

5.3.1 Demographic Characteristics

The reported statistics from IIE Open Doors (2015) in regards to race and gender show a divide in the participation rates of these groups. These statistics clearly show that ethnic minorities and males tend to study abroad at a lower rate than their counterparts. And research on study abroad participation by Brux and Fry (2009) also supports this notion. The data collected in this study showed similar, yet interesting results. First of all, the logistic regression models in this study showed no significant influence from race and gender on participation. This initially suggests that the demographics are not as important as previous research indicates, but there were contradictory findings in the cross tabulations for these variables that signify that these variables need further exploration. The cross tabulations for this study show similar divides in study abroad participation as those reported in IIE’s data; however, there are differing results for the at home international experiences. Although males participated at a lower rate than females in both abroad and at home experiences, it is interesting to see that the gap between the genders for at home experiences (6%) is lower than the gap for abroad experiences (11%). This possibly indicates that the gap in study abroad participation between the genders has more to do with the experience of going abroad than it does with an interest in having an internationally focused education experience. In regards to race, the gap in participation rates does not just narrow when looking at abroad and then at home experiences; it actually reverses. The cross tabulations showed that racial minorities on this campus participated in abroad experiences at a lower rate than their peers, as would be expected based on the literature. But for international experiences at home, racial minority students actually participated at a slightly higher rate.
What these statistics imply is that there are underlying factors influencing the participation rates of these students that need to be considered.

**Race**

In regards to race, Andrew Gordon, president and founder of the Diversity Abroad Network, raises an interesting thought on this. He believes that minority students at universities may not care about the cultural immersion benefit in experiences abroad since just going to a university may be an “extreme cultural experience” on its own (cited in Fischer, 2015). Brux and Fry (2009) cite family responsibilities, family disapproval, work responsibilities, safety concerns, and fears of racism as barriers to participation for minority students. These factors might explain why minority students participated at a lower rate than their counterparts in abroad experiences but at a slightly higher rate in at home experiences. It suggests that minority students have an equal amount of interest in international experiences (in the broad sense) but their perceptions of the risks involved in abroad experiences are higher than students from the majority race.

**Gender**

> My study abroad students [there] were heavily female, and I think that there may be an impression that young men get when they’re at a co-ed university or college that that’s a female thing to do.
> – David Clapp, Director of the Office of International Students and Off-Campus Study at Wabash College (cited in Redden, 2008)

In regards to gender, a higher rate of participation by females in international experiences is consistent with participation in higher education in general. According to Buchmann and DiPrete (2006), several factors are theorised to have an influence on the somewhat recent creation of the gap in higher educational aspirations between the genders. Recent changes in attitudes about gender roles, family resources, labour markets, educational institution factors, and a faster developing standard-of-living and insurance-against-poverty return on university degrees for women than men all contribute to the rising gender gap in higher education enrolment and attainment. This notion that females are setting higher goals than their male peers and then utilizing the university experience, and other experiences within the university setting, as a way to reach those goals has stark similarities to Bourdeau’s (1973) perspective of social capital attainment as a means of social advancement. Buchmann and DiPrete’s (2006) work, along with the findings in this study that goals are a significant factor in participation is indicative that women are participating in international experiences at a greater rate because they are viewing international experiences as essential social capital. So, the relevance of the findings in this study is that it shows evidence of differing social constructs around participation that females and males are developing. Other
studies have shown other forms of evidence of the manifestation of these social constructs in regards to
study abroad participation. Redden (2008) discussed that females tend to prefer study abroad over
traveling on their own more so than males because of the structured and safe environment that is
provided. Redden (2008) also noted the thirty age factor and having kids presses females to travel sooner
than males. Although these are indicative of rational cost-benefit analysis, they also indicate how these
two social groups have developed differing perceptions of the risks, benefits, and feelings of participation
being an appropriate fit. According to Dumais (2002), this difference in genders’ participation in cultural
events and activities at school begins as early as the eighth grade and that the perception of these activities
as being a “right fit” for male and female is already different at this early age suggesting a strong
association between participation and habitus. According to Lucas (2009), universities contribute to
males’ feelings of study abroad as a wrong fit through the messaging that they convey about the costs and
benefits of the experience. The messaging of study abroad as a safe and structured experience in which
students can learn about other cultures is less congruent with males’ motivating dispositions, specifically
their adherence to traditional notions of masculinity (thrill-seeking, active play, experimentation, and
independence). Lucas also found that the strongest motivating factor for males were major and career
benefits. These factors are often only sparsely mentioned in study abroad marketing in comparison to
cultural learning, which is not thought of as essential to male students. Lucas also notes that males find
more value in messaging that comes from male peers, but in my experience in study abroad offices, most
peer advisors are typically female. Similarly, the amount of structure in study abroad programs tends to
be a better fit for female dispositions. Lucas states that male students tend to have more concerns about
too much structure than female students, and in my experience as a study abroad practitioner, study
abroad programs are becoming more rigid in their itineraries, free of high risk activities, and are creating
more laborious enrolment processes.

5.3.2 Socio-Economic Status

Dumais (2002) states that a student’s socio-economic status (SES) also influences their perceptions of and
participation in cultural experiences in school at an early age. According to Walpole (2003), it should not
be assumed that SES is determined by a student’s income level alone. It also encompasses their parents’
level of education. Walpole (2003) suggests that a student from a low SES background would have a
habitus that would lead to lower educational aspirations and predispositions, due to a lack of emphasis
placed on education by their parents. According to Walpole (2003, p.48), “parental expectations and
definitions of success vary with social status and mediate student aspirations.” Thus, it would be
expected that these students would use differing educational strategies and patterns of investment than
students from high SES backgrounds. Also, Betts (1996) found that low-income students had larger
errors of estimation of the benefits of college than their counterparts. It would be expected then that the low-income students would participate at lower rates due to a lack of perceived benefits. This study adds weight to these arguments. The lower income students participated in both abroad and at home international experiences at lower rates and a significant factor for that was the importance that students place on these experiences.

Another possible explanation for the lower rate of participation in abroad experiences for students from lower financial status is that these experiences tend to have other costs, besides just direct monetary fees, associated with participation. Walpole’s (2003) research showed that students from low socio-economic status backgrounds tend to study and participate on campus less than their high-SES peers due in part to more time spent working and a desire to not leave their family. This indicates possible differences in habitus for these social structures in the way in which education decisions are influenced by the amount of value that a student places on time spent with family, time spent at work versus education, and the addition of non-graduation requirement activities to their educational experience.

