UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHERN QUEENSLAND

Internationalization of Business Students: The Impact of a Foreign Study Experience on Career Choice and Perceived Job Marketability

A Dissertation submitted by

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In partial fulfillment of the award of
Doctor of Business Administration,
Faculty of Business and Law

2012

ABSTRACT

With increased internationalization comes the necessity for individuals to become global citizens, to be more aware of world events, and to be more culturally aware and sensitive. It is important for universities to create an academic culture that promotes and supports study abroad opportunities as a means of exposing students to the world outside their home countries. More specifically, it is important for universities to prepare their business students for careers in the global marketplace.

In order to understand the perceived impact of a study abroad experience on job marketability, comparisons were drawn between business students' expectations and values prior to studying abroad and their perceived outcomes and values afterward. Cross-cultural, gender, and generational comparisons were also drawn.

The Magellan Exchange, a non-profit consortium of universities worldwide, facilitates student and faculty exchanges. More than 1,400 students have studied abroad through The Magellan Exchange, and approximately 90 percent of those have been business students. Past business participants were invited to complete an online survey, which was based upon the questionnaires of two prior studies. The questionnaire included questions addressing pre-experience values and expectations as well as post-experience values and perceived outcomes; it also questioned basic demographics and key components of the study abroad program, measuring the personal, academic, and career impact of a foreign study experience.

The conceptual framework of the study allowed for the investigation of participants' original values and expectations, which are influenced by family, friends, gender,

culture, previous experiences, and the environment, prior to studying abroad. It also takes into consideration the effect of external factors (i.e., environmental, economic, social, cultural, and demographic) on the learning experience (i.e., the study abroad experience), which in turn impacts perceived outcomes and values after the international experience as well as the post-experience career-related outcomes.

Factor analysis revealed the latent factors of *expectations* of *Adventure, Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money* and *Self-Actualization* as well as the *values* of *Adventure, Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money* and *Self-Actualization*. Analysis revealed significant differences between respondents' expectations and perceived outcomes on all five factors, as well as between the values assigned to those expectations and perceived outcomes.

Cross-cultural comparisons indicated that U.S. and European respondents differed in their *expectation* and *perceived outcome* of *Adventure*, as well as in the *value* of *Adventure* and *Money* before the experience and the *value* of *Adventure, Intrepidness* and *Money* after the experience. In addition to the cultural impact, the study revealed generational and gender differences between respondents.

The career implications of study abroad are becoming more apparent and more important with increased internationalization. Understanding the goals and expectations of study abroad, as well as the values associated with them, in addition to what participants perceive as outcomes and how they value them, affords an opportunity for universities to better market foreign study programs to prospective participants, thus improving participation rates and better preparing business graduates for the competitive global workplace.

CERTIFICATION OF DISSERTATION

I certify that the ideas, experimental work, results, analyses, software and conclusions reported in this dissertation are entirely my own effort, except where otherwise acknowledged. I also certify that the work is original and has not been previously submitted for any other award, except where otherwise acknowledged.

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Signature of Candidate Date

ENDORSEMENT

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Signature of Supervisor/s Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Dr. Ronel Erwee, my principal supervisor, for her continuous support, advice, recommendations, and patience. I would also like to thank Dr. Eric Ng, my associate supervisor. Words cannot fully express the invaluable impact their supervision and feedback have made throughout this process. In addition, I am grateful for the administrative support provided by Liz Whatson.

My alma mater, Southeast Missouri State University, provided an excellent support system. I was fortunate to have Dr. John Cherry's generous support and invaluable guidance. I am grateful to Dr. Peter Gordon for introducing me to other cultures and international travel as an undergraduate student; these experiences contributed to my ultimately following this path. Further, I am grateful for his advice in the early stages of my study. Finally, I want to thank Dr. Willie Redmond for his assistance and contributions to my work.

This study would not have been possible without the supportive network of universities in The Magellan Exchange consortium. I want to thank those coordinators who assisted me with obtaining updated contact information and who encouraged me along the way, as well as for those past study abroad participants who took the time to complete my survey and offer insight into their international experiences.

Finally, I want to express my appreciation for my family, friends, and coworkers who encouraged me throughout this process.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

The study will explore the perceived effect of a foreign study experience on students' career choice and perceived job marketability after the experience. It sought to analyze changes in expectations and values after an international study experience and their relationship with career-related variables of career choice, employability, starting salary, job description, promotability, and geographic location after the study abroad experience.

Chapter 1 begins with the background to the research, followed by the research questions and hypotheses. The motivation for, contribution to the existing research of, and justification for this research is discussed. An overview of the research design and methodology is presented next. Chapter 1 concludes with the limitations of the research and definitions of key terms, followed by a conclusion of the main points.

1.1 Background to Research

Increased internationalization means it is becoming more necessary for individuals to become global citizens, to be more aware of world events, and to be more culturally aware and sensitive. Universities should create an academic culture that promotes and supports study abroad opportunities as a means of exposing students to the world outside their home countries. More specifically, it is important for universities to prepare their business students for careers in the global marketplace (Bellamy &

Weinberg 2006). Therefore, a study of the career implications of an international experience is timely and useful to both students and administrators.

1.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following primary research question were investigated: How does a study abroad experience influence business students' values, expectations, and perceptions of career-related variables?

In addition, the following research sub-questions were investigated:

- What were the pre-experience values and expectations of students who studied abroad?
- What are their values and perceived outcomes subsequent to the study abroad experience?
- Have their values changed since before their abroad experience?
- How do their original expectations compare to their perceptions of the experiences' impact on their job marketability after spending time abroad?
- Are there differences across nationalities; genders; age groups?
- Do individuals perceive that employers value a foreign experience when evaluating them as job applicants?

Based upon the findings, universities can determine what level of priority to assign to international programs (e.g., study abroad, intern abroad, volunteer abroad) in their resource allocation.

In order to investigate these research questions, the following specific null hypotheses were tested:

H1: There are no differences between expectations prior to the study abroad experience and perceived outcomes afterward.

H2: There are no differences between the values prior to the study abroad experience and the values afterward.

The following cross-cultural hypotheses were tested:

H3.1: European and U.S. students will have the same expectations regarding career-related variables* prior to the study abroad experience.

H3.2: European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables* prior to the study abroad experience.

H3.3: European and U.S. students will perceive the same outcomes regarding the career-related variables* after the study abroad experience.

H3.4: European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables* after the study abroad experience.

* These career-related variables include 1) career choice, 2) employability, 3) starting salary, 4) job description, 5) promotability, 6) geographic location, and 7) scope of job responsibilities after the study abroad experience.

1.3 Justification for this Research

International experiences have been the most personally defining influence on my life, so I was personally motivated to undertake a study that would provide insight into the perceived career impact of foreign study experiences. In addition, as Vice President of The Magellan Exchange, a non-profit consortium facilitating study

abroad opportunities for university students, this study provides a strategic application for the consortium. By determining the perceived impact of internationalization on business students who have previously gone abroad, The Magellan Exchange will be better equipped to design and market foreign study experiences to current students and to assist associated higher education institutional partners in doing so. In particular, it is important to the consortium to increase the number of outbound U.S. students since interest in placements in the U.S. traditionally exceeds interest by U.S. students in studying abroad; incoming students effectively take the place of outgoing students in this exchange program, so increasing the number of outbound U.S. students will enable the program to better accommodate the interest and preferences of those seeking placements within the U.S. (Patterson 2007).

The study will also provide quantifiable data which could be useful to universities in discussions for more effective resource allocation aimed at encouraging more student internationalization. It was expected that there would be a reported positive impact on perceived job marketability. This will provide a rationale for improvement of programs to increase the number of business students completing foreign study experiences and for the required allocation of funds to ensure higher student involvement levels.

Students who acquire the skills necessary to compete in a global marketplace are more likely to become successful (Bellamy & Weinberg 2006). This is also important to universities because a successful alumni group can later provide

valuable benefits, such as the availability of career opportunities and internships for future students, as well as financial support.

The American Council on Education has administered numerous surveys on the topic of student internationalization. One surveyed more than 1,000 people over the age of 18 and found that over 75 percent of respondents believed that university students should have a study abroad experience. Another survey conducted by the American Council on Education found that 70 percent of high school seniors felt it was important for the university they chose to attend to offer study abroad opportunities and about half of respondents said they planned to participate in at least one abroad program during college (Marcum 2001). In addition, another survey revealed that '90 percent of the U.S. public agreed that knowledge about international issues would be important to careers of younger generations' (Obst, Bhandari & Witherell 2007, p. 6). However, according to the Open Doors 2010 report published by the Institute of International Education, only about 207,000 U.S. students actually studied abroad during the 2009-2010 academic year (IIE 2011), representing less than 3 percent of U.S. university students (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

The trend within The Magellan Exchange program is for U.S. students to be less interested in an international exchange than non-U.S. students. In general, participation by U.S. students in foreign study, as mentioned above, is relatively low. However, although the proportion of U.S. university students studying abroad is small, participation rates are increasing. Over the last decade, study abroad participation among U.S. students has increased more than 150 percent. In

particular, business and management students represent the second largest category of U.S. students studying abroad. The most frequent duration for studying abroad is short term, such as summer, while mid-length is the second most frequent duration. This would include programs of one or two quarters or an entire semester. Long term programs are a distant third, with only about 4 percent of students spending a full academic or calendar year abroad (IIE 2011).

Although the American Council on Education surveys indicate strong support for study abroad participation, the Institute for International Education figures clearly indicate that relatively few people are participating. Universities in the U.S., Canada, and Australia, for example, may find it harder to improve student participation in study abroad because of limited options in relatively close geographic proximity (Gordon 2007).

Another indication of limited opportunities for U.S. students is reflected by U.S. universities' membership in exchange consortia. About 44 percent of U.S. universities are a member of any consortium for international business educational activity, compared to non-U.S. universities where over 71 percent of universities are members of an international educational consortium (Arpan & Kwok 2001).

1.3.1 Previous research on study abroad programs

A number of studies have been conducted to determine the effects of a study abroad experience on university students. The British Studies Program Consortium surveyed 26 business students completing a one month summer study abroad program in London and found that students enhanced their cultural tolerance,

empathy, and self-confidence by participating (Black & Duhon 2006). In another American study, 24 social work students participating in a Social Work Practice in Mexican Culture class taught in Mexico were used in an exploratory study. One of this study's findings was that students identified a learning objective, Personal Knowledge and Growth, which had not been included as a course objective on the syllabus (Poole & Davis 2006). The New Jersey State Consortium for International Studies surveyed 94 study abroad participants from Fall 1997 to Summer 2002. In order to simulate a pre-test/post-test study, respondents were asked to recall how they felt about certain things prior to going abroad and answer questions accordingly, and were then asked to answer questions based upon how they feel now. Results indicated that participants developed a more global outlook and have become more interested in world events (Hadis 2005).

A further study utilized a pre-test/post-test approach. A Cross-Cultural Adaptability Survey, with questions categorized as emotional resilience, flexibility/openness, perceptual acuity, and personal autonomy, was collected from 232 study abroad participants in England, Italy, Greece, France and Spain, along with a Study Abroad Goals Scale, as a pre-test to measure student reasons for studying abroad. At the end of the abroad program, the students were again asked to complete the Cross-Cultural Adaptability Survey and were additionally given a Global Perspective Survey. This study also found that an international study experience contributed to increased global awareness and cross-cultural skills. Students who expressed study abroad goals of becoming more culturally sensitive or aware indicated higher levels of these

benefits. Therefore, the idea that student goals can significantly impact the outcomes of their study abroad experiences was supported (Kitsantas 2004).

Another American university conducted a larger study, which utilized experimental and control groups. Data was collected from more than 2,300 participants in winter session programs in 2003 and 2004. The control group consisted of students involved in similar on-campus courses with an international component. Findings indicated a statistically significant difference between the student groups on intercultural attitudes; study abroad participants were more aware of multi-cultural perspectives and ideas than the on-campus students (Chieffo & Griffiths 2004).

Perhaps one the largest and most extensive studies was conducted by the Institute for the International Education of Students (IES), a reputable provider of study abroad programs, which has a nearly 60 year history of sending students overseas. With over 95 programs worldwide, IES sends an average of 5,000 U.S. students abroad annually (IES 2012). In 2002 they conducted a large study of program alumni to determine the longitudinal effects of study abroad. With over 3,600 respondents representing a 25 percent response rate, the survey asked questions about personal development, academic commitment, intercultural development, and career development (Gillespie & Slawson 2003). The study found that an overwhelming percentage of respondents were positively impacted by their overseas experience. In terms of career development in particular, 76 percent of respondents reported they gained skills that influenced their career direction while 62 percent reported they ultimately pursued a career path that they became interested in because of their study abroad experience (Dwyer & Peters 2004).

1.3.2 Focus on business students

Although any student can be positively influenced by study abroad, increased internationalization requires business students in particular to be cognizant of the rapidly changing business and social environment and to be mindful of ways to enhance global competence (Toncar, Reid & Anderson 2005). Internationalization has evolved to the point that global businesses must employ executives who have had international experience (Adler 2002). In fact, for those aspiring to fast corporate advancement, international experience has shifted from the 'nice but not necessary category and into the must have slot' (Adler 2002, p. 291).

There have been other studies that have used business students and have examined such variables as the impact of study abroad on career choice and location; however, this study will expand the literature by also examining the impact on other factors such as perceived employability, starting salary, job description, and promotability after the study abroad experience.

1.3.2.1 Focus on business students' career outcomes

The conceptual framework for this study, which will be introduced in chapter 2 (see Figure 2.3), was used to examine the implications of study abroad on a business student's perception of the impact of the experience on their job marketability. This is a worthwhile focus since there is increasing pressure on business schools to develop study abroad programs (e.g., exchange programs, short-term immersion trips) for their students. Some of the reasons for doing so include increasing revenues, internationalizing the classroom, and providing international enrichment

for faculty. The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB), an international accrediting body for schools of business, has also promoted the expansion of international business opportunities by stating in its standards that internationalization is a key component of business education (Damast 2011). As such, more schools are beginning to require study abroad experiences as part of their curriculum and others are at least offering the programs (Sneva 2011).

Internationalization in higher education. While the concepts of *globalization* and *internationalization* are related, they are not the same; according to Altbach and Knight (2007), 'globalization may be unalterable, but internationalization involves many choices' (p. 291). While there is not necessarily one widely regarded definition of internationalization among scholars, the concept as it applies to higher education can be described as 'the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education' (Dewey & Duff 2009, p. 493). For the purposes of this study, the concept of internationalization will be used and refers to incorporating an international dimension into business education (Green & Bao 2009).

Internationalization in higher education has been described as a method of undertaking a variety of activities, such as:

> The transnational mobility of students and staff, internationalization of curricula and quality assurance, interinstitutional cooperation in education and research, and the establishment of international university consortia. Furthermore, there has been strong growth in the cross-border delivery of education, leading to a substantial market in export and import of higher education products and services (Van Vught, Van der Wende, and Westerhejden, 2002, p. 103 in Kreber 2009).

Further, the internationalization of higher education can be considered as a bridge between developed and developing countries as well as a strategic initiative to create

citizens capable of functioning in a global, multicultural environment (Murphy 2007).

Internationalization efforts, however, will not be successful unless they are integrated into institutional activities as well as in institutional policies (Kreber 2009; Qiang 2003); therefore, universities are encouraged to develop specific institutional internationalization policies rather than to rely on ad hoc international activities (Ritzen & Marconi 2011). Specifically, internationalization plans may incorporate written statements of goals, missions, and/or visions, as well as initiatives, timelines, and allocated resources. The development of such concrete plans is vital in order to stimulate participation and demonstrate the institutional commitment to internationalization. In particular, it is becoming increasingly common for U.S. institutions to implement internationalization plans (Childress 2009).

Due to this increased focus on internationalization in business education, the following research question was appropriate:

> *RQ 4: How do their original expectations compare to their perceptions of the experiences' impact on their job marketability after spending time abroad?*

Few studies have been conducted specifically using business students or business alumni, and there is a need for more (Sneva 2011). With all the known benefits of studying abroad, and with business and management students now representing the second largest group of U.S. university students going abroad (IIE 2010), focusing on business students' perceptions of study abroad experiences and their job marketability is a timely endeavor.

1.3.2.2 Skills demanded by global employers

Demand for globally savvy and culturally sensitive employees is expected to increase as more and more companies strive to improve their positioning in a global marketplace with increased competition. This has resulted in many business schools improving their efforts to encourage study abroad participation by its students; in particular, strategies such as specialty courses, faculty exchanges, and student exchange programs have been implemented (McKenzie, Lopez & Bowes 2010). It has also resulted in increased attention to the types of skills global employers seek (Curran 2007).

With internationalization growing in importance in universities, and in business schools more specifically, the need to prepare graduates for a career in a global environment is becoming more imperative. Globalizing business curriculum is a necessity to foster cultural awareness and sensitivity among graduates, and study abroad programs offer students opportunities to be exposed to different cultures while applying classroom lessons to real-life situations (McKenzie, Lopes & Bowes 2010).

Employers look for a variety of skills when evaluating prospective employees, and young people should focus on developing these skills during school to better equip themselves when entering the job market. First, cognitive skills include such skills as problem solving, reasoning, and analyzing. Next, social skills are those necessary to conduct effective group work, especially in diverse situations. Lastly, personal

traits such as flexibility, adaptability, self-confidence, cultural sensitivity, and the willingness to learn are highly sought (Barnes 2009).

The global environment in which the marketplace operates requires 'increased adaptability, cross-cultural sensitivity, political awareness, and intellectual flexibility' (Tillman nd, p. 2). Employers, particularly those conducting international business, seek job applicants who can demonstrate the necessary skills that make them the best candidate for the job. Graduates with international experience, when leveraged strategically, can show employers that their entire experiential learning experience, including study, travel, home stays, internships, or work, gave them the collective competencies employers seek in the global marketplace (Tillman nd).

Other employer-desired skills were identified in a study conducted by the National Association of Colleges and Employers (NACE) in 2007. The survey results revealed that the most desirable attributes that employers want in an employee include initiative, motivation, flexibility and adaptability. These are all characteristics that study abroad participants can demonstrate by articulating their international experiences to employers (Curran 2007).

Other skills and competencies frequently sought by today's employers include effective communication and people skills, an ability to work with others of varying backgrounds, an ability to work in a team setting as well as to take leadership roles, an ability to collaborate, an ability to influence important decision makers, a willingness to accept new ideas and innovation, and self-confidence (Hunter 2009).

1.3.3 Students' motivations to study abroad

In order to understand why students choose to participate in foreign study experiences, one must understand their motivations and choice (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). In chapter 2 there will be a more extensive discussion on selected motivational theories, namely cognitive theories, the relationship between expectancy/valence theory, and goal setting theory, as well as cultural influences on career and how they relate to the present study.

Cognitive theories. Cognitive theories were based largely on the idea that human behavior is mainly determined by expectations people have of the future, rather than the idea that motivation stems from past satisfactions or habits like drive theories proposed. Therefore, cognitive theorists believed behavior to be consciously goal driven. Cognitive theories, later known as expectancy or valence theories, view motivation as the multiplicative function of expectancies and valences (Steers & Porter 1975). Lewin (1938) and Tolman (1959) identified expectancies as a person's beliefs about outcomes of a particular action, while valence signified the positive or negative value associated with those outcomes. Individuals then are expected to choose an action that is most likely to maximize benefits (Lewin 1938; Tolman 1959). While drive theories focus on connections of past stimuli and responses, expectancy theories focus on expectations of the connections between responses and outcomes. Both theories are, however, similar in that both emphasize some level of goal direction and both speculate about some desired outcome (Steers & Porter 1975).

Relationship between expectancy/valence theory and goal setting theory. Expectancy independently contributes to a person's performance when goals have been established as long as the goal difficulty is controlled. The attainment of high goals is more likely to be associated with expectations of 'a sense of achievement, improvement of one's skills, and the opportunity to prove what one can do' (Locke & Latham 1990). In terms of studying abroad, goals and expectancies for an international experience should be established prior to departure, and it is imperative that students' understanding and learning be assessed before going abroad as well as upon return home (Curran 2007).