The one variable that seems to have little or no bearing on participation rates is the education level of the parents. This is interesting since previous research has identified parental educational attainment as a strong indirect measure of cultural and social capital in that parents that have attended university are able to pass on knowledge, advice, and opinions of risks and rewards in regards to the available opportunities (Salisbury, 2009). But for this study, it suggests that other factors are more influential and that a parent’s education level is not as much of an indicator of social capital in regards to international experience as would be expected. This suggests that students, or their parents, are developing their perceptions of these experiences in other forms. For one, other indicators of symbolic capital were found to be significant influencers of participation. The level of encouragement from campus staff, previous travel experience, and involvement in other cultural activities suggest that students are picking up cues about international experiences from friends, campus staff, and their lived experiences. Secondly, the level of encouragement from family and friends was also shown to be a significant influencing factor. This shows that parents do influence a student’s educational decisions even if in this case it does not correlate with their education level. An explanation for why a parent’s education level is not impacting the value that is placed on international experiences, might come from the geographic and demographic context of this particular study. According to the Migration Policy Institute, in 2014 forty-nine percent of children under the age eighteen in the state in which The University is located had at least one immigrant parent. Therefore, a large portion of the respondents in this study may have parents that have an international background and family that lives abroad. This lived international experience might have a greater impact on shaping a student’s parent’s perception of international experiences than their education qualifications.
5.3.3 Other experiences

The results of this study also suggest that international travel and participation in other cultural experiences is associated with participation in similar university based international experiences, an association that is based in the student’s habitus. For one, previous foreign travel experience was a significant factor in study abroad participation. According to Goldstein and Kim (2006, p. 511), “the relationship between travel experience and participation in study abroad remains unclear due to largely inconsistent empirical findings on this topic.” Their study on predictors of participation in study abroad, as well as that of Carlson, Burn, Useem, and Yachimowicz (1990), showed no association between previous travel and participation. Yet, Opper’s (1990) study found that travel experience was associated with study abroad participation. Other research by Hembroff & Rusz (1993) complicates matters by showing an inverse correlation with students’ participation and previous travel (Goldstein and Kim, 2005). The findings from this study show that students with previous foreign travel experience were more likely to participate in an abroad experience, but travel experience held no significance for participation in at home experiences when controlled with other variables. Secondly, participation in international experiences at home was associated with the amount of diversity workshops and classes that a student had on campus, while abroad experiences showed no significant association with this variable.

When thinking about this in connection with the significant association of openness to diversity with at home experiences it is clear that a student’s willingness, fondness, and value in making a connection with other ideas and cultures is connected with their participation in international experiences. It suggests that students that are already perceiving interactions with other cultures as positive are more likely to seek out other cross-cultural experiences; as the concept of habitus suggests, these students are predisposed to seeing international experiences as a benefit. But it also suggests, as does the findings on foreign travel, that the type of international experience that a student is drawn to is consistent with their participation in like experiences. Since the data suggests that previous foreign travel is positively associated with participation in abroad experiences and cross-cultural workshops and courses at a university are positively associated with participation in international experiences at home, both indicate the following: that as students gain experiences that expose them to new cultures, diverse ideas, and opportunities, they become increasingly interested in further pursuing similar experiences; that travel experiences lead to more travel experiences; and that on-campus culture experiences lead to more on-campus cultural experiences. This suggests that a familiarity with a type of experience leads to the student feeling more comfortable with it as well as having a better understanding of the benefits and opportunities associated with it. This can be viewed in Bourdieun terms as “a feel for the game”; students that understand the issues, logistics, dynamics, enjoyments, and learning that comes from a type of activity are more likely to participate because they are comfortable in that field. But caution needs to be used in looking at the data in this
fashion. It is also possible that this is not a cause-and-effect situation, but rather a sign that certain students are seeking out or are drawn to multiple experiences that fit their preconceived perception of a valuable experience. Thought of in this light, these findings create an argument that students have a predisposition to what they value in an international experience that manifests in participation in like experiences that meets those values; for instance, participants in study abroad experiences have already developed a predisposition that foreign travel is a valued experience before their first trip abroad; hence they are inclined to participate in opportunities abroad when available.

5.3.4 Concluding statement on the influence of habitus

*People from the same social class often have common perceptions of goals and strategies for attaining the social profits they desire, identified as a person’s habitus.*

- Walpole, 2003, p. 49

The findings of this study show multiple indicators of the influence of habitus on students’ participation, or non-participation, in international experiences. The cross-tabulation statistics indicate that there are disparities in the rates of participation in international experiences based on students’ race, gender, and economic status. These statistics support the notion that the various social systems in which students are members have a role in influencing their decisions to participate in educational opportunities, which include international experiences. But it is also noteworthy that most of these demographic variables lose their influential significance when they are controlled for other factors such as the level of importance placed on the experience, influence from others to participate, their openness to diverse experiences, and their participation in other experiences. Other literature on study abroad participation has identified factors such as fear, the value of time for other experiences and relationships, and the definition of success as ones that shape the perception of the costs and benefits of participation. These factors show how predispositions to participate in international experiences are formed and used through a student’s habitus which is shaped by the student’s life experiences.

5.4 Research question three (RQ3): How is participation in international experiences influenced by students’ context within the university?

In Perna’s (2006) model of Student College Choice, layer two is the context of the school and community in which the student is situated. The assumption of this model is that the context of the students within the school and community environment will influence the decisions that they make in regards to their education related experiences. It has been shown in other research that the university can influence the students’ behaviours through encouragement and support from campus staff (Stroud, 2010). Stroud (2010) also discussed that the students’ field of study, their academic goals, and the amount of
engagement that students have in the university experience all correlate with study abroad participation. The null hypothesis in this study is that participation in international experiences is not significantly influenced by a student’s context within the university, meaning that these forms of factors will not be significantly influential in students’ participation. As will be discussed further, the findings in this study did show a significant influence from the students’ field of study, as well as the amount of encouragement that they receive from campus staff, the number of diversity-related workshops and courses taken at the university, and the amount of perceived influence that the university had on the student’s intellectual, personal, and career development. Due to the presence of a significant association from these variables, the null hypothesis for this question can be rejected. This section will further discuss how these findings relate to participation in international experiences.

One of the most interesting findings in this study is that although the student’s field of study was a significant factor as expected, the correlations with participation in abroad experiences was the inverse of what was expected. Research and common conjecture in the study abroad field theorize that students that major within the fields of science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM) study abroad at a lower rate than students in the social sciences, in part due to time constraints and graduation requirements. Goldstein and Kim (2006) and Dessoff (2006) argue that students that do not study abroad have concerns about finishing their major requirements and those in STEM fields find it difficult to take the time to study abroad due to the inflexibility in their graduation requirements.

However, in this study, studying in the STEM fields actually had a positive association with participation in abroad experiences. Conversely, STEM students were less likely to participate in at home international experiences than Social Science and Humanities students; both of which participated at a rate close to sixty percent. Possible explanations for these varying rates of participation might be based on the campus dynamics at TU. First of all, the variable of level of encouragement from staff to participate showed a positive association with participation in international experiences. This indicates that campus staff at this institution are encouraging participation in international experiences. Through that encouragement, are campus staff also directing students to one form of experience or the other?

Another possible explanation for the differences in participation rates between the fields of study is the availability and accessibility of the different types of experiences that TU provides. There has been recent notable efforts at this university to increase the amount of study abroad options that specifically include courses that meet graduation requirements for STEM majors. There has also been targeted marketing efforts directed at these students in order to make them aware of these new options. For example, I have observed the Engineering Department talking to students during their on-campus
orientation about the engineering courses available to students through studying abroad and encouraging them to participate. Therefore, it is possible that TU is unique in the rate that students majoring in the STEM fields participate due to the steps that TU has taken to reduce some of the barriers for these students that previous research has identified (for example, such barriers are anxiety over an increased time to degree if they participate, a lack of knowledge about program options and support to pursue those options). This supports Salisbury’s (2009) and Souto-Otero, et al’s. (2013) findings that lower study abroad participation rates for STEM students is not necessarily from a lack of interest in the experience but instead is hindered by an inability to find a program that meets their wants and needs. Similarly, none of the at home experiences that are offered at TU fulfil any of the graduation requirements for STEM students. Thus, STEM students might not view these experiences to be worthwhile because the perceived benefit of participation is not worth the cost of time away from time-sensitive academic requirements. As discussed in the previous section about habitus, this difference between the majors in their perception of the benefit of participating in international experiences at home can be seen as a product of the habitus of these different social systems.

Habitus was also shown to be present in two other variables that associate students’ time on campus with participation in at home international experiences. One of these predictor variables is the other cultural and international activities that they have participated in while at the university. The variable of diversity related courses and workshops taken on campus was shown to be significantly associated with participation in at home international experiences. Also cross-tabulation statistics showed that students that studied abroad were more likely to participate in an international experience at home than students that did not study abroad (and likewise, students that participated in a domestic experience were more likely to study abroad). However, for several reasons, caution should be used in making an assumption that these cultural workshops and similar types of experiences directly cause participation in international experiences. For one, since the survey did not allow students to note the date of participation in each experience, it is possible that a good portion of the students that were surveyed participated in diversity workshops or study abroad after participating in an at home international experience. Research shows that an outcome of engaging in international experiences is increased global-mindedness, including a greater interest in world affairs (Clark et al., 2009), so it is possible that the participation in an international experience increased the students’ perceptions of the benefit of cultural experiences and thus influenced their decision to participate in a cultural workshop. Secondly, as discussed in the previous section, participation or non-participation in these similar types of experiences could be an indication of a student’s predisposition to engage in cross-cultural experiences that was formed before enrolment in the university.
Another variable that showed a significant association with participation in international experiences was the amount of perceived influence that the university had on the student’s intellectual, personal, and career development. This is described by Salisbury et al. (2009) as being an indicator of a student’s accrual of human, social, and cultural capital through their interactions with campus staff, students, events, and curriculum. The significance of this variable suggests that a university can have an impact on a student’s habitus by providing information that modifies their perceptions about the costs and benefits of participating in experiences related to their education.

5.4.1 Concluding statement on the influence of the student’s context within the university

The results of this study indicate that the university can have multiple forms of influence on student participation in international experiences. First, multiple factors that indicate the accrual of social, cultural, and human capital showed a positive association with participation. The positive association of participation in international experiences with the level of encouragement from campus staff and faculty, the amount of perceived influence that the university had on the student’s intellectual, personal, and career development, and the amount diversity related courses and workshops taken on campus, indicates that the personal interactions and education that students have at the university can influence their perceptions that an international experience is a worthwhile and accessible opportunity. Secondly, the findings indicate that the university can have a positive influence on participation by creating better access and benefits to the students to participate. Students from the STEM fields of study appear to be more willing and able to participate in abroad experiences when these opportunities fulfill graduation requirements and are explained and promoted as accessible to them.

5.5 Research question four (RQ4): How do the factors that influence participation in international experiences at home compare or contrast to those that influence participation in international experiences abroad?

In reviewing the literature referencing student engagement in general on-campus experiences and participation in study abroad, similarities in the factors that influence both of these outcomes becomes apparent. Gender, socio-economic status, support from family and campus staff, students’ academic goals, and parents’ education level all have been found to show some form of influence on participation in study abroad and engagement on campus. It could be predicted then that the factors that influence participation in at home international experiences would also show similarities to the factors that influence abroad experiences. The results of this study suggest that the factors influencing participation in international experiences at home are similar to those of abroad experiences, however a closer look
reveals several contrasts. These similarities and contrasts provided an opportunity for a thorough analysis of how habitus, rational analysis, and the university context influence participation outcomes.

The examination of the cross tabulation statistics showed that for gender and economic status the participation rates were similar between the two forms of experiences; females and students that do not receive financial aid participated at a higher rate in both experiences. However, for the variable of race, participation in at home experiences was different than participation in abroad experiences. The rate of participation between the three racial categories was fairly equivalent for at home experiences, yet minority students participated less in abroad experiences.

Table 5.1 displays the variables that were shown to be significant in the final logistic regression models. Examining the results of the cross tabulations and the factors identified in the logistic regression models that influence these two different experiences provided interesting insight into student participation in both at home and abroad international experiences by allowing for a more robust examination of the context of each factor. For example, the finding that a student’s financial situation is significantly associated with participation in abroad experiences but not at home experiences indicates that there is something about the context of the experience itself that is important (i.e. cost, travel) that goes beyond just the idea that it is international in nature. As Bourdieu suggests, outcomes are not only influenced by the background of the individual but also the context of the current field in which they interact.

As stated above, the different demographic variables also appear to show differences in how habitus shapes their perceptions of the outcomes. Males participate less than females in both categories. This is indicative that there is something important in the way that each gender perceives the act of participating in educational experiences in general, or in the perception that they have of international experiences specifically. Also, racial-minority students appear to value the benefits of participating in international education as much as their peers but have differing perceptions of abroad experiences specifically.