Cultural influences on career. The behavioral aspects may also be influenced by the cultural value set a student has since culture touches every aspect of human behavior. Possibly the most quoted cross-country cultural comparison is that of Geert Hofstede. Hofstede recognized that a comparison of various cultures could be done based upon five dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. These dimensions refer to expected social behavior, man's search for truth, and importance of time (Keegan & Green 2004).

Culture impacts decision making and the way people choose their careers (Fouad & Byars-Winston 2005). Carter and Cook (1992) proposed that from 'a cultural frame of reference, work is a functional aspect of life in that individuals contribute their skills and labor to their cultural societies and the maintenance of their families' (p. 199). In this way society impacts the sense of work, its value, and the expectations about who should do a certain type of work (Fouad & Byars-Winston 2005).

1.3.4 Justification of theories as a framework for proposed study

In this study, the expectancy/valence theory is seen as relevant to the research question because expectancy theory purports that people act in self-interest in order to maximize the likelihood of a positive outcome and that is based upon 'perceptions, attitudes and beliefs' (Isaac, Zerbe & Pitt 2001, p. 216). The effort exerted by an individual will be influenced by their perception of the outcome and the value he or she places on it (Porter & Lawler 1968). This theoretical framework was also used in a study by Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006), which examined cultural influence on decision making in relation to study abroad. It can be applied in a wider cross-cultural context and used to explain how people from various countries value the rewards of their actions (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006) and how people make decisions based on their expectations of the benefits (Phatak, Bhagat & Kashlak 2005).

In addition to expectancy/valance theory, goal setting theory is seen as relevant because it demonstrates how setting goals increases one's level of performance, particularly when the goal is moderate. Setting goals implies some level of discontent with one's current situation or performance level and a desire to achieve an outcome (Locke & Latham 2006). For a student who plans to study abroad, perhaps their discontent arises from their lack of foreign language fluency, a desire to explore new cultures and to travel, or an interest in studying a new subject.

It was expected that the present study would reveal positive outcomes for those who have had a foreign study experience and that those in the study would perceive their

experience to have had a positive effect on their job marketability after the experience as well as an effect on their career choices. The present study offered a means of clarifying the career implications of foreign study experiences and in so doing provided insight into the motivators of studying abroad. When investigated in the context of expectancy/valence theory, one can determine from those who have completed a foreign study experience what attributes can and should be stressed to current students who have not studied abroad.

1.3.5 Expanding the research

Since there is limited data on the career implications of study abroad, there is increased need to examine the impact of international experiences on a business student's career choice and perceived job marketability (Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004). There have been numerous studies assessing such things as personal development (Black & Duhon 2006; Dwyer & Peters 2004; Hadis 2005; Kitsantas 2004; Poole & Davis 2006), academic achievement (Chieffo & Griffiths 2004; Poole & Davis 2006), cultural differences (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006), and career implications (Dwyer & Peters 2004; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004) that have confirmed the benefits of a study abroad experience. Although studies have been done with students studying a wide range of disciplines, little research has been done with business students specifically. Some studies have sought to look at multi-cultural dimensions, but there has not been a study to examine differences among business students in multiple countries, particularly focusing on career implications. In addition, little has been done with a broad range of career factors such as employability, promotability, and starting salary.

The present study further expanded the body of knowledge due to its specific focus on business students in a broader geographical range of countries, including Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Mexico, The Netherlands, Spain, the United Kingdom, and the United States, instead of solely U.S. participants as in the IES study (Dwyer 2004). In addition, it surveyed individuals after their foreign study experience, providing information on not only their original motivation for choosing to study abroad but also their perception of the impact their experience had on their career marketability after the experience.

Furthermore, the present study sought to build upon the IES alumni survey by further examining the perceived impact of internationalization on a wider variety of career factors, including career choice, employability, starting salary, job description, promotability, and geographic location after the study abroad experience. In addition, it offered an opportunity to update the results since it had been five years since the IES conducted their survey.

1.3.6 Implications for universities

The benefits of study abroad are generally accepted. However, many universities are unable or unwilling to extensively promote opportunities and to encourage student participation in international experiences. Some of the reasons cited for this include lack of financial resources, lack of upper administration support, lack of support for faculty involvement, and lack of curriculum flexibility (Toncar, Reid & Anderson 2005).

Gaining insight into the factors that carry positive valences provides knowledge that can be utilized in the marketing efforts of university study abroad offices. For one, the positive implications that were revealed by the present study provide important messages which should be communicated to current students to increase their knowledge of those factors carrying positive valences. This could increase their expectancy of having a positive and beneficial experience if they went abroad. Secondly, it provides universities with reasons to promote foreign study experiences to their students and reasons to make these types of experiences easier to undertake. The fewer barriers to participation there are at the university level, the more likely students will perceive that the positive valences will outnumber the negative valences, which could ultimately lead to increased participation and increased internationalization.

1.4 Research Design and Methodology

1.4.1 The model

Adapting the application of expectancy/valence theory in the Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang (2006) study, the present study is a cross sectional study and collected quantitative data using questions about the pre-departure expectations and matching values prior to a study abroad experience. Then these questions were mirrored, asking the respondents about their current perceived outcomes and values. This was compared to the pre-departure data to test a model that uses expectancy/valence theory and also collects perceived outcomes. It is possible to compare the respondents' original expectations to their perceived outcomes as well as to compare

the change in the value placed on these between the pre-experience and post-experience.

1.4.2 The population

The present study utilized a population of past participants of The Magellan Exchange program. Sections 1.4.2.1 and 1.4.2.2 provide an introduction to this program and its participants.

1.4.2.1 Overview of The Magellan Exchange

The Magellan Exchange is a non-profit consortium of higher education institutions that facilitates exchange for students at member institutions. Originally founded in 1996 by retired international programs personnel from a U.S. university in Missouri, the consortium and program were created as a means of exchanging business students between member institutions in the U.S. and Europe; the headquarters is still based in Missouri. Each participating institution has at least one designated coordinator who assists with promotion of the program on their campus, advises outbound students, and assists incoming students; the Magellan Exchange director is in communication with these coordinators to effectively facilitate the program. Organized by the central Magellan office, there is an annual conference which brings together coordinators from all partner schools for the purposes of networking, sharing information, and strengthening the program.

Mechanics of the program. Participating institutions pay an annual fee for membership in the consortium, and students pay a nominal application processing

fee. English is the common language of instruction within the program, and all student participants are either native English speakers or fluently speak English as a second language. The Magellan Exchange offers students at member institutions an opportunity to spend a semester, academic year, or summer at a member institution in another part of the world. Students are limited to an abroad experience in a geographic zone different from their own, as indicated in Table 1.1 below.

Table 1.1: Geographic Zones of The Magellan Exchange at the Time of Study

Students from:	**Can study abroad in:**
Europe	Mexico, United States
Mexico	Europe, United States
United States	Mexico, Europe

Description of membership. The Magellan Exchange consisted of 10 founding universities: 5 in Europe and 5 in the United States. At the time of this study, the consortium had grown to 26 institutions within North America and Europe. Those universities and countries represented in the consortium are indicated in Table 1.2 below.

The consortium has continued to expand and to date has more than 30 institutional partners in Europe, North America, Central America, and Asia; it has also diversified options and offers exchange opportunities for students in non-business fields, such as engineering, social work, healthcare, fine arts, and information technology, though business students still account for more than 90 percent of participation and only business students were included in the study. The broader opportunities are

primarily a result of institutional member interest as well as a greater number and more diverse selection of courses being taught in English among the partners.

Table 1.2: Institutional Membership of The Magellan Exchange Consortium at the Time of the Study

University	Country	University	Country
Vorarlberg University of Applied Sciences	Austria	Arkansas State University	United States
HEC Management School – University of Liege	Belgium	Delta State University	United States
Provinciale Hogeschool Limburg	Belgium	Eastern Kentucky University	United States
International Business Academy	Denmark	Missouri State University	United States
Rovaniemi University of Applied Sciences	Finland	Missouri University of Science & Technology	United States
Satakunta University of Applied Sciences	Finland	Morehead State University	United States
Blaise Pascal University	France	Northwest Missouri State University	United States
ESC Rennes School of Business	France	Southeast Missouri State University	United States
Aachen University of Applied Sciences	Germany	Tennessee Technological University	United States
Schmalkalden University of Applied Sciences	Germany	University of North Alabama	United States
University of Monterrey	Mexico	University of North Carolina – Pembroke	United States
Zuyd University	Netherlands	University of Wisconsin – River Falls	United States
Valencia Polytechnic University	Spain	Washburn University	United States

Benefits of institutional membership. While other exchange programs and consortia exist (Arpan & Kwok 2001), The Magellan Exchange satisfies the interests of its institutional membership by maintaining a network of institutions that is large enough to provide an array of exchange opportunities but small enough to foster a strong collaborative spirit and collegial relationships among program coordinators at member institutions. Partners cite the program's ability to ease cost and

administrative burdens of establishing and maintaining multiple bi-lateral exchange agreements, the flexibility of a multi-lateral scheme, the close relationships that are fostered by the annual conference and the organizational culture, and the low cost to students as benefits of membership.

Placements. Students approved for participation by their home school may apply for the program using an online program application which asks them to indicate their three preferred host schools; students make their selections for a variety of reasons, such as availability of specific courses, interest in the host country's language, size of school or city, or recommendations from peers, family, or advisors. The Magellan Exchange office then coordinates placements based upon preferences, working in close communication with each partner school in order to properly abide by institutional limits on incoming exchange students, which are generally based upon the number of outbound Magellan Exchange students at the institution.

Costs to student participants. Students do not pay tuition to the host school; essentially, incoming students take the place of outgoing students. Other than the nominal application processing fee (at the time of the study, $50-$150, depending on the program duration), students are responsible for their airfare, housing, passport and visa, meals, and personal expenses while abroad. In some cases, their home schools or other external sources offer scholarships to defray travel costs.

Promotion of the program. Initially, the program was marketed to prospective students with a standard brochure which mostly focused simply on the available locations; the opportunity to have a fun, affordable, cultural experience; and, for U.S.

participants, the lack of a foreign language requirement (i.e., U.S. students could participate without speaking a second language). Over time, more emphasis has been placed on the potential professional benefits of a foreign study experience as well as on the encouragement of developing foreign language skills while abroad.

Institutional partners also individually market the Magellan Exchange program to their students, typically using provided brochures and their own institutional materials. Improving marketing efforts at the central office as well as among partners is typically a topic of conversation at the consortium's annual meeting, which brings together all partners for collaborative discussions to improve the program for the benefit of all students, faculty, and member institutions. Since there traditionally are more students seeking placements within the U.S. than those outbound from the U.S., and since the U.S. member schools are interested in encouraging more of their students to participate in international experiences, there is a vested interest among all member institutions to find ways to improve U.S. participation rates.

1.4.2.2 Description of the population

At the time of this study, The Magellan Exchange had facilitated study abroad experiences for more than 1,000 students over the previous decade. Ten years of proprietary information including a database of contact information for this population provided a primary data source to investigate the research problem. Since many of these past students had been employed for varying lengths of time, it

was possible to compare the more immediate perceived benefits of a study abroad experience to the longer term perceived effects.

The study of this population allowed for the drawing of several interesting comparisons: the comparison of expectations and values before the exchange experience to the perceived outcomes and values after the experience; comparisons between countries/geographic areas; and comparisons between men and women. Sufficient response rates allowed the respondents to specifically be divided into several different groups: respondents who participated 5 years ago or less and respondents who participated more than 5 years ago; respondents who are 30 years old and over and respondents who are under 30 years old; respondents from Europe and respondents from the U.S.; respondents who had studied abroad before their Magellan Exchange experience and respondents who had not; and respondents who are men and respondents who are women.

Given that respondents were generally from institutions in the U.S. and Europe (due to the consortium membership at the time of the study), the study focused on these two geographic areas. While there were a few respondents from other countries (e.g., international degree-seeking students at partner institutions), there were not enough responses to make comparisons using other geographic areas. Table 1.3 below summarizes the countries included in the study's analyses.

Table 1.3: Countries of Origin for Respondents Included in the Study

Country	**Country**	**Country**
Austria	France	United Kingdom
Belgium	Germany	United States
Denmark	Netherlands	
Finland	Spain	

1.4.3 The questionnaire

The study utilized a descriptive, quantitative methodology, specifically survey research. The questionnaire for the present study was a modified version of that used by the Institute for the International Education of Students (IES) in its 2002 Alumni Survey (IES 2002), which questioned past participants on their perceptions of their study abroad experience, and of the questionnaire used in the Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006) study.

Using a similar methodology to that utilized by Hadis (2005), respondents in the study were asked a series of questions designed to measure their recollections of their expectations and valences regarding career-related variables prior to their study abroad experience. The subsequent section of the questionnaire asked a similar set of questions based upon their current, post-study abroad perception of the experience's outcomes and valences. The questionnaire concluded with basic demographic questions.

1.4.4 Data collection and analysis

Primary data was collected using a web-based survey. There was a second wave of requests to complete the questionnaire sent as a follow up to those who had not responded to the initial survey attempt, which increased the overall response rate. As there was no cost associated with a second email wave, the only additional cost of a follow up was that incurred in postage to reach those who received invitations to complete the survey by mail.

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS. Initial data analysis included running frequencies. A paired samples t-test was utilized to look for changes in the career-related variables from pre-experience to post-experience responses from the past participant population. A test of independent means was also utilized to compare the means on individual variables. These tests formed the basis of the test of H1 and H2. Multivariate analysis of variance (Manova) was utilized to test H3. Comparisons were also made between the U.S. and European sub-samples.

1.5 Outline of Chapters

The next chapters will discuss the existing body of knowledge, the research methodology, the data analysis, and the findings. Chapter 2, Literature Review, discusses previous studies as well as the benefits to studying abroad in more detail. Chapter 3, Methodology, details the model and hypotheses as well as the specific methodology of data collection, while Chapter 4, Data Analysis, provides a discussion of the findings of the study. Chapter 5, Discussion and Conclusions, details implications for students and universities, further describes the study's contribution to the existing body of knowledge, and outlines areas for future research.

1.6 Limitations

The present study utilized a population of past study abroad participants from 26 public universities in North America and Europe. Therefore, the results may not be fully generalizable to students from other geographic areas, such as South America, Africa, Asia, and Australia. Due to the pattern of enrollment of the participating institutions, this is a population of past students from mainly lower to middle

socioeconomic classes (Horn, Peter & Rooney 2002). In addition, there is geographic bias among the study's U.S. population since the U.S. universities at the time of the study were all in the Midwest and Midsouth in small to medium sized cities. Related potential limits to the generalizability of this study could include skewed ethnicity and subcultural characteristics.

There may also be geographic and cultural skewing of the European population. The past students from European universities included in this study are located in traditionally higher income western European countries. Past students from universities in traditionally lower income, emerging European countries (CIA 2007) were not included in the study due to the lack of member institutions in these countries.

The sample size was large enough to provide meaningful comparisons between different sub-samples; however, there was insufficient size to simultaneously further divide data into subgroups by specific nationality, gender, ethnicity, and other socio-demographic variables.

1.7 Key Terms

The following list provides an explanation of how several key terms are defined in this study.

- *Consortium* – A multi-member organization with the purpose of participating in a common activity. The Magellan Exchange is a consortium of higher education institutions who participate in the common activity of student exchange.

- *Foreign study experience* and *study abroad* – These terms refer to the act of a student from one country spending time in any other country for the purpose of an academic experience (e.g., semester abroad, faculty-led study tour, exchange program).

- *Exchange* – This indicates a two-way exchange of students: Student A spends the academic term at institution B, while student B spends the academic term at institution A. This constitutes a bi-lateral exchange between two institutions. The Magellan Exchange functions on a multi-lateral basis, exchanging students among many institutions.

- *Career choice.* Career choice is the choice of a particular occupation, job or role over time.

- *Marketability* – The individual's attractiveness as an employee to a prospective employer.

- *Employability*. Employability means capable of being employed. Employability skills are those 'identified by employers as good skills for all employees to have that are developed over time and are vital to the workplace' (Victoria DEECD 2009).

- *Starting salary*. A starting salary is the wage offered to a newly hired employee.

- *Job description*. A job description is best described as the detailed description of responsibilities and expected activities of a given position.

- *Promotability*. Promotability describes the degree to which an employee is worthy of a promotion.

- *Geographic location*. Geographic location refers to the location of a person. In the context of this study, it is the specific location where an employee works.

- *Scope of job responsibilities*. This variable refers to the range and type of responsibilities assigned to a particular employee.

1.8 Conclusion

Chapter 1 has introduced the basis of this dissertation. The research questions and hypotheses as well as the background to the research problem were defined. It outlined the justification for the theoretical foundation and the contribution to the research. Finally, chapter 1 presented an overview of the methodology, the limitations, and definitions of key terms. The next chapters provide much more detail on the research design and methodology and on the data collection, analysis, and findings.

CHAPTER 2 –LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter 2 provides a review of previous research studies pertaining to the personal, professional and academic benefits derived from studying abroad as well as the motivations to study abroad and the career implications of doing so. The chapter addresses the effects of culture on the desire to study abroad, the associated expectations and the perceived value by discussing several models of culture, including Hofstede's groundbreaking typology. In addition, this chapter provides justification for the theoretical framework of the present study to explore the impact of study abroad on participants' perceived job marketability and career choice. To do so, a discussion of expectancy valence theory, career development theory and goal setting theory is provided, followed by an introduction to the model that will serve as the foundation of the study.

Moreover, the chapter discusses the rationale for focusing on business students. Internationalization has increased the need for globally competent employees, and there is a need for business schools to develop study abroad programs for their students (Sneva 2011). Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the key ideas and gaps in the existing literature.

2.1 U.S. Study Abroad Participation

Universities in numerous industrialized countries, as well as emerging countries, are trying to increase student and faculty participation in international programs. Although participation rates in the Organization for Economic Cooperation and

Development (OECD) countries have doubled over the previous 20 years, the U.S. still sends comparatively few students abroad; only France and Great Britain send fewer (OECD 2004).

A recent survey of a broad cross-section of Americans revealed that 75 percent of respondents agreed that "unless our colleges and universities do a better job of teaching our students about the world, our children and grandchildren will not be prepared to compete in the global economy." Further, almost two-thirds agreed that foreign-language skills were essential or "young people will be at a competitive disadvantage in their careers." Finally, a majority of these respondents considered a study abroad program to be a "vital component of an education that prepares [students] for success in the global workplace" and that international education is "very or moderately essential to the educational experience" of students (Johnson 2011). In addition, Lopez et al. (2010) reported that nearly 30% of first year university students who were surveyed indicated that "the chances were good" that they would participate in a study abroad program. However, only about one percent of U.S. students enrolled in higher education spend time abroad during their academic program (NAFSA 2011).

Over the past 10 years, U.S. study abroad levels have doubled. However, participation is still relatively low with only a little more than 260,000 U.S. students studying abroad during the 2008-2009 academic year. Although the United Kingdom remains the number one destination sought by U.S. students, non-traditional destinations are increasing in popularity: 14 of the top 25 study abroad destinations are outside of Europe, while 19 of the top 25 are countries where

English is not the primary language. These non-traditional destinations include such places as Argentina, Chile, Peru, South Africa, South Korea, and China. More U.S. students in the social sciences field go abroad than in any other discipline; however, business and management students are the second highest group of participants (IIE 2010).

Short term programs (less than eight weeks) continue to grow in popularity among U.S. students and now represent the most frequently chosen program duration (55 percent of programs). Mid-length study abroad terms (one quarter to one semester) represent 41 percent of the programs, while longer programs (academic or calendar year) are chosen significantly less often (IIE 2010).

The preceding discussion of prior research and examination of participation data demonstrates that there is a gap between those who value a foreign study opportunity and those who actually pursue one.

2.1.1 Benefits of study abroad

The field of study abroad relies heavily on quantitative, survey research. Most prior studies cited in this section, and in subsequent sections of chapter 2, used surveys to examine certain aspects of internationalization.

Numerous studies have confirmed the positive effects experienced by students of study abroad, such as increasing an international outlook and interests (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011), promoting a positive attitude change, aiding in learning (Hensley & Sell 1979; Salter & Teger 1975 in Poole & Davis 2006; Winke & Teng 2010), enhancing awareness about global affairs (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011; Dwyer &

Peters 2004; Gogniat Eidemiller 2011; Hadis 2005; Lopez et al. 2010), developing maturity, improving self-awareness and self-confidence (Dwyer & Peters 2004; Gogniat Eidemiller 2011; Hadis 2005; Kneale 2008), and promoting intellectual and personal growth (Hadis 2005). Other benefits include enhancing foreign language fluency (Dwyer & Peters 2004; Franklin 2010; Hadis 2005; Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006), improving communication and interpersonal skills, developing greater flexibility and adaptability, and improving open-mindedness (Kneale 2008; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004) and cultural sensitivity and acceptance (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011; Lopez et al. 2010).