The influence of habitus is also evident in the association between participation in specific international education experiences and participation in other like experiences. The findings that show previous foreign travel being associated with abroad experiences and on-campus cultural experiences being associated with at home international experiences highlights how students’ habitus and the resources available to them set a penchant for that student to participate in one form of experience over another.
There were also curious differences in the two types of experiences in relation to a student’s field of study. The findings in this study show that STEM majors are less likely than Social Science and Humanities majors to participate in international experiences at home. Taken in conjunction with other research that shows lower participation by STEM majors in study abroad, this might support arguments that students in STEM fields are not as inherently interested in international experiences as other students. But the findings in this study show that STEM majors at this university are more likely to participate in an abroad experience. This suggests that the lower participation rates by STEM students evidenced in other studies might have more to do with the context of the universities studied, including the accessibility of appropriate opportunities, the students’ knowledge of those opportunities, and the support received from campus for students to pursue those opportunities. Considering that the factor, importance of international experiences to a student’s goals, was significantly associated with participation in both abroad and at home international experiences when controlled by field of study, it is evident that students in the STEM fields are no different from their peers in their perception of the benefits of participating in international experiences.

Although there were some variances in which specific variables were shown as significant influencers in the two different experiences, the overarching concepts of habitus, rational choice, and university context were all shown to be influential in the outcome of both abroad and at home international experiences. Thus, seeing the influencers of these two like but differing outcomes side by side provides a greater depth of understanding of how the habitus of an individual interplays with the context of the educational field and experience to shape the rational analysis a student uses to decide on a specific outcome.
5.6 Interrelation of habitus, rational cost-benefit analysis, and institutional context

According to Salisbury (2009), many sociologists have argued that students’ educational choices are made in individual contexts, based on the student’s habitus which is shaped by their home and school environments. Other researchers have viewed decision making as being a form of rationality in which the actions of individuals are decided on in a conscious thought process that calculates the costs and benefits of every choice (Satz and Ferejohn, 1994; Coleman, 1990; Goldthorpe, 2007). The results of this study showed indications that students’ decisions were rational in nature but influenced by habitus and their relational context with the university. Although demographic variables, such as race and gender, showed gaps in participation rates between their sub-groups, regression models showed that they are only one piece of many contexts that influence decisions. The logistic regression models, that controlled demographic variables with variables that indicate the presence of habitus, cost-benefit analysis, and the context of the student in relation to the university, showed no significant influence from race and gender. However, variables such as the influence of family, friends and campus staff, the importance placed on international experiences, resources available to the student, the student’s field of study, and participation in other experiences were shown to have a significant association with participation in the logistic regression models. What this shows is that although a students’ demographic identities are an important factor to consider, it is more important to understand the underlying factors of those identities as well as the students’ past and current social structures to fully grasp how their perceptions of the costs and benefits of participation in international experiences are formed.

These findings support the arguments of other researchers that view the concepts of habitus and rational action as not being in opposition of each other but instead as two parts of the same system. According to Scott (2000), rational choice theory explains that individuals choose a course of action based upon the information that they have available about the conditions and constraints of that action. Similarly, in defence of the argument that the concept of habitus is too constraining and deterministic, Griffin, et al. (2012, p. 97) argue that “individuals can choose to engage in a wide range of behaviours, but choices are constrained and viewed as more or less probable on the basis of perceptions of what is most appropriate given personal history, the history of one’s family, and the history of those who share the same class standing (Bourdieu, 1990; Reay, 2004)”. What these authors are suggesting is that rationality is subjective and based on an individual’s habitus. It is an individual’s habitus that influences which course of action they deem to be rational.

The key idea that has been exploited in this connection is that of subjective, as opposed to objective, rationality: that is, the idea that actors may hold beliefs, and in turn pursue courses of action, for which
they have ‘good reasons’ in the circumstances in which they find themselves (Goldthorpe, 2007, cited by Glaesser and Cooper, 2013, p. 4). Glaesser and Cooper (2013) and Perna (2006) further argue that the concept of habitus does not omit the weighing of options and does not contradict theories of rationality; instead, it predicates and expands them. It sets the boundaries and perceptions of what the rational options and outcomes might be for an individual (Mills, 2008). This study found similar results to Glaesser and Cooper (2013) in that influential factors of participation in international experiences emerged from indicators of both habitus and rational choice. However, based on the results of this study, and the collection of literature reviewed in this paper, my conclusions about the role that habitus plays in influencing rational analysis differs from these authors. I argue that the role of habitus should not be seen only as setting the boundaries for what students think are possible or rational outcomes, but instead as an influencer of how each individual factor, (e.g., finances, time, and goals) is conceptualized and used in the analysis. To begin with, I argue that habitus sets the perception of whether a factor is seen as either a cost or as a benefit. Using as an example the time that would be spent away from family by participating in an international experience, students’ habiti shape their perception of whether this time away is actually a cost to them or a benefit. Furthermore, habitus also sets the perception of the amount of weight or emphasis that each perceived cost and benefit has in the student’s analysis. This will be further explained in the following conceptual model developed from this study.

5.7 Model of subjective rational analysis of participation in educational experiences

Figure 5.1 displays the theoretical construct of how outcomes related to participation in education experiences are influenced by the connection between a student’s habitus, the resources available to the student, the situated and relational context of the student within the university, and a rational cost-benefit analysis. The centre of the model displays a rational analysis in which costs and benefits are weighed against each other leading to an outcome of participation or non-participation. At the top of the model is a student’s habitus which affects how individual factors are perceived and weighed. Habitus is shown as being grounded in a student’s background, but then being continuously shaped and influenced by both the resources available to the student as well as the context of the field in which the student is making decisions.

At the centre of the model is a rational approach design that is analogous to a balance scale in which the accumulation of perceived costs of participation are weighed against the accumulation of perceived
benefits to determine the outcome of participation or non-participation. In this study, it was found that the financial cost of the experience, articulation to academic requirements, the amount of diverse or cross-cultural emphasis of the experience, and the relation of the experience to personal, academic and career goals were all factors that students perceived as either a cost or benefit to participation. Other studies have shown that there are other factors in which their perception as a cost or benefit influence participation; factors such as how participation in the experience affects time away from work or family, being placed in a high-risk, new, or uncomfortable environment, and the amount of structure of the experience have all shown to be critical.

At the top of the model, based on the influence of the university, the resources that are available to a student, and other societal factors, habitus is seen as ever-changing. As was discussed in this study, individuals’ habitus are built up historically through both their background characteristics and the context
of their past situations. For example, influence of family and friends, social constructs based on race and gender, participation in academic and social experiences, and the resources available to the student all contribute to construction of an individual’s habitus.

Perna (2006) suggests that choices are indirectly affected by social, economic, and policy changes. Although Perna’s focus is on changes that occur at a fairly local level this raises a question that was not addressed in this study of if and how global events influence a student’s perceptions of factors associated with participation in international experiences. Do events such as terrorism, acts of nature, political changes, and rhetoric about cultural “others” influence the perception that students have of the cost or benefit associated with factors such as traveling, meeting people from other cultures, learning new languages, etc.?

This study also suggests that the habitus of a student at a university is also being influenced by the social structures on the campus, including interactions with university staff, faculty, and classmates, as well as changing campus cultures and resources. A factor that unexpectedly showed no significance in any of the data models for either at home or abroad experiences is the level of education of the students’ parents. Pascarella, Pierson, Wolniak, and Terenzini (2004) note that first-generation college students tend to be at a distinct disadvantage in many areas compared to their peers, which leads to a decreased rate of persistence and graduation. Not only do these students tend to have a reduced basic knowledge about postsecondary education (e.g., costs and application process) and lower educational degree expectations and plans, they also have more social, cultural, and academic transition issues. So, it would be expected that students that have parents with lower levels of education attainment would lack the knowledge, resources, confidence, and expectations to identify and engage in international experiences. However, this study suggests that first generation college students are perceiving and participating in international experiences similarly to their peers. An explanation for this could be the non-static nature of a student’s habitus and that the student’s current situational and relational context with the university is influencing and reforming their previously established dispositions.

Habitus has a dynamic component and an individual can adopt new elements as a result of novel experiences, historical changes in the material environment, exposure to another individual’s habitus, or associating with people who originate from a different habitus, all of which are possible in the college environment (Barker, 1984; Lamont & Lareau, 1988). This means that a low SES student can learn to make different choices—choices that could facilitate social mobility on a college campus (Horvat, 2001). (Walpole, 2003, p. 50)
This is congruent with Pascarella et al.’s (2004) findings that the level of engagement of first-generation students with the university social structures is associated with effects on critical thinking, degree plans, sense of responsibility for their own academic success, and preference of higher-order cognitive tasks.

In the middle of the model, habitus can be seen as influencing students’ dispositions to view each individual factor (for example time away from family, financial costs, academic focus, cultural experience, fun) as being a cost or a benefit. At the same time, a student’s habitus, based on the student’s social and cultural capital in relation to the student’s current field, is also influencing the amount of cost or benefit that a student perceives that factor to carry. For example, two students might both perceive time away from home as a cost and not a benefit, but their unique habitus will also create differing perceptions about how significant of a cost it is. In this manner, the significance of habitus on participation is not viewed as simply being an agent that creates the boundaries of what are perceived to be viable options and outcomes. Instead, habitus also acts as the influencer of our perception of the significance of each factor that is used to generate our rational analysis of viable outcomes.

One of the limitations of this study was that many of the demographic variables and international experiences were bundled. This limited my findings since I was not able to analyse all of the intricacies of each specific demographic and experience. However, a strength of the model that was developed through this study is that it is general enough to be used in further research on any demographic, factor, and university event. What this model can be particularly useful for is looking at the influence of habitus in the intersection between demographics and other possible influential factors of participation. For instance, how does a student’s SES influence the perception of on-line vs. in-person enrolment as a cost or benefit of participation? Or, how does a student’s ethnicity influence their perception of the amount of group interaction within the experience as a cost or benefit? To take this model forward, qualitative studies would be needed to better understand how habitus affects students’ perceptions of these factors as costs or benefits. Questions that ask students to reflect on their up-bringing, goals, and fears might bring more clarity to why they perceive certain factors of participation as costs or benefits.

Another way in which this model can possibly be taken forward is to research if and how a student’s preconception of an experience and/or factors of that experience can be influenced by the university. For example, according to Lucas’ (2009) study on gender and study abroad, males tend to perceive the structured nature of study abroad as a cost because it limits their freedom to explore, whereas females tend to see this structure as a benefit since it allows for safer travelling with a community feel. But, according to Lucas, messaging from male peers at the university can also influence male participation rates. Is this because advice from males that have previously participated in study abroad changes the
male advisee’s perception of the factor of “highly structured” from a cost to a benefit? Or is it because
the advisor brings light to beneficial factors that the advisee had not yet considered? Understanding all of
the pre-conceptions that students bring with them to universities and identifying the ways in which
messaging and outreach efforts work productively with those preconceptions could be helpful knowledge
to practitioners in finding productive ways to message experiences to students.

Further limitations of this study and suggestions for further research will be discussed next.

5.8 Limitations of the study

The researcher has acknowledged several limitations and delimitations of the study in Chapter 3 and
throughout the paper. Other factors also need to be considered as they might have limited the internal and
external validity of this study.

The researcher did not have full control over how the survey instrument was disseminated to the students.
The researcher relied on other faculty and staff to email the survey to students. Although the researcher
provided a standard email for faculty and staff to use when sending out the survey, it cannot be fully
assumed that other messages were not conveyed that influenced participation or responses. It also cannot
be assumed that the sample was wholly representative of the population of the university. Specifically
gender demographics of the study’s sample are not similar to that of the university. It is also possible that
students that are more interested in international experiences were more likely to read the emails and
participate in the survey.

The study was conducted during one academic year. The academic year in which this study was
conducted had the highest rate of participation for study abroad at this specific university, but during the
following academic year participation in study abroad was much lower. The results do not show the
possible effects that changes over time to factors such as university policies, world events, and marketing
strategies can have on students’ perceptions of international experiences, and likewise how this might
have shaped the findings in this study.

Every possible indicator of costs, benefits, and symbolic capital were not included in this study.
Literature in these areas and in study abroad participation has identified more indicators of these
conceptual factors than can be reasonably included in one study. The researcher chose to include the
indicators that were the most prominent and significant in the literature, but it should not be assumed that
non-included variables are not also influencing participation or non-participation in international
experiences.
There was no option in the survey for the students to write comments, elaborate on answers, or choose a non-listed response.

The stage in the students’ college careers that they engaged in the surveyed experiences was not made clear. The findings of the study showed a significant association between participation in experiences such as travel, cross-cultural workshops, and other international experiences with participation international experiences; however, it is not clear from the survey responses when participation in each of these experiences occurred. Therefore, any conclusions that assume a cause-and-effect correlation should be tempered.