International experiences can also improve financial and professional potential as well as help to clarify professional goals and career paths. Including international experience on a resume is a valuable asset when searching for a job (Fischer 2010; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004), and the experience can enhance employability (Kneale 2008). For example, volunteering in the host country is one way to learn more about the community in which the student is living as well as to contribute to that community; in addition, it ensures that the 'experience has that extra "added value," i.e., something that can be added to a resume (think long term!)' (Rhodes & Ebner 2008, p. 51). This type of experience can signal to an employer that the individual is adaptable and can handle ambiguous situations (Gardner, Steglitz & Gross 2009; Opper 1991), as well as that they can work independently and identify problems and solutions (Gardner, Steglitz & Gross 2009).

Additionally, studying abroad demonstrates to an employer that the individual is mature, creative and willing to take initiative (Curran 2007). Although the merit of

the experience may not be the sole reason why someone is offered a job, it is looked favorably upon by many employers, and at the minimum can provide a talking point and a way to build rapport during the interview process (Fischer 2010). The key for students is to reflect upon their experience and discern what true skills they learned so as to articulate their experience on their resume and in an interview in a way that is meaningful and relevant to the employer (Fischer 2010; Gardner, Steglitz & Gross 2009).

Previous studies support benefits. A number of previous studies have affirmed the benefits of study abroad experiences. A summary of the key benefits identified by prior researchers is shown in Table 2.1.

In particular, two studies in recent years revealed a number of benefits of study abroad. One study was conducted by the Institute for European Studies (IES), now known as IES Abroad. IES Abroad is one of the oldest study abroad providers in the U.S, sending more than 5,000 U.S. students abroad annually and offering more than 80 programs in more than 30 cities around the world (IES Abroad 2011). IES Abroad conducted a longitudinal study of its past study abroad participants to determine the effects of international study experiences. The survey results indicated that study abroad experiences influenced the future academic pursuits of 87 percent of respondents; 63 percent reported that the influence caused them to change their major, while 64 percent decided to pursue graduate school. Approximately half of respondents ultimately pursued international work. Seventy-five percent of

Table 2.1: Key benefits of study abroad

Benefits \ Author	Salter & Teger (1975)	Hensley & Sell (1979)	Opper (1991)	Sidelhi, Dollinger & Doyle (2003)	Dwyer & Peters (2004)	Orahood, Kruze & Pearson (2004)	Hadis (2005)	Meuehls (2006)	Curran (2007)	Kneale (2008)	Gardner, Steglitz & Gross (2009)	Winke & Teng (2010)	Carley, Stuart & Dailey (2011)
Personal benefits of study abroad													
Improved communication & interpersonal skills				•		•		•		•			•
Improved problem-solving skills								•			◊		
Global awareness					•		•	•				•	•
Cultural sensitivity						•							•
Better understanding of own culture					•			•					
Maturity development					•		•		◊	•			
Improved self-awareness					•		•			•			
Improved self-confidence					•		•	•		•			
Personal growth							•	•					
Positive attitude	◊	•											
Improved creativity									◊				
Improved open-mindedness						•				•			
Willingness to take initiative									◊				
Improved flexibility & adaptability						•		•		•			
Better able to handle ambiguity			•		•						◊		
International outlook & interests													•
Academic benefits of study abroad													
Learning aid	◊	•											
Improved foreign language skills					•		•	•					
Intellectual growth							•						
Professional benefits of study abroad													
Improved financial & professional potential						•							
Awareness of international business methods				•									•
Better able to work independently											◊		

Note: Diamonds denote key benefits derived from theory, while dots represent key benefits confirmed by survey.

(Source: Developed for this study)

respondents believe they acquired skills while abroad that affected their career directions, and 62 percent pursued a career path that was sparked by their abroad experience (Dwyer & Peters 2004).

The study also revealed virtually all respondents (97 percent) felt increased maturity as a result of their abroad experience, while comparable levels of respondents reported more self-confidence and tolerance for ambiguity, as well as reported that the experience had a definitive impact on their world view. In addition, 98 percent of respondents reported that they became more understanding of their own cultural values, while 82 percent felt their experiences assisted with development of a broader world view. Most respondents (94 percent) still feel the effects of their study abroad experiences when interacting with those from other cultures, and 90 percent of respondents said they still try to improve the diversity of their friendships (Dwyer & Peters 2004).

This IES Abroad study confirmed many personal, academic and professional benefits of study abroad. An additional survey conducted by IES Abroad in 2007 confirmed these results. The subsequent research found that more than two-thirds (67 percent) of respondents said "that interest in building an international resume was an important factor in their decision to study abroad." Further, 63 percent said that their "study abroad experience improved career opportunities early in their careers" (IES Abroad 2007). President and Chief Executive Officer of IES, Mary Dwyer explained:

> These findings show that students are very savvy about the need for international experience, and how to use that experience to enhance their resumes. Our survey

> showed that career interests trump personal interests for today's students. Two out of three said that study abroad helped them develop skill sets that influenced their careers (IES Abroad 2007).

The findings of the IES Abroad studies were relevant to the present study on the impact of a foreign study experience, and the replication of part of their survey instrument was useful for the purposes of testing the present study's hypotheses and considering its guiding research questions. The present study seeks to increase the confidence of this study's results; in addition, the use of only a U.S. sample represents a weakness in the IES Abroad research, so the present study provides a means of expanding the existing body of knowledge by utilizing a different sample comprised of participants from various countries.

Another study was conducted using self-reported data from undergraduate participants of an independent research project as part of an SIT Study Abroad program offered by World Learning (Meuehls 2006), a not-for-profit organization with international education programs in over 75 countries. These programs, which include The Experiment in International Living, SIT Graduate Institute and SIT Study Abroad, connect more than 3,000 young people around the world every year for 'community-driven international development, training, and exchange projects' (World Learning 2009). The goal of this study, which had 584 study participants from the U.S., was to determine the effects of study abroad participation on program alumni's professional and academic choices as well as on their personal development with the use of a survey (Meuehls 2006).

The results of the study indicated the development of a number of skills. The development of cross-cultural and interpersonal communication skills was cited by

94 percent of respondents, while 83 percent cited improved problem solving skills. Two-thirds of respondents felt they improved their foreign language skills. In addition, respondents pointed out they improved their organizational, time management, listening, and networking skills as well as overcame their nervousness about approaching people (Meuehls 2006).

Meuehls (2006) asserted that 'intellectual competence cannot only be measured on students' academic achievements in a specific subject but also includes developments in communication skills, leadership skills, critical thinking, and self-confidence.' Participants in the study also noted that they made progress in these areas as well as in the area of personal growth (Meuehls 2006).

Virtually all respondents agreed that they had developed greater confidence in their ability to handle a challenge as well as more adaptability and tolerance of ambiguous situations, while 93 percent cited the development of an increased maturity level and 88 percent agreed they better understood their own cultural identity. In addition, respondents felt they had more confidence in their ability to lead as well as more awareness and interest in world events. Respondents also became more interested in interacting with people from other cultures (83 percent) and developed an altered view of the world (86 percent) as a result of their study abroad experience. The study revealed that almost all respondents felt their abroad experience affected their professional and academic choices (Meuehls 2006).

The study confirmed Meuehls' hypothesis that participation would significantly increase personal growth as well as influence educational and professional decisions

in the future. Meuehls reported that virtually all respondents felt their abroad experience was transformative and that it had impacted them on a variety of levels, providing memories and experiences they recall frequently (Meuehls 2006). This study had a similar research context in that it sought to reveal person, academic, and professional impacts of study abroad; however, Meuehls' (2006) study included only U.S. participants and did not have a particular field of study focus, in contrast to the present study which focused specifically on business students in multiple countries. While this study used a larger sample, the results are not necessarily generalizable to a broader population, whereas the present study offered a means of obtaining similar insight across a broader geographic area as well as in a more focused business context.

A recent study was conducted using study abroad participants from Dickinson College in the U.S. who graduated in 1998; they were surveyed just after the 10-year anniversary of their graduation. The purpose of this study was to assess the perceived long-term impact of a study abroad experience on professional development (Franklin 2010).

Seventy-three percent of respondents pursued careers that involve an international and/or multicultural dimension. Further, 42 percent indicated that their experience studying abroad influenced their career choice. The findings also revealed that those whose study abroad experience strongly influenced their career indicated the highest level of professional satisfaction. Nearly three-quarters of respondents felt that their international experience increased their job marketability. Other findings include an

enhanced ability to understand work place situations in a cultural context as well as improved problem-solving skills (Franklin 2010).

The study clearly indicates a strong impact by study abroad on professional development. Sixty-four percent of respondents felt that their international experience impacted their professional success, while 60 percent felt that it influenced their professional ethics. Moreover, 69 percent indicate that their study abroad experience continues to play a role in their professional development (Franklin 2010).

The personal learning experienced by past participants is also applicable to their professional outcomes. The development of foreign language skills, as well as intercultural competencies, can be applied professionally. Specifically, intercultural competencies identified by the study included enhancing knowledge and cultural understanding, gaining or changing perspective, developing self-awareness, improving cross-cultural communication skills, and improving personal growth (e.g., maturity, confidence, independence) (Franklin 2010).

Like the studies conducted by IES Abroad (Dwyer & Peters 2004) and Meuehls (2006), Franklin's (2010) study identified benefits of study abroad by surveying participants; however, this study focused on a U.S. sample of former study abroad participants, specifically from one particular school. While revealing insightful findings in regard to beneficial features of the foreign study experience, the findings are not necessarily generalizable to a larger population, given the particular sample.

This is an important difference from the present study which used a sample of students from multiple countries and schools.

While much of the existing research is based on survey research, the Poole and Davis (2006) study used an exploratory approach that combined quantitative and qualitative research, specifically concept mapping. The study focused on a small sample of U.S. social work students and revealed outcomes such as personal knowledge and growth as well as improved decision making and impacts on values and beliefs. Though the study utilized a small sample in a limited geographic area, its use of concept mapping was the first methodological application on study abroad (Poole & Davis 2006).

The studies conducted by IES Abroad (Dwyer & Peters 2004), Meuehls (2006), Franklin (2010), and Poole and Davis (2006), as well as the studies compared in Table 2.1, confirm a variety of benefits derived from a study abroad experience. These range from personal benefits to academic benefits to professional benefits. The studies' findings resulted from the use of different sample groups; the present study, which uses a different sample group (i.e., multicultural respondents who participated in The Magellan Exchange) will add to the existing body knowledge and will improve the level of confidence that the findings indicated in Table 2.1 will be more generalizable to an overall study abroad participant group.

2.1.2 Impact of study abroad program duration

The above studies' results illustrate the benefits that can be derived from study abroad experiences. Traditional thinking has been that the longer a student spends

abroad (e.g., one year or more), the more meaningful is the international experience. Although not all students can spend an extended amount of time overseas on a program, the value of a longer term program cannot be overlooked. For example, one student at Dickinson College spent a year in Spain; the first semester he studied and the following semester he worked with a nonprofit organization called The Movement Against Intolerance. By working with children to learn conflict resolution he affirmed his career goal of teaching Spanish and working with children (Leggett 2006).

Although data shows there has been a dramatic increase in the percentage of students studying abroad, there has also been a decline in participation rates for experiences of one year or more. Programs of only one quarter of a semester or less have increased in popularity (IIE 2010).

The aforementioned IES Abroad study also provided insight into the impact of study abroad program duration. Their pilot study was conducted in 1999 using 10 percent of IES Abroad's alumni participants from the US. Responses to open ended questions helped with the formulation and refinement of questions used in the subsequent 2002 longitudinal survey. These survey questions could be categorized as 'basic demographics, impact of key study abroad elements, and impact of study abroad on select behaviors, attitudes and specific achievements,' while results corresponded to 'general findings, academic attainment, intercultural development, career impact and personal growth' (Dwyer 2004, p. 154). IES Abroad sent their survey to 17,000 alumni who were IES Abroad participants between 1950 and 2000; factoring out the number of alumni who were not reached due to outdated addresses,

IES Abroad achieved a 25 percent response rate. The confidence level of results was 95 percent. No control was used so it was not possible to infer causation (Dwyer 2004).

According to the results, one-year participants were more likely to have gone abroad to acquire foreign language skills, and they were more likely to have considered study abroad opportunities when choosing their university. This was particularly significant for those who studied abroad in the 1990s; three times as many participants as those in the 1950s considered this criterion. This finding seems to suggest a trend toward student consideration of the ability to study abroad when conducting their university decision making (Dwyer 2004).

Full-year participants were more likely to increase their confidence in foreign language ability and more likely to live with a host family or host country roommate. In addition, they were more likely to change their major or their university and were slightly more likely to pursue a graduate degree. These findings seem to suggest that those who spent more time abroad became more interested in new academic endeavors (Dwyer 2004).

Those studying for less than one year were less likely than full year students to participate in international work. Full year students were more likely to work for multinationals and to speak another language at work. In addition, full year study abroad experiences were much more likely to have caused those participants to change their career direction than did shorter study abroad experiences (Dwyer 2004).

The IES Abroad longitudinal study's results supported the idea that the longer the study abroad experience, the more meaningful it is. The results showed that 'study abroad has a significant impact on students in the areas of continued languages use, academic attainment measures, intercultural and personal development, and career choices' (Dwyer 2004, p. 161).

This longitudinal study provided valuable insight into the benefits derived from study abroad and accessed a large sample of past study abroad participants, which allowed for useful comparisons. However, the study is not generalizable to other countries since all respondents were from the U.S.

The value of short-term programs, which are growing in popularity among U.S. students (IIE 2010), cannot be overlooked though. Participants report such benefits as increasing international interests and outlooks and improving global awareness (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011), as well as expanding the process of meaning-making and critical thinking (Ritz 2011).

The present study has an opportunity to expand upon these results by also examining cultural differences as well as a wider variety of career-related variables and outcomes. Though the present study was expected to confirm that a longer study abroad experience would be more meaningful than a shorter experience, this study is not specifically addressing long versus short term programs; therefore, if the findings support differences in relation to duration, this could indicate an area to be further explored in the future.

2.2 Effects of Culture in the Conceptual Framework of the Study

Program duration has been found to impact the study abroad experience (Dwyer 2004), as has culture. Culture affects all aspects of people's decision making processes and behavior as well as their career choices and work (Lufkin & Byars-Winston 2009). The concept of work carries different meanings in different groups based upon historical, political, cultural and social experiences (Byars-Winston 2010). From a cultural reference point, 'work is a functional aspect of life in that individuals contribute their skills and labor to their cultural societies and the maintenance of their families' (Carter & Cook 1992, p. 199), and so 'the meaning of work, the value placed on it, and the expectations about who should perform what types of work reflect the society in which work is organized' (Fouad & Byars-Winston 2005, p. 223). Farrell and Horvath (1999) asserted that 'career choices are made on the basis of interpretation of past experiences, including intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for academic and work tasks' (p. 19).

Culture has been defined in hundreds of ways, which speaks to how intangible and elusive the concept is (Keegan & Green 2011). Moran et al. asserts:

> Culture is a distinctly human means of adapting to circumstances and transmitting this coping skill and knowledge to subsequent generations. Culture gives people a sense of who they are, of belonging, of how they should behave, and of what they should be doing. Culture impacts behavior, morale, and productivity at work, and includes values and patterns that influence company attitudes and actions. Culture is dynamic. Cultures change…but slowly. Culture is often considered the driving force behind human behavior everywhere (Moran et al. 2007, p. 6).

The general consensus of the primary features of culture is that culture is learned and not inherited; is shared among those in a group (e.g., country) (Kelly 2009; Luthans & Doh 2012); is transgenerational (i.e., passed down through generations); is

symbolic and patterned; and is adaptive (Luthans & Doh 2012). Further, culture is intangible and must be inferred (Keegan & Green 2011).

Culture is correlated with language and religion variables. Language determines how norms and values are communicated. There are differences in language in terms of structure, dialects, and slang. Moreover, non-verbal language is an important communication method and can vary significantly across cultures. Religion is also correlated with culture. Its norms and values are seen in the ways of life of its followers, as well as in the ways of life of those in the secular population (Keegan & Green 2011; Kelly 2009).

2.2.1 Cultural models

There is more than one way to explain culture. Table 2.2 compares and contrasts two such ways to describe culture; these models demonstrate how culture impacts a variety of things. Differences in culture play an integral role in the present study, specifically in relation to values, beliefs, attitudes, and sense of self which are considered in the following table.

One model for assessing cultures is represented by several categories which are useful for understanding a micro- or macro-culture as well as for studying groups of people. This model provides a means for systematically examining people (Moran et al 2007).

Schmitz created a different model identifying several concepts, some of which are similar to the above model's concepts (e.g., time, space, communication). This

model can further be useful for understanding cultures (Moran et al. 2007). Refer to Table 2.2 for a comparison of the two models.

Together, both models demonstrate how deeply culture permeates all societies. Cultural differences will likely affect study abroad participants' values, expectations and perceptions. These two models are relevant to the European and American clusters in this study because they help explain how different cultures view relatively fundamental concepts.

2.2.2 Hofstede's cultural typology

Beyond these models lies possibly the most quoted cross-country cultural comparison: that of Geert Hofstede. While his groundbreaking work has provided insight into cross-cultural relationships, it has not been without criticism; however, those in favor of the value and usefulness of his work outweigh those who are less supportive of his observations and analysis. Jones (2007) asserts that:

> After weighing the evidence, including observing a dialogue between Hofstede and his antagonists, a greater argument exists which supports Hofstede than exists which dispute his work…the majority of his findings, have weathered the storms of time and will continue to guide multi-national practitioners into the 'global' future (p. 1).

Hofstede defined culture as 'the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others' (Hofstede nd). Hofstede conducted research using data pertaining to values which was collected from a sample of IBM employees in over 70 countries during the period of 1967 to 1973. Initially, he examined only the 40 largest, but he later expanded to 50 countries in 3 regions. Subsequent studies have been done using a sample of up-market consumers in 15 countries, a sample of airline pilots in 23 countries, and a

Table 2.2: Comparison of cultural models

Categories	Model #1	Model #2
Sense of Self & Space	Self-identity vs. group conformity; physical distance	Individualistic vs. collectivist; personal vs. private space
Communication & Language	Language, gestures, non-verbal	High context (non-verbal) vs. low context (explicit communication)
Dress & Appearance	Types of clothing; body decorations; adornments	
Food & Feeding Habits	What is eaten, how it is eaten, and how it is prepared	
Time & Time Consciousness	Punctuality; segmentation of time (e.g., sunrise/sunset, seasons)	Past orientation vs. present orientation vs. future orientation
Competitiveness		Cooperative vs. comparative
Values & Norms	Behavioral norms derived by value sets	
Relationships	Families/households; physical place in house	
Beliefs & Attitudes	Supernatural and/or religious beliefs	
Environment		Control, harmony, constraint
Work Habits & Practices	Division of labor, work habits, work practices, gender roles	
Action		Being vs. doing
Power		Hierarchy orientation vs. equality orientation
Structure		Flexibility vs. order
Thinking		Deductive vs. inductive
Mental Processes & Learning	How a society learns and reasons	

(Source: Moran et al, 2007)

sample of civil service managers in 14 countries; these studies have validated the results of the original study.

As Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov (2010) point out the concept of a common culture belonging to societies, within nations there exist strong forces toward integration such as a national language. On the other hand, there is also a tendency for ethnic, religious and linguistic groups to fight for their own identity. Nevertheless, to study cultural differences data is often collected at a national level and within a culture, values are seen as forming the core of culture.

Through his studies, Hofstede recognized that a comparison of various cultures could be done based upon five dimensions: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. These dimensions refer to expected social behavior, "man's search for the Truth," and importance of time (Hofstede nd).

Hofstede's first dimension, power distance, indicates 'the extent to which less powerful members of a society accept and expect that power is distributed unequally' (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010, p. 88). Individuals in some countries expect and accept an unequal power distribution, while people in other cultures would be far less likely to accept this. Cultures with large power distance have inhabitants with a rightful place in their society's hierarchy (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010).