This study was conducted at a US university. Are the cultures of other countries different in this regard?

Not included in this study was information about how each of the specific experiences were marketed. Interesting research could be conducted on how and when messages about participation in international experiences is conveyed to the students; and how that then impacts participation. Not only would it be prudent to look at the marketing strategies of the department hosting the experience, but also the messaging that comes from other areas of the campus, such as academic departments, admissions, the mission statement, and the website of the university. For example, I have witnessed, during New Student Orientation on this campus, the Engineering Department highlight the study abroad opportunities available for engineering students. The results of this study suggest that this messaging is having a positive impact on participation - more research could be done to explore the impact of messaging further.

5.9 Implications

The implications of the findings of this study can be used to establish strategic procedures for university administrators attempting to increase opportunities and participation in international experiences for their students. As an individual that is both a doctoral candidate student and a practitioner in the field of international education, I perceive an importance in discussing both the theoretical conclusions of this study as well as the practical implications.

5.9.1 Questions raised through the findings and recommendations for further research

Since there is a very limited amount of research on the factors that influence university students’ engagement in on-campus programs and experiences, and even less on participation in the specific area of at home international experiences, the findings from this study create additional questions and open the door for multiple opportunities of further research:
(a) How would the results compare if similar studies were conducted at other universities? Conducting similar studies at other universities would allow researchers to gain a better understanding of how factors related to the university’s context influence participation in international experiences. It would especially be interesting to see if other universities that are making attempts to create better participation from STEM majors show similar results to this study. It would also be interesting to see how different marketing and support strategies influence the way in which students perceive the costs and benefits of participation.

(b) What would be revealed if this study was done over multiple years? A longitudinal study that follows students from high school to university might provide interesting insight into how a student’s habitus changes as they enter into a new field and accrue and lose capital. It would also be interesting to see the results of a multiple year study that factors in influencers related to world and local affairs. Does hearing about foreign terrorism or health issues in the news increase or decrease interest in international experiences? What about when politicians or celebrities (e.g. Michelle Obama several years ago) make statements in favour of international education? According to de Wit (2015), recent attacks in Madrid and London have not had a serious impact on study abroad in those locations, but this area has not been fully researched. If conducted over multiple years, this line of research might hold rich information on if or how habitus is shaped by social forces not directly related to an individual.

(c) Would similar results be found if this research model was used to explore participation in non-international on-campus experiences? Do habitus and cost-benefit analysis influence participation in things like student government, clubs, sports, and academic workshops in the same ways? This study sets a theoretical framework for answering these questions.

(d) What do students view to be the benefits of participation in international experiences at home? Do they think that they are equally beneficial as abroad experiences? This study showed that the importance that students place on international experiences to their goals influences participation in both at home and abroad experiences, but it would be interesting to know if they perceive the benefits of these two experiences as equivalent or different in relation to their goals. Push-pull theory could be utilized to create a research framework for exploring the question of why a student would pick one form of experience over the other.

(e) Why is participation by males at such a low rate in all forms of experiences? (Males even participated in this survey itself at a low rate.) Research on participation in study abroad has widely shown a greater participation rate from females than males. It has been theorized that the “abroad” element is a significant factor in this disparity, but this study showed a lesser rate of participation by
males in experiences on campus as well. Further research that examines gender’s role as a factor in participation in international experiences should therefore focus more on how the perceptions of cross-cultural and education experiences are formed and less on the travel aspect of international experiences.

(f) How do personal identities that were not included in this study, such as religion, sexual orientation, introversion/extroversion, years since the family immigrated to the US, and second language skills, contribute to a student’s habitus and participation? Do students perceive other costs and benefits with participation based on these identities? Inclusion of some of these identities could be especially insightful if the researcher included students from multiple states in the US. The state in which this study was conducted has a large portion of students whose parents are immigrants from other countries and speak other languages at home. Do these students feel that their daily lives are already an international experience, thus participating less, or does the international context of their family provide a desire for more international experiences?

(g) Qualitative studies could be utilized to further explore the participation gap between males and females. The findings from this study indicated that males do not have differing views than females about the level of importance that participating in international experiences has on their goals. And this gap also does not appear to be associated with males studying at higher rates than females in fields in which it is difficult to access international opportunities (as has been suggested). So, why are males participating at lower rates? I believe that the greatest insight into this question would come from interviews, focus groups, and ethnography, in which researchers could get data that is much more introspective, deeper, and robust than what is provided by a survey.

5.9.2 Practical implications and recommendations

The analysis of the results of this study might be encouraging to practitioners of higher education and international education programs. Almost 50% of the surveyed students reported having participated in some form of international experience at home, compared to only 32% of the students stating that they participated in an abroad experience. This is very similar to findings reported by Soria and Troisi (2013) that suggest that international initiatives and curriculum implemented by universities on-campus are more accessible to the overall student body than those carried out abroad. The variance in the participation rates of some of the demographic variables also show, to some extent, greater access to groups of students that are not traditionally participating in study abroad as much as their peers. For instance, even though minority student participation in abroad experiences was lower than other students in this study, they did participate at a slightly higher rate in at home experiences. This suggests that these students are interested
in international experiences and the opportunities on campus are accessible to them, but that there is also barriers present that limit participation in abroad experiences. There was also an unexpected result that students in STEM fields participated in abroad experiences at a higher rate than Social Science and Humanities students. A possible explanation for this result is the efforts by the university in this study to provide more abroad opportunities, and knowledge about those opportunities, specifically to STEM students. This could be a positive sign for international education practitioners attempting to increase access to international experiences to students in all fields of study that STEM students will participate if provided opportunities that meet their specific needs. Resembling the trends in statistics on gender participation in study abroad and higher education in general education, female students participated in both experiences at a greater rate than males. However, the gap in participation rates was lower for at home experiences, once again signalling that these types of experiences could be used as viable alternatives to abroad experiences if the goal of the university is to create access to international experiences for a diverse student body.

A significant implication that emerged from the findings is that the importance that students place on international and cultural-diversity related experiences is strongly associated to their participation. Another implication was that the social structures of the campus have an ability to influence a student’s perception of the importance of participation through dissemination of information, contact with other students, and support from staff. Therefore, practitioners should have a concerted intent on educating students about the benefits of participation that are not explicit to them (for example increased critical thinking skills). Unfortunately, many staff on campus do not have a full understanding of the opportunities, benefits, and logistics of participating in international experiences. Therefore, those practitioners in study abroad and global affairs units need to create the messaging about the importance of these experiences and share it with other campus departments in order to effectively and consistently market and explain these opportunities to the entire student body. This messaging about the benefits of participation is especially important for those student groups that do not typically participate. Many of these students might perceive an international experience as having more costs than benefits if they believe that participation hinders instead of enhances their educational, career, and social opportunities. So, simply creating and marketing specific international experiences will not be enough to see a large increase in enrolment if students do not also see the value in the experience.