Individualism, the second dimension in Hofstede's cultural typology, refers to the extent to which people in a society are individually minded. The people in individualist cultures tend to be primarily concerned with the interests of themselves

and their immediate family, while those in a collectivist culture are more readily integrated into groups. The United States is very individualistic, while many Asian cultures fall into the collectivist category. Individualistic societies embrace individual achievements and put great emphasis on self-actualization; however, people are conscious of the "we" in collectivist cultures (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010).

The third identified dimension is masculinity. Masculine societies tend to place men in assertive and ambitious roles, while women fulfill a nurturing role. Conversely, men and women's roles overlap in feminine cultures (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010).

Uncertainty avoidance refers to the extent of individuals' dislike for unclear or ambiguous situations. Some cultures are much more tolerant of uncertainty, while other countries require more structure and certainty. Low levels of uncertainty avoidance mean a society is more accepting of risk taking. Alternately, high levels would indicate a need for more structure and more resistance to change (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010).

Hofstede added the fifth dimension, long-term orientation, because certain dimensions of the Asian culture were not explained by his initial typology using four dimensions. Long-term orientation refers to a culture's sense of immediacy. Cultures with a short-term orientation favor immediate gratification while long-term oriented cultures are satisfied with a deferred gratification (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010).

Hofstede plotted countries on a series of two-dimensional graphs. In terms of the countries represented in the present study, Hofstede found Mexico to be a collectivist, masculine society, while all of the European and Anglo (i.e., U.S.) countries were found to be individualistic; the U.S. though was different than the European countries in that it was the most individualistic (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005).

In terms of masculinity versus uncertainty avoidance, the U.S. was shown to be a masculine culture with relatively weak uncertainty avoidance. Mexico and most of the European countries in the present study had relatively stronger uncertainty avoidance. Further, when long-term orientation was considered versus the GNP per capita growth rate from 1970-2000, the U.S. was found to have a shorter-term orientation compared to the other countries in the present study, except Spain (Hofstede & Hofstede 2005).

In most of the above comparisons, the U.S. was different from Mexico and different from the relevant European countries. Since cultural differences were found in Hofstede's study, it is expected that there will also be differences in the perceived value of study abroad when examined in a cultural context.

2.2.3 GLOBE study

A more recent cultural project was undertaken by a research team at the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton Business School in the U.S. With 170 researchers in over 60 countries, the GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) Study's objective is:

> To determine the extent to which the practices and values of business leadership are universal (i.e., are similarly globally), and the extent to which they are specific to just a few societies (Grove 2007, np).

Initially, the researchers decided upon independent variables to be used; these would allow them to be precise about organizational and societal cultural similarities and differences. Overlapping some dimensions noted by previous research, they determined nine "cultural dimensions" which served as their measurement standards: performance orientation, institutional collectivism, gender egalitarianism, uncertainty avoidance, in-group collectivism, future orientation, humane orientation, assertiveness, and power distance. The GLOBE team's primary research question pertained to 'the extent to which the values and practices associated with leadership are either universal (worldwide) or specific to just a few societies' (Grove 2007, np). In addition, they addressed leadership attributes that have an impact on business leadership (Grove 2007).

From these efforts, the GLOBE research team uncovered 22 universal positives; these attributes are generally considered to contribute to 'outstanding business leadership, including "trustworthy," "motive arouser," and "excellence oriented"' (Grove 2007, np). They discovered eight universal negatives; these attributes are considered to be 'inhibiting outstanding business leadership, including "irritable" and "dictatorial"' (Grove 2007, np). Finally, the team uncovered 35 culturally contingent attributes. Depending on the society, these are viewed as either promoting or impeding effective leadership. Some of these culturally contingent attributes are '"cunning," "evasive," "class conscious," and "sensitive"' (Grove 2007, np).

Moreover, the findings of the GLOBE Study identified a set of "culturally endorsed leadership theory dimensions" (CLTs). Similar to what one might call leadership styles, they are generally regarded as dimensions that contribute to or inhibit effective business leadership (Grove 2007). Regarding these dimensions, the GLOBE research team asserted:

> When individuals think about effective leader behaviors, they are more influenced by the value they place on the desired future than their perception of current realities. Our results, therefore, suggest that leaders are seen as the society's instruments for change. They are seen as the embodiment of the ideal state of affairs (House et al. 2004, p. 275-6).

The CLT called "Charismatic/value based" encompasses the business leader's ability to motivate and inspire based upon his or her core values. The charismatic/value based dimension was usually associated with '"self-sacrifice," "integrity," "decisive," and "performance oriented"' (Grove 2007, np). All researched cultures viewed this CLT as a substantial contributor to outstanding leadership. Of the researched cultures, Middle Eastern cultures associated it the least (although still higher than the mid-point), while Anglo cultures (e.g., U.S.) associated it the most (Grove 2007).

Emphasizing efforts toward a common purpose and team-building, the team oriented CLT was the second highest dimension associated with outstanding leadership. Like the charismatic/value based dimension, the team-oriented dimension was viewed by all cultures as a substantial contributor. Again, of the researched cultures, Middle Eastern cultures associated it the least. Latin American cultures associated it the most (Grove 2007).

The participative CLT refers to how much managers seek involvement by others in the decision-making and implementation processes. Most positively associating the participative dimension with outstanding leadership was Germanic Europe, while the Middle Eastern cultures held the least positive association (Grove 2007).

The humane oriented dimension refers to the qualities of generosity and compassion as well as supportive leadership. The humane oriented CLT was viewed universally as a moderate contributor to outstanding leadership. Nordic Europe scored this dimension at the mid-point, while Southern Asia scored it the highest, though still moderate (Grove 2007).

Universally seen as not contributing to outstanding leadership, the self-protective dimension 'focuses on ensuring the safety and security of the individual or group' and 'can reflect being status- and class-conscious, evasive, ritualistic, procedural, normative, secretive, indirect, self-centered, and asocial' (Grove 2007, n.p.). Southern Asian cultures scored the self-protective CLT the highest (just under the mid-point), while Nordic Europe considered this dimension to reflect a lack of leadership (Grove 2007).

Referring to individualistic, independent leadership, the autonomous CLT, too, was universally viewed as a dimension that does not contribute to outstanding leadership. Scores centered around the mid-point, with Eastern Europe ranking it the highest at just above the mid-point and Latin American cultures ranking it the lowest at just below the mid-point (Grove 2007).

Both the Hofstede and GLOBE studies acknowledge that there are clusters of countries in different regions. For example, GLOBE differentiates an 'Anglo cluster,' which includes countries such as the United State, United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, South Africa and Ireland, in contrast to four European clusters, namely a Germanic Europe cluster (Austria, Germany, Switzerland, Netherlands), a Latin Europe cluster (France, Spain, Portugal) and an Eastern European cluster (Greece, Russia) (Chhokar, Brodbeck & House 2008). Like Hofstede's cultural typology, the GLOBE study demonstrates how cultures can be differentiated by certain dimensions. The present study, too, will show how culture affects perceptions of study abroad.

2.2.4 Relevancy of culture

The models introduced at the beginning of section 2.2.1, along with Hofstede's typology and the GLOBE study, show how culture affects every aspect of our lives; in addition, Hofstede's typology and the GLOBE study demonstrate how countries can be clustered by cultural similarities. Though these studies show that countries can be clustered differently, the preceding discussion of culture demonstrates the importance of considering the effects of culture in the context of this study. It is difficult to make broad generalizations about university students as a whole, for example, when those students are coming from a variety of cultures. It was anticipated that there would be differences in expectancies, values, and perceptions when examined, for the sake of simplicity, in the context of country of origin comparisons, though it is acknowledged that many nations are now multicultural and

multilingual. Consequently, the following cross-cultural null hypotheses (H) should be tested to ascertain the impact of culture in the present study:

H3.1: European and U.S. students will have the same expectations regarding career-related variables prior to the study abroad experience.*

H3.2: European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables prior to the study abroad experience.*

H3.3: European and U.S. students will perceive the same outcomes regarding the career-related variables after the study abroad experience.*

H3.4: European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables after the study abroad experience.*

* These career-related variables include 1) career choice, 2) employability, 3) starting salary, 4) job description, 5) promotability, 6) geographic location, and 7) scope of job responsibilities after the study abroad experience. A brief description of each variable as they relate to the present study was included in section 1.7.

2.2.5 Previous studies that included a cultural component

Several previous studies have examined the effect of culture on study abroad-related variables such as motivations and barriers. Table 2.3 summarizes some key findings of these studies.

One of the studies, conducted by Di Pietro and Page (2008), used representative samples of third year university students from Italy and France who participated in the Erasmus program to explore the determinants of study abroad participation. Italy and France were chosen since they send some of the largest numbers of outgoing students in Erasmus. The study recognized that students choose from among three

Table 2.3: Findings of previous studies with a cultural component

Authors	Methodology	Purpose/Description	Major Findings
Gerner & Perry (2000)	Sample of U.S. high school students who had never lived abroad; sample of U.S. students studying at international schools in Egypt & Thailand; sample of non-U.S. students studying at the international schools	Examined effects of culture and gender	• Females more receptive to other cultures, international careers, foreign languages, and travel, regardless of whether or not they'd lived abroad • Females who'd lived abroad more interested in living abroad than those who hadn't lived abroad (living abroad is critical to piquing interest) • Males who lived abroad showed a greater difference in being culturally accepting than males who'd always lived in the U.S.
Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang (2006)	Sample of international students from the U.S., France & China; surveyed while they were studying abroad	Examined cultural influence on decision making in relation to study abroad by looking at motivations and barriers; used expectancy theory as a framework	• All countries expressed the same barriers, though to differing degrees • Primary motivations: learn a new language (American); search for a new experience (French); improve social situation, search for a new experience, search for travel, and search for liberty/pleasure almost equally motivating (Chinese) • Commonalities with regard to motivations and barriers but the underlying items defining each were different among the three countries' students • Nationality influences motivations and intentions to study abroad
Di Pietro & Page (2008)	Sample of third year university students from Italy & France who participated in the Erasmus1 program	Explored determinants of study abroad participation; used independent variables of parents' education, family income, academic ability, family commitments, foreign language, and nationality as predictors for participation	• Most participated to gain cultural experience • Students from new EU countries more motivated by quality academic settings, improved foreign language skills, improved career opportunities • Parents' education was a significantly stronger influence than parents' income

(Source: Developed for this study)

[1] Over the last 20 years, the Erasmus program, a program available to a network of universities throughout Europe, has facilitated study abroad experiences for 1.4 million European students who wished to study in another European country.

main options: not studying abroad, studying abroad through the Erasmus program, and studying abroad through another program (Di Pietro & Page 2008).

The study revealed that most of the Erasmus participants studied abroad in order to gain a cultural experience. However, students from new European Union members were more motivated by the opportunity to study in quality academic settings and to improve foreign language skills, as well as to improve their career opportunities and acquire a better understanding of the host country. In addition, the results indicated that foreign study experiences can help participants to secure a certain job. The experiences also increase the likelihood that a participant will be geographically mobile in the future (Di Pietro & Page 2008).

Gerner and Perry (2000) conducted a study of gender differences in cultural acceptance and career orientation using a sample of U.S. high school students who had never lived abroad, a sample of U.S. students studying at international schools in Egypt and Thailand, and a sample of non-U.S. students studying at the international schools. Results of the study revealed gender differences in both the U.S. sample groups used (Gerner & Perry 2000).

Furthermore, the study showed that when considering only the U.S. abroad and non-U.S. abroad samples as one group, females showed a more positive receptivity toward 'the areas of Cultural Acceptance, Language, Travel, Stereotype and Future Orientation to an international career' (Gerner & Perry 2000, p. 279), but the main differences were shown between U.S. males and U.S. females living abroad. The researchers posit that this could be because non-U.S. students have more experience

with travel and internationalization than do their U.S. counterparts (e.g., Europeans are more accustomed to easily crossing borders) (Gerner & Perry 2000).

Perhaps one of the most similar studies to the present one is that undertaken by Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006). It explored the determinants of study abroad by using a sample of U.S., French and Chinese university students while they were abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). This study will be discussed in more detail in section 2.5.1.

2.3 Motivational Theories as a Framework for the Present Study

The above discussions illustrated the benefits of studying abroad and the importance of connecting the experiences to career goals and professional development. The present study seeks to expand the existing body of knowledge by examining the implications of business student internationalization and the cultural differences among various countries. To do so, a framework is established that uses expectancy valence theory as well as career decision and goal setting theories.

The majority of contemporary approaches to motivations are rooted in hedonism. The integral assumption of this principle is that behavior is affected by the desire to seek pleasure and avoid pain; people consider a set of alternatives and choose the one that they perceive will minimize pain and maximize pleasure. There were limits to the hedonism doctrine though; there was no way to test the hedonistic assumption and no empirical evidence. One could explain behavior after it occurs by assuming sources of pain or pleasure, but behavior could not be predicted (Weiner 2010).

Contemporary approaches have been led by two primary groups of psychologists who have sought to move the hedonism doctrine to a testable theory and who have created different models by focusing on different problems. Using a behavioral emphasis, the first group of psychologists has focused on learning. Their empirical foundation has been the law of effect. Thorndike (1911) noted:

> Of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction to the animal will, other things being equal, be more firmly connected with the situation, so that, when it recurs, they will be more likely to recur; those which are accompanied or closely followed by discomfort to the animal will, other things being equal, have their connections with that situation weakened, so that when it recurs, they will be less likely to occur. The greater the satisfaction or discomfort, the greater is the strengthening or weakening of the bond (Thorndike 1911, p. 244).

The law of effect explained how behavior is directed away from pain and toward pleasure; however, it did not determine the outcomes that are painful or those that are pleasurable. Although subjects could be asked to identify experiences that were painful or pleasurable, the law of effect could not identify these experiences in advance (Weiner 2010).

The second group of psychologists focused on cognitive theories of behavior. In the 1930s, Tolman and Lewin advocated theories that assumed that opinions, beliefs and expectations were present among their subjects; their models were influenced by hedonism. Tolman considered behavior to be influenced by expectations, specifically that ‘what one does depends on what one is going to get multiplied by the subjective likelihood of getting it’ (Weiner 2010, p. 29). Meanwhile, Lewin posited that ‘an object acquires a valance and, therefore, motivational properties only after there is a need’ (Weiner 2010, p. 29).

In this study the researcher chose to focus on expectancy valence theory and goal setting theory as motivational theories, both of which are further discussed below.

2.3.1 Expectancy valence theory

Similar to other researchers (e.g., Lewin, Tolman), Vroom introduced a cognitive model based upon the assumption that choices among courses of action are related to 'psychological events occurring contemporaneously with the behavior' (Vroom 1964, p. 14-15). Essentially, Vroom's model assumed that 'at any given point in time, a person has preferences among outcomes…preference refers to a relationship between the strength of a person's desire for, or attraction toward, two outcomes' (Vroom 1964, p. 15). Vroom's model of expectancy theory believes motivation to be determined by a person's expectation of outcomes as a result of his or her action. Today, expectancy theory is still a highly regarded theory of motivation (Vroom 2005). This model of expectancy theory contains several basic components (Radosevich et al. 2009) as indicated in Figure 2.1.

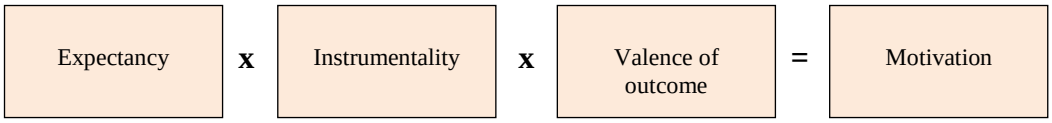

Figure 2.1: Basic components of expectancy theory model

(Source: Developed from Radosevich et al. 2009)

Expectancy theory addresses how a person is motivated to pursue outcomes (Radosevich et al. 2009). Vroom identified *outcomes* as the consequences of certain behaviors. He proposed that there are first-level outcomes and second-level outcomes, those that result after a first-level outcome and are most relevant to the

individual (e.g., sense of accomplishment). These second-level outcomes can be extrinsic or intrinsic in nature (Vroom 1964). The probability that a specific second-level outcome will follow a first-level outcome is known as *instrumentality*, while *valence* is 'one's evaluation of the attractiveness of the outcomes' (Radosevich et al. 2009, p. 187). *Expectancy* is defined as 'one's belief that effort leads to performance' (Radosevich et al. 2009, p. 187), or the probability that a particular first-level outcome can be achieved. This is represented by a 0-1 scale, where 1=absolutely certain (Stecher & Rosse 2007).

Based upon expectancy theory, a person would choose whichever first-level outcome is most positive, or least negative (Vroom 1964); however, if an outcome's expectancy is zero, a person will not be motivated to pursue it, no matter how high the outcome's valence is. Essentially, expectancy theory proposes that a person will be motivated to pursue an outcome that he or she values (i.e., finds attractive) and that he or she expects to achieve (Radosevich et al. 2009). Although individuals may find themselves in a situation where their first-level outcomes are identical, their expectancies, instrumentalities, valences, and second-level outcomes will differ dependent upon their personal perceptions and perspectives (Martin & Dowson 2009).

In the case of study abroad, it is important for advisors to try to make clear the paths from first- and second-level outcomes, and then to assist students with clearly seeing that the first-level outcome (i.e., going abroad) is instrumental for obtaining second-level outcomes with positive valences (e.g., better paying job) and for avoiding second-level outcomes with negative valences (e.g., lack of global skills).

Measurement of valence. Outcomes' valences are related to needs and motives (Vroom 2005). There are various approaches to measuring valence. One way is with verbal reports. A person can be asked to identify if an event is unattractive or undesirable (attractive or desirable); this event, then, could be assumed to have negative (positive) valence. Furthermore, this approach can be used to measure the relative attractiveness or unattractiveness of outcomes or events by asking the subject to use a standardized judgment scale or to make comparative judgments (Vroom 1964).

A second approach uses the analysis of fantasy to infer motives. People are asked to tell stories about pictures; the frequency of different imagery in their content is then scored. Another way of measuring valence is to examine how outcomes create learning. This measure is the 'amount or rate of change in response probability when the outcome is made contingent on the response' (Vroom 1964, p. 22).

The next approach to the measurement of valence is to infer the valence of an outcome from the specific choices someone makes from among alternative choices. If someone has two outcome choices, *a* and *b*, and *a* is selected, one can infer that *a* is more positively valent than *b*, and vice versa. Finally, the time it takes to make a decision can be used to infer the valence differences among outcomes, though not which is more positively or negatively valent. The instant choice of *a* over *b* can indicate a large difference in valences, while an extended decision time would indicate that there is little difference between the choices' valences (Vroom 1964).

In the case of study abroad, it is important for advisors to help students assess the valence of their options. Some universities utilize returning students as a means of promoting study abroad opportunities; a returning student, for example, could give a verbal presentation on their experience, including details about the location and types of courses and extracurricular activities available there. A prospective study abroad participant could then be asked to assess the valence they associate with these aspects in order to determine if they assign an overall positive valence to this kind of experience. This could assist students with determining which kind(s) of experiences (i.e., study abroad options) are the most attractive and desirable.

Another way an advisor could assist a prospective study abroad participant with measuring valences is by presenting a variety of options (i.e., outcomes) to students. For example, the advisor could explain to a student that there are options available in Asia, Europe, and South America. If the student immediately says they are not interested in Asian cultures, then one can infer a low valence associated with studying abroad in Asia.

Manipulating the valence of outcomes. There are a variety of assumptions surrounding the manipulation of the valence of outcomes. One assumption is that communicating information about the desirability of a choice can affect the valence of that choice. If someone is told that choice *a* is more attractive or has more positive attributes than choice *b*, the selection of choice *a* is assumed able to be induced (Vroom 1964).

Learning also plays a role in ascertaining the valence of outcomes. Previous studies have shown that 'outcomes which were previously neutral can acquire rewarding or aversive properties as a result of being associated contiguously with established rewards and punishments' (Vroom 1964, p. 24).