Due to the significant influence that was associated with encouragement from family, friends, and campus staff, universities should also focus on educating these groups about the benefits of international experiences.
As noted above, all of the intangible benefits of participation are not always obvious to students; and some students do not place a high value on those benefits even if they are aware of them. So a focus should also be made on establishing experiences that satisfy more tangible benefits for students such as specific academic requirements or professional development opportunities. Particularly more opportunities for STEM students, who are hampered by graduation requirements, to have an international experience that also meets a graduation requirement. This study shows that there is interest from this group of students to participate, but they need the cost associated with time of attendance to be lowered. Universities would also benefit from tracking and integrating international initiatives that students are already participating in into the curriculum. Creation of policies that give students some form of formal credit for participation in experiences such as service, work, research, or internships abroad would provide more motivation for students to participate in these opportunities.

However, it should be noted that encouragement from the campus for students to participate in international and cross-cultural experiences should be cautious and conscientious to those that receive these students. Any mandate by the university to a student to participate in cross-cultural interactions raises ethical dilemmas. Will students be participating in these experiences for the right reasons? How does their participation affect the host community? For instance, if students are joining an ethnic club on campus just to meet a graduation requirement, will that be a disservice to those in the club that identify with or are passionate about the ethnic identity of that club?
Chapter 6: Conclusion

As I began the planning and work on this research enquiry, I knew that I was interested in exploring the field of international education and specifically in the internationalization of the curriculum in higher education. However, I did not have a clear question or focal area in my mind. As I read the literature in the field of student participation in international experiences, it became clear that there is not only a large gap in the literature due to an exclusion of research on participation in at home international experiences, but also an obvious disconnect between the type of theoretical perspectives that most practitioners in the field use in discussions about participation in study abroad compared to what is being theorized through academic research. In my experience working in a study abroad office, it appears that many practitioners in the global affairs field use standard descriptive statistics to analyze participation, but academic research in the area of study abroad participation makes it clear that several other theoretical perspectives should be used to show a more comprehensive picture of the contributing factors. Economic theories such as cost-benefit analysis, and sociological theories such as habitus, social capital, and cultural capital have been beneficial in understanding the nuances of how students make participation decisions, instead of the narrow focus that descriptive statistics provide. Therefore, it is crucial to study the context of the student and surrounding environment to gain a full understanding of participation.

Due to these gaps in the literature and practice in the field, this study sought to identify contextual and rational analysis factors that influence university students’ participation in international educational experiences. Specifically, the focus was on internationally themed experiences that are done at home, such as enrolment in language courses or volunteering to mentor an international student. Since research on participation in international experiences abroad, as well as conjecture in the professional field, indicates that the rate of participation is disparate between student groups such as race, gender, and field of study, many universities have developed internationally themed opportunities at home as part of their curriculum, with the reasoning that these experiences might be more accessible to students with financial and time-to-degree constraints. However, there is little to no research on what impacts student participation or non-participation in these experiences, so it is unknown if these experiences actually create access and interest from the groups of students that typically do not study abroad (males, STEM majors, and racial minorities). This study added to academic knowledge, as well as practical knowledge, of student participation in higher education based experiences by drawing on the literature and theories established in study abroad, college choice, and college engagement. The literature in these areas was used to establish research questions for the study and to analyse findings on influential factors of participation in international experiences. Studying together both the factors that influence abroad and at
home international experiences provided interesting insights into student participation in educational experiences. Viewing the influential factors of these two similar (internationally themed) but differing (cost, time, location) experiences side by side allowed for a more robust analysis of data by allowing for an inclusion of the context of the experiences into the analysis as well as to identify consistent or conflicting factors.

A personal objective of mine for this study (and a possible bias) was to gain more insight into how universities can provide greater access to international experiences for minority and low socio-economic status students. I was somewhat surprised by the findings in this study that suggest that at home experiences are more accessible for these students. In this study, more students at TU reported having participated in some form of international experience at home than reported participating in an abroad experience. Furthermore, minority students in this study participated in international experiences at home at a greater rate than white students who tend to study abroad at much higher rates than other students. Also, the economic status of a student showed no significance for at home experiences. This is similar to findings reported by Soria and Troisi (2013) and suggests that international programs and curriculum implemented by universities at home are more accessible to a diverse group of students than those carried out abroad. These findings show that international experiences at home might be a viable (and possibly preferred) alternative to studying abroad for these students.

As I began this research project, I also wanted to have a better sense of whether or not participation is all about the money as many in my field believe. Although the variable of financial status was found to be a significant factor associated with participation, so were factors such as the importance that participation has to students’ personal, academic and career goals, participation in other cultural and travel experiences, previous travel experience, influence from others, and the student’s field of study. These findings support the work by Perna (2006), Salisbury et al. (2009), and Glaesser and Cooper (2013) that argue that habitus, and the context of the student’s situation in the university work in conjunction with the costs and benefits associated with participation to influence a student’s educational choices and outcomes. A theoretical model has been established to explain the factors influencing the choice process for students to participate in experiences provided through higher education institutions. The model is analogous to a justice scale in which the weight of costs and benefits are measured against each other, with a student’s habitus influencing on which side of the scale each factor will be placed as well as the weight associated with that factor. The implication of this model to campus leaders is that in order to increase student participation and fully address the participation gaps in international experiences, more than just financial considerations need to be met. There are also costs associated with time, fear, and social issues. Tangible academic benefits for participation in these experiences need to be established in order to decrease the
perception of the cost of time to students. Also, educating students, parents, and campus staff about the hidden benefits of participation is key to overriding any perceptions of costs that create barriers to participation for students arriving at university with a lesser degree of social and cultural capital.

Lastly, my main goal for pursuing a Doctorate in Education was to gain a better knowledge of the field of international education and to learn how to more critically assess academic programs and literature. Not only do I feel that I have been able to meet both of those goals, but I have also had an unexpected outcome of my study being used by colleagues. At the time that I was working on this study, the Global Affairs office at TU was creating a proposal for a multi-million dollar grant that will support programmatic and curricular efforts to increase student participation in international experiences. I was fortunate to be able to provide them my literature review and findings as support for their efforts (which are still on-going but positively progressing). I take great pride in this as it means that my study is already contributing to and benefiting the academic community and (hopefully) the students we serve.