In the case of study abroad, advisors can reinforce the positive attributes of studying abroad when speaking to students individually or when giving presentations for a group of students. It could be useful to provide examples of previous participants and what they are doing now or how they used the experience to their advantage. For example, an advisor could speak about how a student who spent a semester in Germany was able to use her experience abroad to win a competitive internship in Washington, D.C., after which she was offered a highly sought after full-time position. By demonstrating the rewards to prospective participants, advisors are better able to manipulate the valences.

Measurement of expectancy. There are several ways to measure the expectancy of an outcome, although none are perfect. Like the measurement of valence, verbal reports can used to determine the individual's assumption of the probability of an outcome. If the individual says he is positive that outcome will result from a particular course of action, the expectancy is 1.0; if he says there is a 50/50 chance, the expectancy is .50 (Stecher & Rosse 2007).

Expectancy can be measured by inferring it from actual decisions or choices. Generally related to mathematical probabilities, psychological probabilities can be measured, for example, by examining what an individual is willing to wager on a

chance to win a prize. If he is willing to wager $10 on a chance to win a $100 prize, the probability is assumed to be .10 (Vroom 1964).

Manipulating expectancies. There are a few approaches to manipulating expectancies. One is to assume perfect correspondence of expectancies with objective probabilities. Under this assumption, if the actual probability of an outcome is certain, 1.0, the expectancy is also 1.0. Likewise, if actual probability is .25, the expectancy is .25. This approach would only be appropriate if an individual has experience with particular courses of action; if the individual has had little experience, it would be unwise to assume that his expectancy mirrors the actual probability (Vroom 1964).

A second approach is to communicate probabilities. If an individual is told that an outcome is certain after a particular action, one can assume the individual will have an expectancy of 1.0. If the individual is told the probability of a particular response to an outcome is somewhat uncertain, his expectancy will be something less than 1.0. This approach is reasonable if the individual trusts the person communicating the probability and if he has little experience with judging the probabilities himself (Vroom 1964).

Another way to manipulate expectancies is to tie them to the proportion of times the individual experienced the outcome after the action. If the individual has performed an act several times and received the same outcome each time, one can assume his expectancy the next time is 1.0. Conversely, if he has experienced the outcome only half the time, one can assume a .50 expectancy (Vroom 1964).

Figure 2.2 summarizes the preceding discussion of Vroom's (1964) model of valence, expectancy and force.

2.3.1.1 Determinants of expectancies and valence as they relate to study abroad

Schwartz (2005) believed a universal value called stimulation was connected to some lower order motivations. Examples of these types of motivations would be a desire to live an exciting life and a desire to be adventuresome. If a student places value on stimulation, then he or she may decide to study abroad. This may be viewed as a situation which would allow the student to be independent, to see or do exciting things, and to experience something new and daring. However, there may be both positive and negative outcomes of doing this, all of which the student must evaluate (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

Negative outcomes could include familial pressure to stay near home, loss of job, insufficient university support and encouragement, and more debt from the associated costs of going abroad (e.g., roundtrip airfare, travel expenses while exploring the new location, exchange rate implications), while positive outcomes could include learning a new language, experiencing a new culture, and improving his or her chances of finding an international job (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

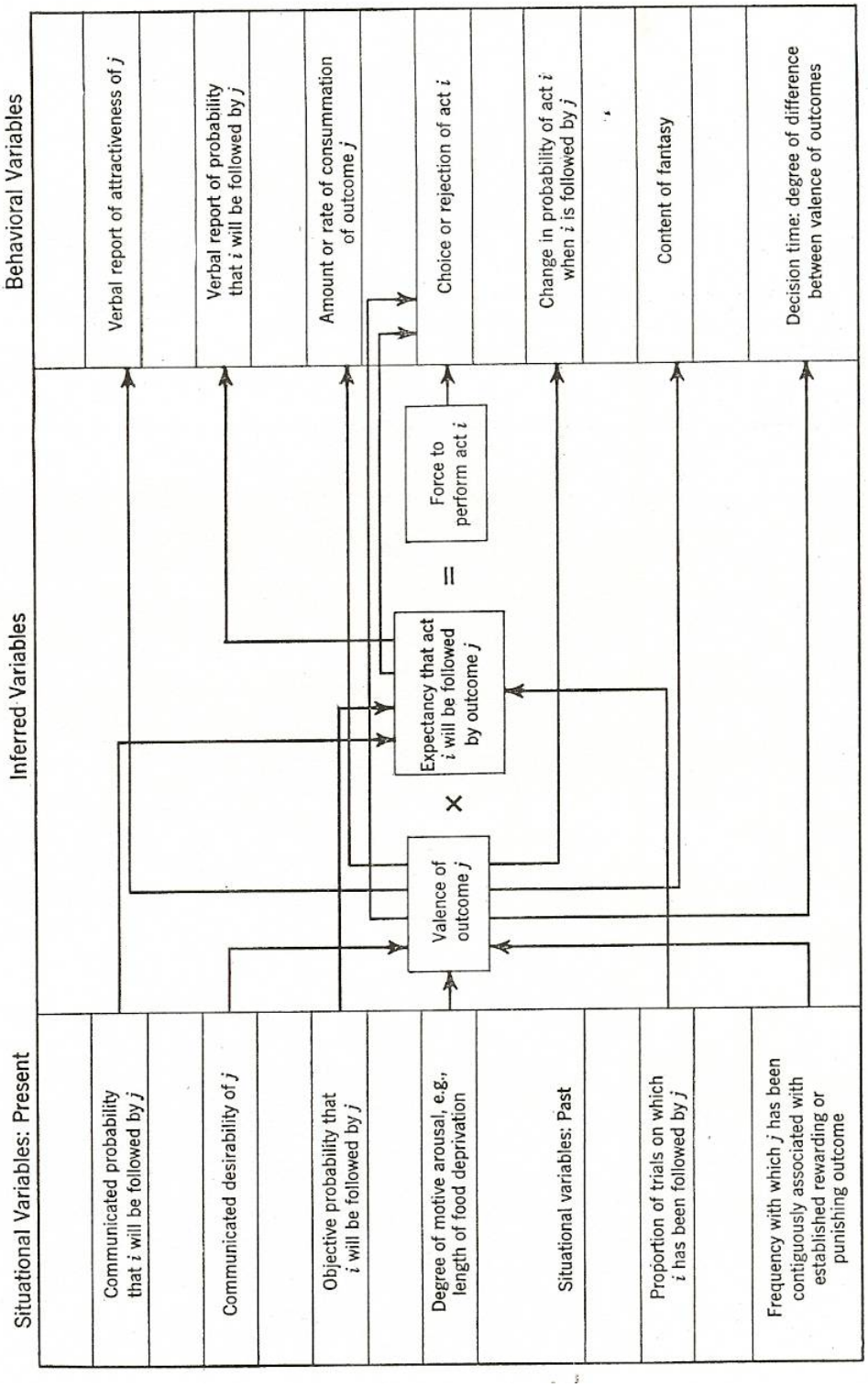

Figure 2.2: Empirical components of expectancy valence model

(Source: Vroom 1964, p. 27)

In this example, if the student's subjective perception is that there are more negative valences than positive valences, then the ultimate alternative selected may be to stay at the home university instead, even though studying abroad offers a means of stimulation which is something the student values (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

This discussion indicates that the following key research questions (RQ) should be addressed in the present study:

RQ 1: What were the pre-experience values and expectations of students who studied abroad?

RQ 2: What are their values and perceived outcomes subsequent to the study abroad experience?

RQ 3: Have their values changed since before their abroad experience?

RQ 4: How do their original expectations compare to their perceptions of the experiences' impact on their job marketability after spending time abroad?

Related study. Similar to the present study, a recent exploratory study examined cultural influence on decision making in relation to study abroad by surveying international students from the United States, France and China while they were studying abroad. This study also used expectancy theory as a basis for examining the cultural differences between American, French and Chinese business students' motivation to study abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

In the first stage, qualitative data was collected using a short, open-ended

questionnaire administered to 49 international students at one of the participating universities. The questionnaire was used to collect data on why the students chose to leave their home country to pursue an academic experience in a foreign country. Another similar survey was administered to a sample of Chinese students while in China. Both surveys' results identified some of the motivations and barriers to studying abroad for students from far eastern and western countries. From these results, basic categories were identified and within each category, specific motivating items were then identified to represent a variety of reasons to study abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

With this knowledge, the researchers constructed a quantitative survey for use in the second stage. It contained questions on motivations and barriers, all of which were derived from the initial, qualitative stage, plus the intention to study abroad, which was a new item added to the final survey. All of these items used a Likert scale to measure the degree of agreement the respondent had for each question. Since the final survey was administered to three different nationalities of students, the survey was initially written in English and translated into French and Chinese; the latter two surveys were then reverse-translated into English. This final survey was pre-tested using 20 students from each of the 3 institutions. Necessary modifications were made to strengthen the research instrument, and then the survey was administered to the targeted group of students in the United States, China and France. There were 477 useable surveys, of which 100, 123, and 254 came from the U.S., France and China, respectively (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

This study provided an opportunity to 'compare the differences between motivations and barriers among students in different countries, as well as the relationship between these motivations and students' intentions to study abroad' (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006, p. 44). There were commonalities with regard to motivations and barriers (search for liberty and pleasure, search for a new experience and desire to improve a social situation); however, the underlying items defining each were different among the three countries' students (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

The results of the study revealed that some motivators are universal among students from China, France, and the U.S., although some positively influence and some negatively influence students' intentions to study abroad. Even with universality, it must be noted that there are differences among motivations and barriers. Therefore, the idea that nationality influences students' motivations and intentions to study abroad was supported by the results of this study. In addition, varying degrees of barriers will affect the relationships between motivations and intentions (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

This study is relevant to the present study because it, too, utilized a cross-cultural approach to explore the topic of study abroad with business students. In Vroom's model of expectancy, *expectancy* related to the likelihood of a behavior leading to a positive outcome (Martin & Dowson 2009). For the purposes of examining the original motivation to study abroad in relation to the perceived implications on job marketability once in the workforce, the 'performance-to-outcome expectancy,'

referring to the 'expectation (assessed probability) that should effort be successfully exerted, something that is desired will result' (Miner 2007, p. 70), is a useful theoretical component. Individuals' original motivation to study abroad and their expectations for the experience as compared to their perceived impact of the foreign study experience on their job marketability after the experience provides insight into the career implications of study abroad. Consequently, the following null hypotheses (H) should be tested:

H1: There are no differences between expectations prior to the study abroad experience and perceived outcomes afterward.

H2: There are no differences between the values prior to the study abroad experience and the values afterward.

2.3.2 Goal setting theory

By the late 20th century, assertions were made that goal setting theory, social-cognitive theory and expectancy theory, together, best explained the motivation to produce (Locke & Latham 1990, 2007). Goal-setting theory says that the performance of a task is affected by the individual's goals. It is not enough just to state goals; the individual actually has to be committed to accomplishing them (Locke & Latham 2007). Generally, goals are most effective when people believe they can accomplish them and when people attach value to that attainment (Seijts & Latham 2011).

In order for goals to truly motivate, individuals should have some level of commitment to the goals. The perceived or actual importance of a goal will have a moderating effect on the goal commitment (Seijts & Latham 2011). This

commitment can be enhanced when there is public support for the goal as well as when leaders or authority figures support it (Latham & Locke 2007). Self-efficacy can also have an enhancing effect, so leaders or authority figures can stimulate this by providing the necessary training to attain the goal, by presenting role models, and by expressing their confidence in the person's ability to attain the goal (Bandura 1997; Locke & Latham 2002; Seijts & Latham 2011; White & Locke 2000).

Assigned goals usually result in the same level of commitment as goals individuals specify themselves. However, the effectiveness of assigned goals is explained by a number of factors. These types of goals are usually assigned by authority figures, such as supervisors or advisors, who believe the person actually can achieve the goals. Challenging assigned goals serve as a motivator to improve skills and competence. In addition, assigned goals enable the person to establish principles for attaining satisfaction with their own performance (Latham & Locke 2007).

Feedback is also a key component to the long-term effectiveness of goal setting. Research shows that assigned goals typically only result in a lower level performance than goals set by the individual when the individual is not provided with a rationale for the goals. If the difficulty of the goal is controlled, expectancy and self-efficacy positively contribute to performance. Self-efficacy includes a person's ability to perform and the degree to which their effort will have positive results, and it affects both goal commitment and response to feedback (Seijts & Latham 2011).

Those who strive for high goals tend to believe their efforts will result in a sense of accomplishment and new or improved skills and competencies; 'people with high self-efficacy not only commit to high goals, they typically set even higher ones upon goal attainment' (Latham & Locke 2007, p. 291). Those who possess higher standards feel the need to accomplish more in order to feel they have been successful; in contrast, those with lower standards feel they have performed adequately at a lower accomplishment level (Locke & Latham 2005).

In terms of studying abroad, goals and expectancies for an international experience should be established prior to departure. Advisors should assess the student's understanding of the goals for his or her experience, and the student's goal attainment should be assessed upon return (Curran 2007). Anecdotally, university presidents, and others in positions of authority at universities, can publicly support internationalization endeavors on their campuses as well as put resources toward the promotion of study abroad opportunities in order to demonstrate to students that they are supportive and encouraging of those who want to participate. Further, when faculty members participate in such things as exchanges or lead students in short-term study tours abroad, they serve as role models for students. These actions would in turn be expected to increase the perceived value of studying abroad.

A person with a combination of high goals and high self-efficacy works longer than those with low goals and self-efficacy. Those with high goals will persist until they accomplish the goals, while those with high self-efficacy will continue even if performance is difficult because they believe they will be able to accomplish the task

(Latham & Locke 2007). In addition, individuals learn to establish a plan of action for accomplishing their goals (Bembenutty 2010).

Specific goals reduce ambiguity and thus reduce performance variation. In addition, goals will affect performance in several ways. Goals serve to direct effort toward activities consistent with accomplishing the goal while diverting effort toward activities that are irrelevant. Goals serve to energize, in that higher goals lead to more effort than do lower goals, while harder goals prolong effort. Furthermore, goals can lead to an improvement of knowledge and skills; while an individual calls upon existing knowledge and skills when the goal is relevant to past experience and expertise, they will search for new strategies when the goal requires more than past knowledge and skills (Locke & Latham 2005).

Emotions are a result of actions and outcomes from efforts to attain goals. If an individual attains those goals, the individual experiences satisfaction; the more important the goal attainment is to the individual, the more satisfied they are at their achievement. In contrast, if the individual's efforts do not lead to goal attainment, the individual experiences dissatisfaction; a lack of self-confidence in one's ability to reach the goal also results in dissatisfaction (Latham & Brown 2006).

In terms of studying abroad, a student may apply for an exchange program in Austria, for example, and establish a goal of improving his fluency in German. He will use his basic knowledge and skills in German which he developed in an Introduction to German course at his home university the previous semester. While in Germany, the student will draw upon these skills but will also develop new ways

of attaining the goal, such as reading local newspapers, listening to local radio and trying to converse with his new German friends in the local language. If he is successful at advancing his German fluency by the end of his abroad program, he will be satisfied and his self-confidence will have been improved; however, if he opts for speaking English to his new friends and seeking out English television programming and news, he will not improve his fluency and will instead experience dissatisfaction.

2.4 Career Development Theory

One of the things the present study seeks to examine is the implication of a study abroad experience on career choice. Career development theories have evolved over time, but the concept of "self" continues to be central to career development and vocational psychology (Hartung & Subich 2011). The social aspect of learning also plays a role (Olson & Hergenhahn 2009).

2.4.1 Evolution of career development theory

The Victorian age self was a function of a collective group of people, and it was not until modernism brought drastic changes as people shifted to cities that the concept of individualism grew. During the early 21st century, the concept of vocational guidance was launched and along with it a desire to fit people to their work environment (i.e., to match one's self to a situation); self-knowledge was used as the foundation of choice. Vocational psychology sought to specify 'the traits required in various types of work so that both the choice of the individual and the selection of the employer would proceed directly once an individual's characteristics were known' (Savickas 2011 p. 22).

A focus on personality traits sought to understand self as object, but by the mid-20th century, there was a paradigm shift from passive adjustment to active shaping of careers. Self-concept, one's view of self which is based upon perceptions, became an important component of career development. What followed was a shift from self as object to self as project, specifically a shift from self-concept to self-conceptualizing (i.e., the process of assigning meaning to the experience). Individuals derive meaning about self from their experiences in the world, which then impacts self-concept. Identity connects a subjective self with an objective world (Savickas 2011).

> Advancing the future of self in career theory and practice will likely, and optimally, involve a difficult enterprise of melding self-concept and identity constructs within a complex, comprehensive, and dynamic view of persons as self-constructing systems, an endeavor aligned with social and personality psychology (Hartung & Subich 2011, p. 8).

The social learning perspective, which was rooted in classical behaviorism and reinforcement, arose in the 1970s and was applied to career decision making as a means of explaining how skills and preferences are acquired and how choices are made. To do so, Krumboltz (1979) identified a number of factors that cause a person to move toward a particular career; the factors combine in a variety of ways to lead one to different decisions. Learning experiences then were viewed as the most important concept for understanding the development of career choice (Jackson, Potere & Brobst 2006). Social learning theory emphasized the influence of the environment on behavior but also considered unobservable influences, such as one's behavioral expectations and one's beliefs about the associated reinforcements (Funder & Fast 2010).

The social cognitive perspective arose in the 1980s (Hartung & Subich 2011). It evolved from social learning approaches as well as overlaps it (Funder & Fast 2010). Bandura (1986) formulated a social cognitive view of how a person's perceptions of himself and the things around him are developed and confirmed through several processes. His theoretical approach is often termed a social learning theory; however, he prefers to differentiate it by labeling it social cognitive theory (Olson & Hergenhahn 2009). Bandura (1986) notes:

> The social portion of the terminology acknowledges the social origins of much human thought and action; the cognitive portion recognizes the influential causal contribution of thought processes to human motivation, affect and action (p. xii).

His social cognitive theory remains popular because it speaks to the dynamism of human beings. Learning, be it derived from direct or vicarious experiences, typically involves a social setting. Cognitions, then, develop on the basis of observations and social interactions (Olson & Hergenhahn 2009). The following section examines social cognitive career theory, which is rooted in Bandura's theory, though it focuses on different aspects of the latter.

2.4.2 Social cognitive career theory

Social cognitive career theorists consider self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals to be important factors in academic and career decision making processes (Lent & Fouad 2011). Both the social learning theory of career development and the social cognitive career theory incorporate behaviors, environment, and personal factors. Moreover, the theories stress the role associative and instrumental learning experiences play on career decision making. They also both consider cognitions

(e.g., beliefs, memories, self-perceptions, preferences) and thoughts to be part of this decision making process (Sharf 2006).

Though alike in some ways, these two theories differ on several issues. Krumboltz's (1979) social learning theory places less emphasis on cognitive processes' effect on actions and instead focuses more on the effects of learning behaviors. The social cognitive career theory is more complex and focuses on the beliefs that affect individuals' behavior (Lent & Fouad 2011).

Self-Efficacy. Self-efficacy can be described as 'people's beliefs about their capabilities to organize and perform particular behaviors or courses of action' (Lent & Fouad 2011, p. 74). A person's view of their capabilities will affect their choices, including their career choice. If one has low self-efficacy, one may not pursue a challenge or one may feel overwhelmed (Lent & Fouad 2011). One's self-efficacy beliefs have an even stronger relationship with career choices than one's perception of abilities (Lent & Fouad 2011). From a study abroad perspective, a prospective participant with low self-efficacy may be discouraged from participating because he doubts his ability succeed in a new and challenging culture.

Outcome expectations. While self-efficacy refers to one's belief about the ability to accomplish a task, outcome expectations refer to one's estimate of a certain outcome's probability. In terms of an international study experience, the student might ask himself "If I go abroad, what will happen?" The student's self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectations will both affect behavior, though to differing degrees dependent upon the individual.

Goals. To guide one's actions, as well as to organize one's behavior, an individual will set goals. As Locke and Latham (2005) pointed out, goals can be self-motivating; the satisfaction derived from achieving goals is significant (Sharf 2006).

Goals, outcome expectations and self-efficacy all interact to affect behavior. Goals may need to be revised if an individual's beliefs affect his outcome expectations (Sharf 2006). For example, if an American student sets a goal of studying abroad in Spain during the third year of his degree program but has a low sense of self-efficacy about whether he can succeed so far away from his support system at home, he may alter his goal to reflect a plan to study abroad in Mexico so he is closer to home.

Barriers and supports. Lent, Brown and Hackett (2000) proposed the division of contextual factors into two basic types. Summarized by Sharf (2006), they are:

> Background contextual factors are ones that occur as individuals learn about and interact with their own culture and learn gender role expectations. These factors are also absorbed a people learn social and academic skills. In contrast, contextual influences proximal to choice behavior refer to environmental factors that come into play at particular academic and career choice points. Referred to as proximal influences, they tend to be current and directly related to career choice concerns (p. 334).

Contextual factors can be a barrier or a support. Individuals' abilities, values and interests affect career choice, as do barriers and support since they affect self-efficacy (Sharf 2006).

2.4.2.1 Social cognitive career theory model

Social cognitive career theory is explained in a complex model of interactions between and among 'self-efficacy, outcome expectations, goals, choice, outcome,

and contextual factors' (Sharf 2006, p. 335).

Individuals constantly observe their own performances and develop self-efficacy in terms of their ability to perform in the future, and in turn develop self-set goals based upon their personal standards and their self-efficacy. Their efforts toward goal attainment are interpreted with self-reactions which reward perceived positive outcomes (Lent & Fouad 2011). Put another way, an individual's self-efficacy and outcome expectations both affect his interests, which then affect his goals. These goals affect actions, which then affects performance outcomes. These outcomes affect the individual's learning experiences, which then affect his self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Sharf 2006).

Self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals play an integral role in the social cognitive career theory model. Self-efficacy helps 'promote academic and career-related interest, choices, performance and satisfaction' (Lent & Fouad 2011, p. 74). Further, 'people are more likely to develop interest in, choose to pursue, do well in, and feel satisfied at school and work activities for which they believe they possess the necessary capabilities' (Lent & Fouad 2011, p. 74). Outcome expectations refer to an individual's expectations regarding the outcome of a particular behavior. Outcome expectations can include such things as social rewards or pride in self. Personal goals assist individuals with organizing and guiding their own behavior in regard to behavior that may cause a particular outcome (Lent & Fouad 2011).

In addition, a person's inputs, such as gender, race (Lent & Fouad 2011) and past social, environmental or biological influences (Sharf 2006), as well as contextual influences, such as socioeconomic family status and education, are also important factors in the career decision making process. Learning experiences, too, affect self-efficacy beliefs and expectations (Lent & Fouad 2011).

Relationship to study abroad. The prospect of studying abroad can be seen as a challenging proposition by some students. Eliminating, or at least reducing, barriers and instead increasing support can be helpful to students considering an abroad opportunity. Moreover, this support can provide a reinforcement of students' beliefs in their capabilities and improve their self-efficacy. This, in turn, can affect their outcome expectations and ultimately their behavior.

2.5 Gender Implications

The aforementioned theories of motivation and career development are incorporated into the theoretical framework of the present study in order to explain the expectations and values associated with a study abroad experience and the subsequent effect on professional development. In addition, gender implications are incorporated into the framework to explain the impact of gender on past study abroad participants' perceptions.

2.5.1 Gender gap in study abroad

Hoffa and Pearson (1997) cited a gender gap in U.S. study abroad and offered several explanations for it. One, participants in study abroad programs have traditionally come from disciplines such as liberal arts and languages, fields that tend

to be female dominated. Two, U.S. cultural values encourage males to participate in more serious activities. Three, study abroad tends to enhance social relations, in which females are expected to excel. These researchers felt that the gender gap in study abroad would dissipate. However, it has not. In fact, over the last decade, the ratio of female to male study abroad participants in the United States has remained virtually unchanged: 65% female to 35% male (IIE 2010).

A recent study by Salisbury et al. (2009) found that male students were 8 percent less likely to study abroad than female students. This finding supported the study abroad gender gap identified in previous research (Desoff 2006; Shirley 2006; Thomas & McMahon 1998).

2.5.2 Gender differences rooted in theory

Prior psychological research has compared males and females, noting gender differences from early on (Wood & Eagly 2010). Prior research has been conducted to examine how males and females differ in their academic choices, career choices (Fan 2010), and motivation. Early achievement motivation theories examined differences in males' and females' success motives. Achievement motivation research continued with the expectancy value model that included cognitive assessments of expectations for and values of success. This model, too, indicated that gender affected success motives (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006).

In the 1960s, research confirmed that women have lower success expectations than men, and in the 1970s, women were seen as having less of a success orientation than

men and even fearing success because of the expectation of negative consequences (e.g., social rejection). By the early 1980s, motivation was predominantly examined using attribution theory, which was also used to understand the implications of gender on motivation. More emphasis was placed on the causal attributions one makes regarding the perception of success or failure, namely effort and ability. In terms of gender differences, 'men attributed their successes to internal stable causes (ability), whereas women attributed their failures, but not their successes, to these causes' (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006, p. 354).

Building on these theories, the social cognitive model of academic choice was introduced. Applications of this model found differences in values and competency beliefs between genders. Guided by this theory, the construct of self-efficacy, which refers to an individual's confidence in one's ability to perform at a certain level, was proposed to provide further insight into motivation and has played a large role in understanding the gender differences and achievement (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006).

Finally, goal theories highlight an individual's reasons for pursuing certain activities and differentiate goals by type: learning/mastery goals and performance goals. Though there are gender differences in relation to goal achievement, the differences are moderated by race, ability, and context (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006).

While early motivation theories showed women underachieving, contemporary research indicates that the gender differences in competencies, beliefs, and values are

domain-specific. Males tend to have more positive beliefs in sports, science, and mathematics, while females tend to be more achievement-motivated in terms of language arts (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006).

2.5.3 Sources of gender differences in motivation

Several sources of gender differences have been identified in terms of motivation. Parents are integral in shaping an individual's beliefs and values. They provide a variety of activities which assists with skill and interest development, and they are important role models of behaviors and values. Children are influenced by their parents' belief in them, as well as by their parents' beliefs in gender stereotypes. At school, individuals may observe gender differences in staffing (e.g., more men in managerial roles and more women in humanities). Classroom interaction may also impact behavior and perceptions (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006).

2.5.4 Prior studies confirming gender differences

In Adler's (1991) survey of MBA students from Europe, the United States, and Canada, nearly 85 percent wanted to seek international employment at some point in their career, while approximately one-third wanted extensive travel to be a component of their career. Of these regional groups, the Europeans had the most interest in international work. According to the study, the primary motivation among all respondents was the chance to enhance personal growth and learn from a cross-cultural experience. The second motivation was the work itself; international assignments were viewed as providing a more challenging, autonomous, powerful opportunity. Money was the third most significant motivation, as respondents perceived an opportunity for a better salary and/or better benefits abroad. Career

advancement was identified as the fourth motivating factor, while location ranked fifth. The sixth reason was to obtain a more fulfilling life abroad, including enhanced opportunities for adventure, excitement, and personal freedom. Those MBAs who were most interested in an international career were 'slightly younger, more frequently single, and specializing in international management…from families in which at least one parent has traveled internationally for work…and likely to have lived abroad themselves' (Adler 1991, p. 295). In this study, males and females were comparably interested in international work, though both gender groups perceived more opportunities for men (Adler 1991).

A 2005 study confirmed that U.S. females have more positive study abroad expectations than males (Kim & Goldstein 2005). Females were more likely than males to view study abroad programs as opportunities to experience another culture and grow as a person as well as reasons for a delay in academic progress and homesickness. In addition, females were more likely to view money/cost and safety/health factors associated with study abroad as more important than males, while also valuing friends and family's opinions more than males (Presley, Damron-Martinez & Zhang 2010). Shirley (2006) found that parents had a more positive impact on the study abroad decision for females than males.

Relyea et al. (2008) found that in the U.S. 'females reported lower risk propensity than males…and were less likely to participate in study abroad programs than males' (p. 358). Research conducted by Salisbury et al. (2009) also found males to be less likely to participate in international programs. In a study of university students

spending a semester abroad, females' overall intercultural development was higher than males (Rexeisen et al. 2008).

A study by Fan (2010) in the U.S. found gender differences in ability beliefs and expectations. In part, there were differences between which ability belief better predicted expectations of male and female students. Moreover, the research showed the females perceived themselves garnering more support from teachers and peers (Fan 2010).

Schwartz and Rubel (2005) drew upon prior studies which they or their collaborators had conducted in order to report upon gender differences in value prioritization. Specifically, they reported on four studies. One large study of European individuals aged 15 years of age and over found women to rate 'benevolence, universalism, security, and tradition values consistently higher than men did' (Schwartz & Rubel 2005, p. 1014), while another study consisting of adults in 7 countries in Europe, South America, Africa, and Asia found that 'women gave consistently higher priority to benevolence, universalism, and security values than men did; men…gave higher priority to stimulation and power values than women did' (Schwartz & Rubel 2005, p. 1015). Similar results regarding women giving higher priority to benevolence, universalism, and security values than men did were repeated in 2 other studies of 15 countries and a survey of university students across 67 cultural groups. Though all four studies revealed relatively consistent gender differences in terms of value priorities, the differences were relatively small (Schwartz & Rubel 2005).
It is important to note that gender attitudes are formed and learned within the times,

not inherent in gender itself. Further, differences between genders must be considered in terms of the historical context and relevant social scripts.

2.6 Age Implications

A "generation" consists of individuals who share years of birth and who experience significant historical events (e.g., catastrophes, wars, innovation) (Shragay & Tziner 2011). Because of different experiences, differences exist among these age groups. Two generational cohorts are relevant to the present study: Generation X and Generation Y.

Generation X includes people born between the 1960s and 1979; they typically developed independence at a young age, often a result of growing up in a household with two working parents or growing up in a divorced household, and living as latchkey kids (Barford & Hester 2011). Born between 1980 and 2000, those in Generation Y, also known as Millennials, are characterized as self-confident and independent (Barford & Hester 2011; Shragay & Tziner 2011), even more so than those in Generation X. Millennials also value marketability and professional development (Barford & Hester 2011).

Generation X and Generation Y tend to have different expectations, including about their careers (Bristow 2010). Career-related results of prior studies have indicated that Generation Y places more importance on advancement and promotion than does Generation X (Barford & Hester 2011; Gladwell et al. 2010; Shragay & Hester 2011). In addition, Generation Y considers compensation a more highly motivating

factor than does Generation X (Barford & Hester 2011). Further, differences among generational groups exist in terms of such things as priorities among workplace benefits, importance of promotional opportunities (Gladwell et al. 2010); workplace values and motivations (Barford & Hester 2011); and level of independence (Burk, Olson & Messerli 2011).

In terms of education, Generation Y places more emphasis on it being a means to wealth and success than do previous generations which valued education more for the intellectual impact. In a profile of generational subcultures, those most interested in travel were female; the subgroup of college women was described as 'a typical member of a growing class of global citizens – voracious learners, cultural sponges and unassuming ambassadors – who have chosen to take international detours for study, work and fun' (Ritter 2006, p. 11). In addition, Generation Y responds to excitement and exhibits more tolerance for cultural diversity (Ritter 2006; Bristow 2010); they have more cultural awareness than previous generations due to the diversity represented in their peers, in school, in the community and in the workplace (Bristow 2010).

2.7 Conceptual Framework

Figure 2.3 depicts the conceptual framework of the present study. It will be used to compare the expectations and values students had prior to their study abroad experience to the perceived outcomes and values after their study abroad experience. Furthermore, the conceptual framework demonstrates that various factors (e.g.,

family, friends, culture, gender) affect the goals, expectations and values prior to the experience, while the learning experience is also subject to external factor and gender influences. Finally, the learning experience (i.e., the study abroad experience) influences the perceived outcomes and values post-experience, which affects career choice. The conceptual framework will be further discussed in the methodology section.

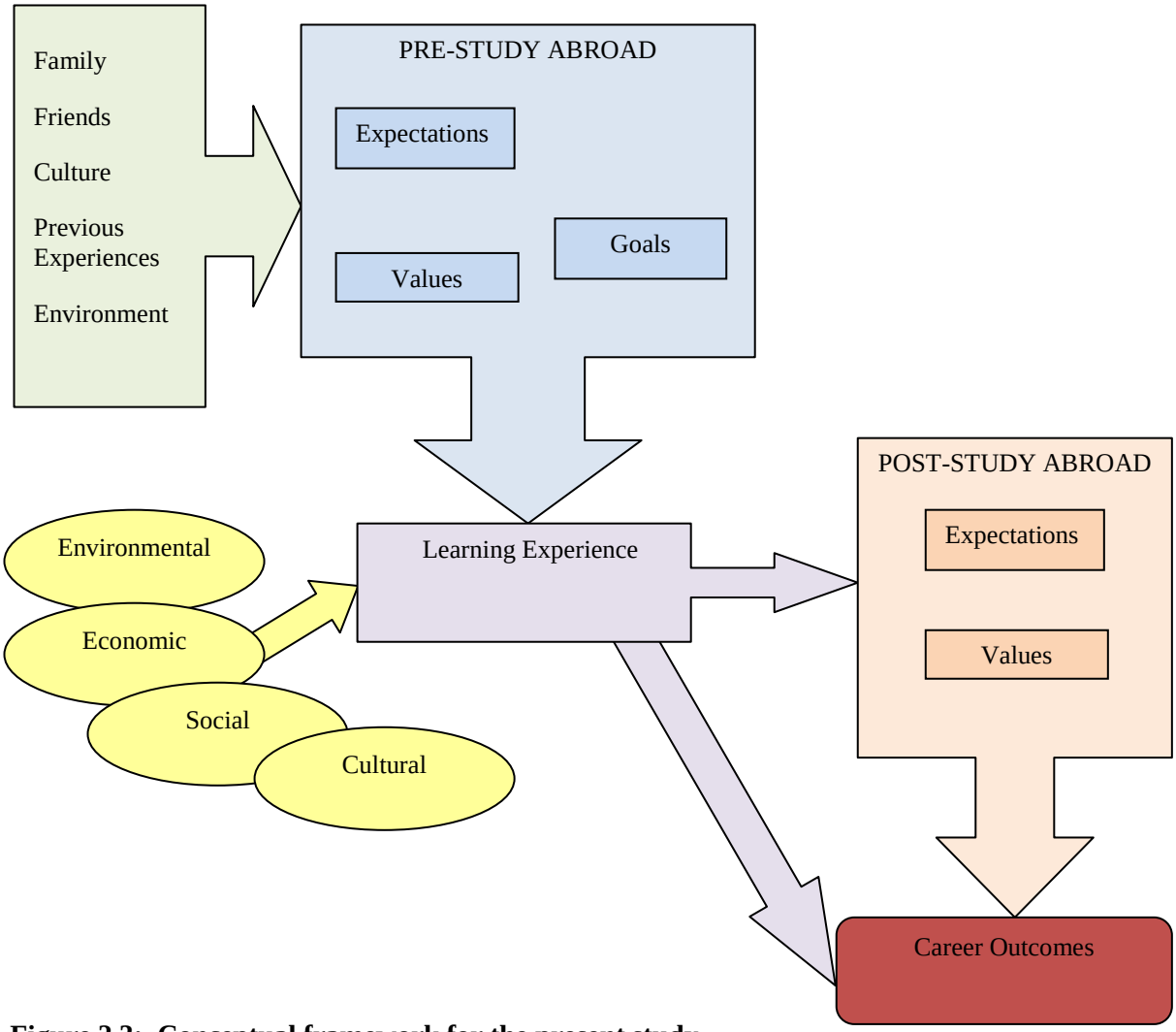

Figure 2.3: Conceptual framework for the present study

(Source: Developed for this study)

2.8 Focus on the Career Outcomes of Business Students

The conceptual framework for this study (see Figure 2.3) was used to examine the implications of a foreign study experience on a business student's perception of the impact of the experience on their job marketability. As discussed in section 1.3.2, this is a worthwhile focus given the increasing pressure on business schools to develop international opportunities for their students.

One recent study's purpose was to examine 'student perceptions of learning outcomes' with the use of a web-based survey assessing 'attitudinal, behavioral, and career outcomes' (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011, p. 47). The study's population was 349 U.S. business students who had participated in an international program sponsored by a public university in the southeastern part of the U.S. between 1999 and 2007. The survey yielded a 34% response rate with 120 respondents. Female respondents outnumbered male respondents 2:1, which corresponded to the participation levels of these study abroad programs. The average respondent had a current age of 27. The majority of respondents (82 percent) had full-time employment, while 11 percent were employed part-time and 7 percent were unemployed (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011).

Respondents reported that their study abroad experience influenced their interest in traveling to other countries and recommending study abroad and international travel to others. They also indicated the development of more global awareness, greater cultural sensitivity, and more interest in global affairs as a result of their abroad experience. In terms of impacting career choice, 28 percent reported that their

international experience helped shaped their choices. Respondents also perceived learning more about business from the abroad experience than from a traditional business class (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011).

An earlier study by Indiana University in the U.S. was conducted using their business students 'to determine the impact of an international experience on the job search and career plans' (Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004, p. 118). Researchers collected 198 useable surveys (12 percent response rate) from junior and senior students who were asked questions regarding their foreign language competency and the perceived impact of a study abroad experience on their career plans after graduation; the average respondent was a 21 year old senior. Forty-two percent of the study's respondents had already studied abroad; of those, 96 percent stated their international experience 'made a difference in their career plans' (Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004, p. 123), and many of these students also expressed a belief that they 'had gained marketable skills' (Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004, p. 125).

Moreover, 94 percent of respondents who had studied abroad were interested in working for internationally-focused U.S. companies after graduation, while 93 percent were interested in working for a multinational company and 83 percent had an interest in working abroad. In contrast, only 51 percent of respondents who had not studied abroad had an interest in working abroad (Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004).

Not all of the study abroad participants in Indiana University's study listed their international experience on their resume or prompted discussion of it in interviews.

This makes it clear that advisors should help students to understand how to articulate their experiences in such a way as to demonstrate the skills they acquired while abroad to employers (Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004).

Graduating Australian business students were the target of a longitudinal study conducted by Tharenou (2003) in order to examine the general receptivity to working abroad as well as its development over several years. Social cognitive career theory was used to posit that personal factors as well as outcome expectancies and self-efficacy explain the development of career aspirations. The study concluded that the more individuals expected to gain outcomes they value from a particular career, the more likely they would be to develop an interest in that career (Tharenou 2003).

The study revealed that barriers and support from the surrounding environment also affect the general receptivity to an international career. The fewer the barriers and the greater the perception of valuable opportunities, the more likely a person is to pursue an international career opportunity. If a person is highly attached to friends and family, or receives less support and encouragement from friends and family, the less receptive the person will typically be. Generally, 'receptivity to working abroad in young employees arises from already being higher in receptivity to international careers and domestic relocation, expecting positive outcomes from work abroad' (Tharenou 2003, p. 509). As shown in this study, some of the factors that motivate a person to work abroad are their expectations of 'new cultural experiences, career development, high pay, job opportunities and travel opportunities' (Tharenou 2003, p. 511).

2.8.1 Increased need for business-related career outcomes

The aforementioned studies provide examples of previous studies that focused on business students and business schools. There is also a need to study business-related career outcomes. Some suggested advantages of study abroad as they relate to business-related careers are improved interpersonal skills and a broadened sense of international business methods and practices (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011); however, research to support this is limited. Less than 10 percent of surveyed institutions on the subject of "Outcomes Assessment and Study Abroad Programs" indicated they assess career related outcomes. This represents a need for more research in the area of study abroad's career related outcomes in order to better understand how studying abroad impacts career goals. With participation rates increasing among business students (IIE 2010), this is a timely necessity.

To this end, the present study examines the impact of a study abroad experience on business students' perceptions of certain career-related variables. The following cross-cultural hypotheses were tested:

> H3.1: European and U.S. students will have the same expectations regarding career-related variables* prior to the study abroad experience.
>
> H3.2: European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables* prior to the study abroad experience.
>
> H3.3: European and U.S. students will perceive the same outcomes regarding the career-related variables* after the study abroad experience.
>
> H3.4: European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables* after the study abroad experience.

* These career-related variables include career choice, employability, starting salary, job description, promotability, geographic location, and scope of job responsibilities after the study abroad experience. Selected based upon the IES (2002) survey and the Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006) survey (see Appendix A and B, respectively), these variables were described in section 1.7 in terms of how they relate to the present study.