This study can further impact and contribute to the higher education field by outlining a path in which social justice minded practitioners and institutions can take to increase access of a diverse student body to the beneficial outcomes associated with international education. For one, this study has shown that at home experiences are more accessible to minority students than abroad experiences. This should sound as a call to campuses that more assessment and development needs to be done in regards to the outcomes of these experiences so that students that are participating are getting a rewarding educational experience.

This study should also highlight to practitioners that although eliminating financial and other barriers to participation is an important step to making participation more accessible, students still need to be more educated about the potential personal benefits of participation in order for participation rates to increase. This appears to be especially true with male students that tend to see these non-required experiences as less or completely not important to their educational and career goals. Therefore more attention needs to be given to identifying all of the outcomes associated with participation and educating students about how these experiences could be an important benefit to them.
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Appendices

Appendix 1 Survey Questionnaire

Participation in International Experiences

This research is being conducted as part of a study for a doctoral dissertation. The goal is to better understand the factors that influence students’ participation in international activities by building on previous research on study abroad participation.

We invite you, and all upperclass students, to take part in this research by completing the following survey. Taking part in this research is completely voluntary and you may choose to not participate or end the survey at any time and it will not be held against you.

We expect that the survey will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

If you agree to take part in this research study, you will be enrolled in a raffle for a $100 gift card. You will be asked for your email for payment purposes. It will not be used for any other purpose without your permission.

Efforts will be made to limit use or disclosure of your personal information to people who have a need to review this information. We cannot promise complete confidentiality but can assure anonymity. Organizations that may inspect and copy your information include the university’s IRB and other University of Bath representatives responsible for the management or oversight of this study.

If you have questions, concerns, or complaints, or think the research has hurt you, talk to the research team at ggundy11@yahoo.com.

This research has been reviewed and approved by an Institutional Review Board (“IRB”). Information to help you understand research is on-line. You may talk to a IRB staff member at (916) 703-9151, IRBAdmin@___.edu, or 2921 Stockton Blvd, Suite 1400, Room 1429, Sacramento, CA 95817 for any of the following:

- Your questions, concerns, or complaints are not being answered by the research team.
- You cannot reach the research team.
- You want to talk to someone besides the research team.
- You have questions about your rights as a research subject.
- You want to get information or provide input about this research.

1. What is your major? Listed by Divisions

- Engineering
- Biological Science
- Agricultural Science
- Environmental Science
• Human Science
• Humanities, Arts, and Cultural Studies
• Math and Physical Sciences
• Social Science
• Don't know / no answer

2. What class year are you at TU?
• Freshman
• Sophomore
• Junior
• Senior
• Fifth year senior
• Don't know / no answer

3. What is your sex?
• female
• male
• Don't know / no answer
• Other:

4. Where is your primary residency when not attending TU?
• USA
• Outside of the USA
• Don't know / no answer

5. Before you started at TU, had you traveled outside of the United States (or your home country if you are an international student)?
• Yes
• No
• Don't know / no answer

6. What is your race/ethnicity?
• Multiracial
• American Indian
• Asian or Pacific Islander
• Black or African-American
• Hispanic or Latino/a
• White
• Don't know / No answer
• Other:

7. What is the highest level of education qualification of your parents or guardians? Check all that apply

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Primary School</th>
<th>High School</th>
<th>Attended university but did not finish</th>
<th>Two year or technical college</th>
<th>Undergraduate university degree</th>
<th>Postgraduate university degree</th>
<th>Not applicable</th>
<th>Don't know / No answer</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Father</td>
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<td>Mother</td>
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<td>Guardian</td>
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<td>Other</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

8. Did you file a FAFSA this year?
• yes
• no
• Don't know / no answer

9. Mark the level of your participation in the following international experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>participated</th>
<th>have not participated but plan on doing so</th>
<th>have not participated and do not plan to do so</th>
<th>don't know what this experience is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Study abroad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Internship Abroad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Volunteer or community service abroad</td>
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<tr>
<td>Domestic internship with a company that has global offices or global connections</td>
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<tr>
<td>Language courses not</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>participated</td>
<td>have not participated but plan on doing so</td>
<td>have not participated and do not plan to do so</td>
<td>don't know what this experience is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>required by major</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Education Week event</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internationally focused major or minor</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Internationally themed student organization or club</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partners in Acquiring Language (PAL) program</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Global Ambassadors</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>International and Domestic Student Retreat</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>International Buddy Program</td>
<td>☐</td>
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<td>☐</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. State the extent to which you agree with the following statements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Don't know / no answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in international experiences is important to my career goals</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engaging in international experiences is</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
<td>☐</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Engaging in international experiences is important to my personal goals</td>
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<tr>
<td>My family has encouraged me to get involved in international experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>My friends have encouraged me to get involved in international experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>Campus faculty and staff have encouraged me to get involved in international experiences</td>
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<tr>
<td>I believe that contact with individuals whose background (e.g., race, national origin, sexual orientation) are different from my own is an essential part of my college education</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Don't know / no answer</td>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy taking courses that challenge my own beliefs or values</td>
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<tr>
<td>I believe that learning about people from different cultures is a very important part of a college education</td>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy having discussions with people who hold different ideas and values from my own</td>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy reading and writing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nonclassroom interactions with faculty at TU have had a positive influence on my intellectual, personal, or career development</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal relationships with other students at TU have had a positive influence on my intellectual,</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Don't know / no answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal, or career development</td>
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<tr>
<td>My TU courses have helped me see the connections between my intended career and how it affects society</td>
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<tr>
<td>Out-of-class experiences have helped me connect what was learned in the classroom with life events</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. State the amount of times that you have done the following things while a student at TU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4 or more</th>
<th>Don't know / no answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Taken a course with a focus on diverse cultures and perspectives</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Taken a course with a focus on issues of equality and/or social justice</td>
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<tr>
<td>Participated in a racial or cultural awareness workshop</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 or more</td>
<td>Don't know / no answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

training, or class

12. State the frequency that you have done the following things while a student at TU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Don't know / no answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Had conversations about issues related to social justice or diversity with students who are different from yourself in terms of their race, religious beliefs, political opinions, or personal values

Made friends with a student from another country

Made friends with a student whose race is different from your own

Put together ideas or concepts from different courses when completing assignments or during
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very often</th>
<th>Often</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Don't know / no answer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>class discussions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

If you would like to be entered into the raffle for a $100 gift card please enter your email below.

[ ]