2.8.2 Demand for globally minded business graduates

Although students can point to a variety of reasons why they wish to study abroad (e.g., international travel, foreign language learning), increasingly, students are considering the career advantages studying abroad may provide them. Internationalization is on every chief executive officer's mind, so perhaps it comes as no surprise that there is an increasing belief in the importance of learning other languages and understanding other cultures. However, simply going abroad does not automatically result in a career advantage; the student must be able to explain to a prospective employer how that international experience resulted in increased skills, knowledge, and expertise and how it will benefit the employer (Fischer 2010; Gardner, Steglitz & Gross 2009; Orahood, Woolf & Kruze 2008).

Even if the employer is not searching for a job candidate who has knowledge about a specific country, a global perspective is beneficial to any employer (Curran 2007). Consequently, the following research question (RQ) is identified:

RQ 5: Do individuals perceive that employers value a foreign experience when evaluating them as job applicants?

In order to best obtain the most well rounded experiences, students could complete an internship in conjunction with their study abroad program. With increasing internationalization, cross-cultural and foreign language skills will become more and more important. In particular, students who acquire a more difficult language, or a more demanded language such as Arabic or Chinese, also make themselves more marketable (Curran 2007).

2.9 Conclusion

University students seem to be taking a more pragmatic approach to their education and are increasingly more interested in career-related outcomes. In 1968, most students said their college goal was to develop a meaningful life philosophy. By 1998, most students' college goal was to improve their ability to be financially successful (Bronner 1998). More career focused students means an increased need for data connecting positive career related outcomes to study abroad; this will enable international educators to more effectively recruit students for foreign study experiences.

A variety of studies have confirmed the benefits of study abroad. These include both personal and professional benefits derived from studying, interning and volunteering abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). Even still, participation rates among students in the U.S. are still some of the lowest of OECD countries (OECD 2004).

As pressure to internationalize increases, more universities are striving to improve their abroad offerings and to be more supportive of students who are interested in the opportunities. As such, participation rates are trending upward (IIE 2010), though

participation rates are still not at desirable levels (Marcum 2001). With business and management students representing the second largest group of U.S. students studying abroad, the AACSB is stressing the importance of business schools offering and promoting international opportunities (Damast 2011). Moreover, the career value of study abroad is becoming more obvious and more important as the world becomes more globalized, making it more vital that students not only participate in international opportunities but also effectively articulate their experiences to prospective employers (Curran 2007).

Expectancy valence theory is applied to the present study to provide better understanding about student expectations of studying abroad. In order to ultimately market international programs to university students, it is important to understand students' goals, expectations and associated values prior to the experience as well as the students' perceived outcomes and associated values after the experience. By identifying these, universities will be better able to determine the aspects of studying abroad that are most beneficial to promote in order to entice more students to participate in international opportunities. Further, career development and goal setting theories are also needed to provide part of the framework used to examine the career implications of study abroad.

Although previous research has explored the personal, professional, and academic benefits of studying abroad, few studies have examined the impact of study abroad specifically on career variables or examined cultural implications. Moreover, there are few studies focusing solely on business students. There is limited prior research to support study abroad as a means of enhancing business students' careers,

particularly since few institutions assess career-related outcomes upon return from the abroad experience. The present study seeks to contribute to the existing body of knowledge by exploring a wider variety of career variables on a population of business students from a wider variety of cultures who studied abroad.

Aside from the aforementioned gaps in the existing literature, the following key research questions resulted from the review of literature:

RQ 1: What were the pre-experience values and expectations of students who studied abroad?

RQ 2: What are their values and perceived outcomes subsequent to the study abroad experience?

RQ 3: Have their values changed since before their abroad experience?

RQ 4: How do their original expectations compare to their perceptions of the experiences' impact on their job marketability after spending time abroad?

RQ 5: Do individuals perceive that employers value a foreign experience when evaluating them as job applicants?

RQ 6: Are there differences across nationalities; genders; age groups?

The following chapters will explain the methodology of the present study as well as discuss the results of the survey. In addition, the study's implications for universities will be explored and recommendations for improving university internationalization will be made.

CHAPTER 3 – METHODOLOGY

Chapter 2 reviewed the existing literature and discussed previous research studies pertaining to the study abroad experience. This provided the foundation upon which a conceptual framework was created for the present study. Chapter 3 will discuss the research design and methodology pertaining to this framework and to the research questions that were proposed in chapter 1 and further developed in chapter 2. It will also discuss the data collection and analysis processes as well as the ethical issues of the study.

As a means of justifying the chosen methodology, chapter 3 will discuss the paradigms on which quantitative and qualitative methodologies are based and discuss the rationale for the current methodology. Further, it will also justify the use of the survey method as a data collection tool and will provide details on how the survey was administered to those in the study's selected population.

3.1 Justification for Methodology

In order to assess methodological quality, one must consider methodological appropriateness, 'matching the data collection and design to the nature of the evaluation situation and questions, and the information priorities of primary stakeholders' (Patton 2008, p. 460). The following section addresses the strengths and weaknesses of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies. It also provides a justification for this study's quantitative approach as well as provides a rationale for utilizing a survey.

3.1.1 Quantitative versus qualitative methodologies

Quantitative and qualitative methodologies are based on different paradigms. The following paragraphs differentiate between the two methodological paradigms.

A theory testing paradigm, positivism governs quantitative inquiries. This paradigm is grounded in the assumption that 'only positive facts can be true, and claims can be made only about observable phenomena' (Baez & Boyles 2009, p.49). Positivists assume a known reality, and deny 'the existence of forces or substances that go beyond the facts and laws ascertained by and through scientific methods' (Baez & Boyles 2009, p. 49). According to positivist assumptions, the world consists of objective truths that can be scientifically measured and then explained, and this quantitative paradigm needs measurements to be valid and reliable, as well as generalizable, in order to predict cause and effect relationships (Baez & Boyles 2009). Positivism is 'an organized method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behavior in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity' (Neuman 2006, p.82).

Quantitative research requires measuring and counting and then conducting statistical analysis of this numerical data. The primary data collection means within the positivist paradigm are surveys and control experiments. The data collection is controlled and purported to be value free. As a deductive form of reasoning, quantitative research requires the generation of hypotheses and a means of

empirically verifying them with the use of numeric data (Tolman & Brydon-Miller 2001).

Qualitative research, on the other hand, is affected by the assumptions of an alternate paradigm: the interpretive. This paradigm's approach seeks to systematically analyze 'socially meaningful action through the direct observation of people in natural settings in order to arrive at understandings and interpretations of how people create and maintain their social worlds' (Neuman 2006, p. 88). Qualitative methodologies seek to describe certain phenomena in natural settings, and then interpret their meanings. It is less determined by concrete hypotheses but rather is driven by the idea that humans have a subjective sense of reality (Neuman 2006).

This interpretive paradigm has several key beliefs, which form several qualitative inquiry characteristics:

> First, qualitative research is the study of symbolic discourse that consists of the study of texts and conversations. Second, qualitative research is the study of the interpretative principles that people use to make sense of their symbolic activities. Third, qualitative research is the study of contextual principles, such as the roles of participants, the physical setting and a set of situational events, that guide the interpretation of discourse (Matreev 2002, np).

The following paragraphs further compare and contrast these methodologies.

The objective of qualitative methods is 'to gain a qualitative understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations' (Malhotra 2010, p. 139). Malhotra (2010) recommends that these methods not be used to generalize to the larger population of

interest. The methodology does, however, provide a holistic examination (Colwell 2006).

Quantitative methodologies require that the research problem be specific (Neuman 2006; Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009). This methodology also clearly states the independent and dependent variables, better generates conclusions that are objective, and has high statistical validity. Further, quantitative methods can minimize judgment subjectivity (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009). The use of a survey allows for diversity of questions as well as flexibility (Malhotra 2010).

In summary, qualitative research develops theories from tangible data, which quantitative analysis tests, and provides a particular depth of illustration. Quantitative methods explain how many, where, and when. The two are complimentary to each other. Neither tests causality. The following section justifies the choice of and explains what is appropriate about the quantitative methodology for the present study.

3.1.2 Justification of the quantitative methodology

There are several differences between qualitative and quantitative methodologies, including the objectives, sample, data collection and analysis methods, and outcomes (Malhotra 2010). The research questions of the present study were used to put forth specific hypotheses, the testing of which sought to determine objective answers regarding the impact of study abroad on students as well as the strength of the association between values and expectancies. Quantitative techniques are more appropriately used for hypothesis testing, and this study also sought to test rather

than to develop theory. Quantitative methodologies search for the general characteristics of a population and ignore the details associated with each particular element. Further, quantitative methods depend on larger random samples of the population. It was important to establish relationships between the values and expectations before and after the international experience, with the hope of being able to generalize to a broader population.

Further, there are three additional differences that warrant the researcher's attention when determining whether to use a quantitative or qualitative methodology: degree of control, interaction between researcher and participants, and generalizability of results. The degree of control refers to a quantitative researcher's pursuit of explanation. In this study, control over the application and actualization of the research design could be exercised. In terms of the role of the researcher, there is an attempt to limit the role of personal interpretation for the period between the research design and the time when the data are collected and analyzed statistically. In this study, the use of an interviewer would increase the likelihood of bias and error. With regard to the generalizability of quantitative findings, it is possible to measure the reactions of many individuals with a limited number of questions, which facilitates the comparison and statistical aggregation of data, and allows for broad generalizable findings. The generalization of results from this study's participants to a larger population will provide a means of describing the motivations and values of those who study abroad. Taking all of this into consideration, a quantitative approach was deemed most appropriate in this study.

3.1.3 The survey method

A form of quantitative research, surveys can have a variety of purposes but generally they attempt to provide researchers with information about people's opinions or beliefs (Neuman 2006). Some attempts focus on describing, while others focus on explaining. A survey's intentions could be to test a hypothesis or to assess a particular factor or factors' influence. Regardless of specific purpose though, a survey attempts to explain relationships between a variety of variables (Neuman 2007).

Survey methodology has a number of strengths, including the ability to generalize to a large population by studying only a few of them (Vanderstoep & Johnston 2009). Next, surveys provide an efficient way of reaching large samples as well as easier access to people who are potentially hard to reach, both key advantages in a study where those in the population are spread worldwide. Further, surveys are self-administered and eliminate the potential for interviewer bias. This type of methodology is also relatively cost effective and allows for efficient statistical analysis due to the use of specifically formulated questions designed to obtain clear answers (Stevens et al. 2006).

Although there are advantages, survey methodology has limitations. Unlike with interviewing methodologies (e.g., personal, telephone), controllability is relatively low with questionnaires. One cannot typically control the sequence in which the respondent discloses information, nor can one control who actually responds to the survey. Further, there is typically a low response rate to mail surveys, and response

times tend to be slow. However, the use of an Internet survey can improve the response time since there is no delay with mailing a physical survey instrument. Moreover, technological improvements allow for the use of complex skip logic, which combats the problem of sequential disclosure of information (Stevens et al, 2006).

The most common data collection method is the structured-direct survey. Administering a questionnaire with fixed alternative questions forces the respondent to select from a set of predetermined responses. This methodology has weaknesses in that respondents may not provide the information that is desired, either because they are unwilling or unable, and improper wording of questions can make it difficult for respondents to answer accurately. However, even with these weaknesses, the survey method is still widely selected due to its advantages. This method can be simply administered and the data simply manipulated, and the data is reliable since the given alternatives limit the responses. Further, the variability of responses is reduced with the use of fixed alternative questions since there is no interviewer bias (Malhotra 2010).

3.1.3.1 Rationale for the survey method in the present study

The survey was chosen for this particular study for a variety of reasons. As indicated below, there are advantages to using the survey method.

Compared to other forms of data collection, surveys are relatively inexpensive. The population of this study was spread worldwide and would have been difficult to reach in person or by phone without incurring high expenses. Therefore,

administering a survey provided a means of reaching the population in a cost effective manner.

Surveys allow for a variety of questions to be asked about a particular topic, which enables flexibility in analysis (Writing@CSU, nd). Since this study examined a number of career-related variables, such as employability, promotability, and geographic location, being able to ask a variety of questions was a key consideration.

Measurement is more precise because of the use of standardized survey questions (Writing@CSU, nd). For this study, a standardized survey was useful so that all respondents could be given the same questions, worded identically, and presented in the same systematic order, which improved the level of reliability and reduced researcher subjectivity.

Surveys can be administered in a variety of ways, such as by mail, telephone or email (Malhotra 2010). The researcher elected to administer the survey for this study electronically. Mailing hard copies of surveys to past participants around the world would have been expensive and time consuming. The electronic survey provides an inexpensive method of data collection since there are no expenses for postage or interviewers. It is also a faster method of collection and allowed for automatic tabulating of responses. Further, respondents had the ability to respond to the survey at their convenience.

Representativeness is one of the limitations of Internet surveying (Malhotra 2010); however, this study did not utilize an online survey that was open to any respondent, regardless of whether they represented the appropriate population. Instead, the

survey was only available to those specifically invited to complete it; this meant that only those in the targeted population (i.e., past participants of The Magellan Exchange) could access and complete the electronic survey.

Electronic surveys also have the potential for respondents to complete more than one survey (Malhotra 2010). To prevent this, a mechanism was in place to eliminate the ability of someone to respond more than once. This was done by providing each recipient with a specific URL that was encoded with the recipient's information; once a survey was submitted via the URL, the URL no longer allowed the recipient access to the survey.

In particular, the survey instruments from two previous studies were utilized in the present study. A discussion of the use of these instruments and a justification of the present questionnaire are provided in section 3.2.4.

3.2 Research Design

The following sections provide information about the population of the study as well as justify the use of a questionnaire based upon questionnaires utilized in two prior studies.

3.2.1 The population

A population is 'the aggregate of all the elements, sharing some common set of characteristics, that comprises the universe for the purpose of the marketing research problem' (Malhotra 2010). In order to fully understand the population of the present study, it is vital to understand The Magellan Exchange, the study abroad programs it

offers, and the functionality of the consortium. This section provides further clarification as well as an explanation of the population.

As explained in section 1.4.2.1, The Magellan Exchange is a non-profit consortium of universities dedicated to facilitating student and faculty exchanges. Originally founded as a business student exchange program, The Magellan Exchange has expanded in recent years to offer international experiences to students in other fields, though they were not part of the study.

More than 1,500 students have studied abroad through The Magellan Exchange since the program's inception. Approximately 90 percent of participants have been business students, which are the focus of this study. At the time of the study, participating institutions were primarily in small to medium sized cities within the Midwest and Midsouth areas of the United States, while the participating institutions in Europe were in higher income, Western European countries.

Traditionally, The Magellan Exchange office did not have contact with participants once they returned home from their experience. Therefore, current contact information for past participants was not necessarily on file in the central office. Further, approximately 60 percent of past participants did not provide an email address on their program application; this was generally due to email addresses not being widely used during the early years of the program. Moreover, some of the later participants who provided email addresses provided university-issued email addresses; these addresses typically become inactive once a student graduates.

Therefore, there was a general lack of current contact information on file in terms of old physical addresses or no or old email addresses.

3.2.2 Updating contact information

In order to most effectively and successfully reach past participants of The Magellan Exchange study abroad program, efforts were made to obtain the most up-to-date contact information possible. Due to the nature of the consortium, it was possible to request assistance from The Magellan Exchange coordinators at each member institution in order to update program alumni contact information.

All past paper and electronic applications from 1996 to the present was collected from the proprietary records. A master spreadsheet of all past student participants was prepared using this data. The spreadsheet contained the students' first and last names, permanent and temporary physical addresses, email address, field of study, duration of study abroad program, year of study abroad program, home school and host school. Once the list was finalized, participants from non-business fields were eliminated from the list. The spreadsheet was then sorted by home school.

A list of past student participants for each member institution was provided to the relevant coordinators by email. The study, which had previously been explained during a presentation at an annual Magellan Exchange conference, was again explained in the body of the email. Each coordinator was requested to check their university's alumni records for more up-to-date contact information and to return the updates to The Magellan Exchange office. A follow-up email was sent

approximately one month later to all non-respondents. A third and final follow-up email was sent to those who still had not responded at the start of the third month.

3.2.2.1 Facebook

In an effort to further discover more up-to-date information, a group was created on Facebook called "Magellan Exchange Participants." Invitations to join the group were sent to all past participants who had an email address on file, either from their original program application or from an update received by their home school's coordinator.

Approximately 300 past participants joined the group. Once a past participant joined the Facebook group, the group administrator (i.e., the researcher) was able to view the person's profile. In some cases, this allowed for the discovery of new contact information, such as a preferred email address. In addition, it also yielded the discovery of other past participants in cases where that person was "friends" with other past participants on Facebook. This served as a snowball sample.

As new contact information was returned by coordinators or discovered via Facebook, the master spreadsheet was updated. New information was color coded on the spreadsheet to confirm the update.

3.2.3 Justification of a census

Malhotra (2010) defines a census as 'a complete enumeration of the elements of a population or study objects' and a sample as 'a subgroup of the elements of the population selected for participation in the study' (p. 339). In some cases, it makes

sense to use a sample of the population for the purposes of collecting data and drawing inferences. For example, when budgets are small, time is short, and the population is large, it is more appropriate to take a sample. However, if budgets are large, time is abundant, and the population is small, it can be more appropriate to use a census (Malhotra 2010).

Considering the time which had elapsed since the study abroad experience of the earliest participants and the consequent lapse of time since the last contact, the number of respondents from this group was expected to be lower, thus lowering the anticipated total number of responses. Given the size of the population and the potential difficulty reaching some participants, it was most appropriate to conduct a census rather than to select a sample of respondents in order to maximize the overall response rate.

3.2.4 The questionnaires

The questionnaire used in the present study is based upon questionnaires used in two prior studies, which were discussed in chapter 2. One is from the IES longitudinal study (Dwyer 2004) and the other is from the study of American, Chinese and French students studying abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). The former was used with permission from IES, while the latter was used with permission granted by email from Dr. Carol Sanchez on behalf of all authors. Since these questionnaires were both used in previous multi-cultural research studies, they can be considered reliable survey instruments. Tested survey instruments are advantageous because they allow the data collection and analysis to be built around

valid, previously tested research methodology. Further, use of these instruments provides an opportunity to contribute to existing literature.

The following sections review the aforementioned studies' survey instruments and justify the present questionnaire.

3.2.4.1 IES questionnaire

In 1999, IES conducted a pilot study with a sampling of 10 percent (2,100) of their program alumni. Their pilot study yielded a 44 percent response rate. Data from this pilot study allowed the researcher to refine and expand the questions ultimately used on the 2002 study's questionnaire (Dwyer 2004).

The final questionnaire utilized by IES was comprised of 28 questions, and results were reported in several areas: 'general findings, academic attainment, intercultural development, career impact and personal growth' (Dwyer 2004, p. 154). There were several categories of questions which used a 5-point Likert scale (see Appendix A). In some cases, respondents were asked to rate the impact of their international experience on a specific measure, while other questions asked respondents about their specific behaviors since the international experience. The latter behaviors included such things as foreign language use and international work since the experience (Dwyer 2004).

IES distributed their survey to 17,000 program alumni between1950 and 2000. The survey yielded a 25 percent response rate (n=3,723). This resulted in a representative sample by decade of participation and geographic area (Dwyer 2004). Given the confidence level of 95 percent, the results of their analysis were proven to

be statistically significant (Gillespie & Slawson 2003). Since there was no control group, it is impossible to infer causal relationships. However, the results of the survey are valid because of the number of years of data and locations, various academic models and housing arrangements, and large sample sizes (Dwyer 2004). Gillespie and Slawson reported the 'reliability at 1.6%' (2003, p. 6). The authors did not report the Cronbach Alpha for the study.

3.2.4.2 Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang questionnaire

Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006) initially conducted qualitative research using a questionnaire comprised of open-ended questions (see Appendix B). The results of this initial stage enabled the researchers to create another questionnaire for use in the quantitative stage of the study. Because the survey would be administered to students in three countries, the survey was written in English and translated into French and Chinese; the latter versions were then reverse translated to English to ensure acceptability. The survey was pre-tested using a sample of 20 students at each of the three institutions participating in the study. Pre-testing allowed the researchers to modify their survey instrument to correct for weaknesses in order to create a final questionnaire (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

During the quantitative stage of the study, the researchers conducted cluster analysis and then discriminant analysis to validate the components of the survey. Given the confidence level of 95 percent, the results of their analysis were proven to be statistically significant. This analysis identified two groups within each country that exhibited different levels of the moderating variables. The two French groups

differed significantly on psychological, family and financial barriers; the two U.S. groups were also significantly different on these three barriers. The two Chinese groups differed significantly on financial, psychological and social barriers. Further:

> In the US…the group with the highest financial and psychological barriers (Group 1)…had a significant positive relationship between two motivations (search for pleasure or liberty and the desire to learn other languages) and the intention to study abroad. Concerning Group 2, which had highest familial barriers, there is a significant positive relationship between the desire to learn other languages and the intention to study abroad, but a significant negative relationship between the search for a new experience and the intention to study abroad. In France…Group 1, the group with the highest familial and financial barriers, the only motivation that had a significant relationship with the intention to study abroad was the search for pleasure. For Group 2, the group with the highest psychological barriers, there is a significant positive relationship between the two motivations (the desire to improve a social situation and the search for liberty/pleasure) and the intention to study abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006, p. 41-43).

For China, only Group 2 (highest psychological barriers) displayed a significant relationship between motivation (the will to improve the social situation) and the intent to study abroad (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

Each component's reliability was tested using a Cronbach's alpha. These values were relatively high, which reinforce the survey's reliability. The results of the principal components analysis of barriers revealed Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.53 to 0.89, while the results of the principal components analysis of motivations revealed Cronbach alpha values ranging from 0.65 to 0.98 (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). Face validity is 'concerned with the degree to which a measurement "looks like" it measures that which it is designed to measure' (Burns & Bush 2010, p. 295); using this tested instrument increases the face validity of the present survey.

3.2.4.3 Justification of present questionnaires

Since the present questionnaire follows two previously tested questionnaires, this survey will partly utilize proven scales which are valid and reliable.

The questionnaire consists of questions on basic demographics and key components of the study abroad program, and specifically measures the impact of study abroad on the areas of post-experience academic choices, personal/social development, and career development (Gillespie & Slawson 2003). These questions allowed for testing of the hypotheses developed in the previous chapter.

The questionnaire has two sections, Section A whose questions address pre-departure values and expectations and Section B whose questions address post-departure values and perceived outcomes (see Appendix C). The former section begins with the statement 'Now, please think back to the time before you applied to study abroad. Keep this period in mind while you answer the following questions' (Hadis 2005, p. 6). The latter section begins with a similar statement requesting respondents to answer the questions based upon what they think now after having completed the study abroad experience. The responses to these questions allow for comparisons to be drawn between pre- and post-departure values and expectations/perceived outcomes of those in the study. The final section (questions 5 to 18) includes questions about when they started their Magellan Exchange experience, what their home and host schools were, how many times they studied abroad, and if they have worked in an international capacity, as well as includes demographic questions about gender, age, and nationality. In order to effectively

utilize Internet technology, this questionnaire was converted to an online format using the services of SurveyMonkey, an online tool used by more than 80 percent of Fortune 100 companies (SurveyMonkey nd).

Selected questionnaire items. In order to investigate the hypotheses and research questions introduced in chapter one, items were selected from the questionnaires used by IES (2002) and Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang (2006) (see Appendix A and B, respectively). Table 3.1 below summarizes these items and indicates how they relate to the present study's hypotheses, research questions, and conceptual framework. A further discussion of the applicability of these items follows Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Summary of Items from Existing Surveys Used in Present Study's Survey

Question Number - Items from Existing Surveys (see Appendix A & B)	**Question Number on Present Survey (see Appendix C)**	**Link to Hypothesis/Research Question; Rationale for Use**
IES (2002)		
Q1 – year of participation	Q6	Useful for comparing time elapsed since studying abroad
Q4, 4A – did you participate in an internship while abroad; if so, did it assist you in your career?	Q9	Relevant to the conceptual framework's inclusion of "career outcomes"
Q9A – number of subsequent study abroad programs	Q11	Useful for comparing respondents who participated in subsequent programs to those who did not
Q10 – number of prior study abroad programs	Q10	Useful for comparing respondents who had prior study abroad experience to those who did not
Q12 – worked in an international capacity since studying abroad	Q12	Relevant to the conceptual framework's inclusion of "career outcomes"
Q18 – influence of study abroad	Q13	Relevant to the conceptual framework
Q21 – gender	Q15	Relevant to the conceptual framework
Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang (2006)		
Q9 – to obtain a different view of the world	Q1a (Q3a)	Relevant to H1
Q40 – to see new things	Q1b (Q3b)	Relevant to H1
Q17 – to experience another culture	Q1d (Q3d)	Relevant to H1
Q20 – to have fun	Q1e (Q3e)	Relevant to H1
Q30 – to learn other languages	Q1p (Q3p)	Relevant to H1

Q47 – to create my own independent life	Q1q (Q3q)	Relevant to H1
Q44 – to give me a more open mind	Q1r (Q3r)	Relevant to H1
Q54 – to help myself realize my own potential	Q1s (Q3s)	Relevant to H1
Q66 – to go into debt	Q1t (Q3t)	Relevant to H1
Q69 – to miss my family and friends	Q1u & Q1v (Q3u & Q3v)	Relevant to H1
Q71 – to be wary of new places	Q1w (Q3w)	Relevant to H1
Q76 – to prevent me from graduating on time	Q1x (Q3x)	Relevant to H1
Q53 – to make professional work connections	Q1f (Q3f)	Relevant to H1; H3.1; H3.3
Q64 – to equip myself to be able to work in another country	Q1g (Q3g)	Relevant to H1; H3.1; H3.3; RQ4
Q1 – to learn advanced business techniques	Q1h (Q3h)	Relevant to H1; H3.1; H3.3; RQ4
Q6 – to compare doing business in my country with doing business in another country	Q1i (Q3i)	Relevant to H1; H3.1; H3.3; RQ4
Q8 – to help myself develop a career in international business	Q1j (Q3j)	Relevant to H1; H3.1; H3.3; RQ4
Q140 – age	Q16	Relevant to the conceptual framework
Q143 – nationality	Q17	Relevant to the conceptual framework

H1: *There are no differences between expectations prior to the study abroad experience and perceived outcomes afterward.*
H3.1: *European and U.S. students will have the same expectations regarding career-related variables prior to the study abroad experience*
H3.3: *European and U.S. students will perceive the same outcomes regarding the career-related variables after the study abroad experience*
RQ 4: *How do their original expectations compare to their perceptions of the experiences' impact on their job marketability after spending time abroad?*

(Source: Developed for this study)

The Sanchez, Fornerino, and Zhang (2006) questionnaire asked respondents questions pertaining to expectations; as noted in Table 3.1, the present questionnaire utilized many of the same items and applied them not only to the concept of *expectations* but also to the concept of *perceived outcomes*. This allowed for the expansion of existing research. Expanding the existing body of knowledge was also accomplished by adding additional questions specifically relating to career-related outcomes (Q1k-Q1o and Q3k-Q3o; see Appendix C). The use of existing items and

the inclusion of additional ones allowed the present study to address RQ4 as well as offered a means of testing H1, H3.1, and H3.3.

Further, asking respondents to evaluate the importance of the *values* associated with these expectations and perceived outcomes related to RQ3 (*Have their values changed since before their abroad experience?*). These value items also provided a means of testing H2 (*There are no differences between the values prior to the study abroad experience and the values afterward*), as well as H3.2 (*European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables prior to the study abroad experience*.) and H3.4 (*European and U.S. students will have the same values for the career-related variables after the study abroad experience*.).

In addition, the use of additional career-related items as well as value items allowed for the investigation of RQ1 (*What were the pre-experience values and expectations of students who studied abroad?*) and RQ2 (*What are their values and perceived outcomes subsequent to the study abroad experience?*).

Limitations. Ideally, a pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental design would have been used in the present study; however, given the limited time frame and sample size, this was not practically feasible. Therefore, respondents were asked to recall their expectations and values prior to studying abroad. This represents a limitation since the longer the experience abroad, perhaps the less accurate the respondent's memory, which may affect the reliability, particularly for those with the greatest amount of time elapsed since the study abroad experience. However, there were more respondents who more recently went abroad than those who went abroad in the early years of the program, which lessened the negative impact on reliability. Although

the pre-test/post-test quasi experimental would have been ideal, using a recall method afforded the opportunity to reach a wider population in a relatively short amount of time, generating some insight into the changes that occur between the pre-experience expectations and post-experience perceived outcomes, as well as the associated values, as a result of the learning experience.

3.2.5 Validity and reliability

To protect against the effect of reactivity, the respondents in the present study were not made aware of the specific hypotheses being tested. This improved internal validity. To better ensure face validity, the questionnaire was assessed by marketing research and statistics professors prior to administering it to those in the present study. Since there were more respondents who more recently went abroad than those who went abroad in the early years of the program, the reliability was improved because their recollections were more likely to be more relevant to future study abroad participants.

To test the internal consistency of the questionnaire, the present questionnaire's results had split half reliabilities applied to them in addition to the computation of Cronbach's alpha for internal reliability. SPSS divided Section A (pre-departure expectations and values) into two subscales; the comparison of the scores of the subscales yielded a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of 0.765. Section B (post-experience perceived outcomes and values) was also divided into two subscales; comparison of these scores yielded a Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient of 0.777. Further analysis of Section A yielded a Cronbach's alpha of

0.897, while Section B yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.931. The Cronbach's alpha of the entire questionnaire was 0.946. An alpha of 0.700 or higher indicates acceptable reliability (Hair et al, 2006); therefore, the strong alpha reliabilities of the present scale indicate that respondents are providing consistent responses to the survey items.

To assess the questionnaire's validity, exploratory factor analysis was used to identify latent factors. Chapter 4 will discuss the findings of this analysis, which include the identification of five underlying expectation factors and five value factors.

3.3 Data Collection

The following sections explain the data collection methods utilized in this study. As previously mentioned, all participants of The Magellan Exchange who were students in the field of business were included in the study; attempts to reach this population were made in two ways, as detailed in the sections below.

3.3.1 Administration of the survey

Due to the size of the population and the expected response rate, a decision was made to invite all past business participants of The Magellan Exchange to take the survey and participate in the study rather than selecting a sample.

Once the spreadsheet of contact information was updated as much as possible, the list was sorted to separate those with email addresses on file from those who only had a physical address on file. Those who had an email address on file were sent an

email thanking them for studying abroad through The Magellan Exchange, explaining the purpose of the study, and directing them to a website link where they could complete the online survey.

For those without an email address on file, a letter was sent to their last known address thanking them for studying abroad through The Magellan Exchange, explaining the purpose of the study, and directing them to a website link where they could complete the online survey.

Research designs are susceptible to error, and survey methodology is not immune. The potential sources of error can be categorized as random sampling and non-sampling errors. Random sampling errors arise when the chosen sample is not representative of the targeted population. In this study, a census was conducted rather than a sample in order to increase the number of responses. Non-sampling errors can result from a variety of sources, such as 'errors in problem definition, approach, scales, questionnaire design, interviewing methods, and data preparation and analysis' (Malhotra 2010, p. 85), and may be random or nonrandom. Non-sampling errors can be divided into non-response error (e.g., refusal to participate) and response error (i.e., researcher error, interviewer error, respondent error) (Malhotra 2010).

Actions were to taken to reduce errors so as not to weaken the reliability and validity of the study. To minimize non-response error, the purpose of the study was shared with those in the population. In addition, they were informed about the potential benefits of the research as well as about the importance of their insight. Further, the

introductory letter/email offered an incentive: one respondent would be selected at random to win a copy of the book 1,000 Places to See Before You Die.

The use of an electronic survey reduced interviewer errors, such as recording and cheating errors, since an interviewer was not used; therefore, there was no potential for an interviewer hearing and recording responses incorrectly or failing to ask all survey questions.

3.3.1.1 Follow up attempts

A follow up attempt was made to those who had not responded to the email invitation within two weeks. Non-respondents were once again asked to participate in the survey and reminded that their input was valuable. A third and final attempt was then made to non-respondents two weeks later. Since there were no costs involved to follow up by email other than a small amount of time, this was a worthwhile effort to improve the overall response rate of the study.

No follow up attempts were made to reach those who received letter invitations due to the expense and time involved to reach people with postal mail.

3.3.1.2 Data collection

All responses to the online survey were collected via SurveyMonkey. This online tool managed responses and tracked respondents and non-respondents. Only the researcher had access to the responses, and all data was kept private and confidential.

There were 1,180 past participants in the population. As indicated in Table 3.2 below, 950 survey invitations were distributed, of which 795 (or 84 percent) were via email and 155 (or 16 percent) were by post. Of these 950, 156 were undeliverable. Due to lack of email and postal addresses, 230 past Magellan Exchange participants were not sent survey invitations at all.

The overall response rate was 24.1 percent; however, if one calculates this figure by taking the total surveys distributed less those that were undeliverable, the net response rate is 28.8 percent. Most of those in the population who did not have an email address on file were those who participated in the early years of the exchange program; therefore, it was less likely that the postal contact information on file was still accurate. As expected, the response rate from those approached by post was far less than those by email; the net response rate of the email surveys was 32.9 percent, while the net response rate of those invited by post was only 7.8 percent.

Table 3.2: Response Rate of Present Study's Survey

	Total Surveys Distributed	**Surveys Distributed***	Initial Responses**	Responses** After First Follow-Up	Responses** After Second Follow-Up	**Total Completed Surveys**	**Response Rate**	**Net Response Rate**
Email	**795**	**666**	95	73	40	**219**	**27.5%**	**32.9%**
Post	**155**	**128**	10	N/A	N/A	**10**	**6.5%**	**7.8%**
Total	***950***	***794***				***229***	***24.1%***	***28.8%***

Source: Developed for this study *Total, less undeliverable **excludes incomplete responses

3.4 Data Preparation and Analysis

Once the raw data in the questionnaires is collected, it must be converted to a useable form prior to analysis. 'The quality of statistical results depends on the care exercised in the data-preparation phase' (Malhotra 2010, p. 419). The following

paragraphs discuss the processes of questionnaire checking, editing, coding and analysis.

The first step in the data preparation process is questionnaire checking. One must ensure questionnaire completeness and interviewer quality (Malhotra 2010). In this study, the survey was administered electronically, hosted by SurveyMonkey. The SurveyMonkey system automatically checked for complete surveys. It was possible to filter out the complete surveys from the incomplete surveys. Further, since the questionnaire was electronically administered, there was no need to check for interviewer quality.

Editing is the second step of the data preparation process. During this stage, questionnaires are reviewed in order to increase accuracy, typically done by seeking to identify incomplete, ambiguous, or illegible responses (Malhotra 2010). Since an electronic survey was administered, no editing was necessary; there were no unstructured questions and no handwritten, illegible responses.

Next, coding must be conducted (Malhotra 2010). The survey consisted of fixed alternative questions, and SurveyMonkey automatically coded each question. The data was automatically prepared for export to Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) in order to conduct statistical analysis.

The analysis process follows coding (Malhotra 2010). Initial data analysis included running frequencies. A paired samples t-test was utilized to look for changes in the career-related variables from pre-experience to post-experience responses from the past participant population. A test of independent means and multivariate analysis of

variance (Manova) was also utilized. Comparisons can be made between the U.S. and European sub-samples as shown in Figure 3.1 as well as for other classification variables.

	Pre-Study Abroad	Post-Study Abroad
Attributes	U.S.	U.S.
	European	European
Valences	U.S.	U.S.
	European	European

Figure 3.1: Comparison of U.S. and European Sub-Samples

3.5 Ethics

The University of Southern Queensland (USQ) provides clear guidelines for research. Prior to undertaking the study, the researcher applied for ethical clearance from USQ. The USQ Human Research Ethics Committee reviewed this request and granted clearance. In addition, the researcher sought and received written approval from The Magellan Exchange to contact its participants for the purposes of this study.

There were no psychological or other risks to the participants, and there were no financial costs incurred by respondents. Respondents were asked to identify themselves for the purposes of determining with whom to follow up, but the confidentiality of their responses was assured; the written results of the study do not

include any names. At most, respondents are identified by country and/or nationality only.

This study fully adheres to the ethical guidelines set forth by USQ for research involving human participants. In addition, the researcher personally assured ethical processes were followed throughout the study.

3.6 Conclusion

The present study began with the statement of the research problem. A primary research question was determined as indicated in chapter 1: How does a study abroad experience influence business students' values, expectations, and perceptions of career-related variables? Several sub-questions were then established, as discussed throughout chapter 2. These questions primarily dealt with how business students' values, expectations and perceptions of outcomes differ pre-experience and post-experience. The study also posed research questions about the perceptions of the experience's impact on job marketability and other career-related variables, as well as about differences across nationalities, gender and age groups. From these research questions, specific null hypotheses were proposed, as discussed in detail in chapter 2.

Deductive reasoning allows one to work from a general theory to a hypothesis, and then narrow down to observations and finally confirmation. In this case, expectancy theory, career development theory and goal setting theory were used to explore the research problem, research questions and hypotheses. Once these were established, an appropriate research design could be determined (Social Research Methods, nd).

As explored in the above sections, qualitative and quantitative methodologies were compared and contrasted, and the underlying paradigm assumptions were discussed. A justification was made for the use of the quantitative methodology in the present study. Testing of the specific hypotheses required this kind of methodology in order to explore the relationships between values and expectations prior to the study abroad experience and the values and perceived outcomes after the study abroad experience.

The survey method was justified as a means of collecting data in this study in order to provide flexibility in the questioning. Particularly, the electronic survey was discussed as the most appropriate means of quickly and inexpensively gathering data from those in the population worldwide.

The selected research design was explained in the preceding sections. The population of the study was past participants of The Magellan Exchange, a consortium dedicated to student exchanges. This study abroad program was explained in detail, and chapter 3 further described the ways in which the population's contact information was updated as much as possible prior to administering the survey online. Chapter 3 then justified the use of a census rather than a sample in order to maximize the expected response rate.

Chapter 3 also discussed the questionnaire selected for the study. It was based on two previously tested questionnaires, one from the IES study (Dwyer 2004) and one from another prior study (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). The survey contained questions about basic demographics and about academic, personal, social and career

development. This questionnaire was converted to an electronic format in order to reach potential respondents in a timely and cost effective manner.

Further, chapter 3 discussed the way in which data was collected via SurveyMonkey as well as how the data was analyzed in SPSS. Finally, chapter 3 explored the ethical issues surrounding the study and detailed the steps taken by the researcher to ensure that proper ethical standards were upheld during the present study.

CHAPTER 4 – DATA ANALYSIS

Chapter 4, which will present the analysis of the survey data, consists of five sections. The first section, 4.1, provides a description of the respondents. The next sections, 4.2 to 4.2.3, discuss the data analysis procedures and findings as they pertain to the hypotheses presented in chapter 1. The last sections, 4.3 to 4.5, provide a discussion of other interesting findings that resulted from additional analysis. The final section, 4.6, serves as a summary of chapter 4.

4.1 Description of the Respondents

All respondents had studied abroad through The Magellan Exchange as university students. As indicated in Table 4.1, almost all respondents were under the age of 35 (98.2%); the largest group of respondents was between the ages of 22 and 25 (52.2%). The majority of respondents were females (53.5%). Given that The Magellan Exchange's member universities were only in North America (predominantly the United States) and Europe at the time of this study, it is not surprising that most respondents (92.1%) were from the United States and Europe. However, a few respondents indicated their home countries were in Latin America (4.0%), Asia (3.5%), and Africa (0.4%); these individuals were international degree seeking students at the member university at the time of their study abroad experience through Magellan.

Table 4.1: Frequencies of respondent profiles: gender, age, and nationality

	Frequencies	
GENDER	n = 226	
Female	121	53.5%
Male	105	46.5%
AGE	n = 226	
18-21 years	38	16.8%
22-25 years	118	52.2%
26-29 years	35	15.5%
30-34 years	31	13.7%
35-39 years	2	0.9%
40-44 years	0	0.0%
45-49 years	1	0.4%
50 years and over	1	0.4%
NATIONALITY	n = 226	
North America	*97*	*43.0%*
United States	91	40.3%
Mexico	6	2.7%
Europe	*117*	*51.8%*
Austria	6	2.7%
Belgium	25	11.6%
Finland	16	7.8%
France	10	4.4%
Germany	23	10.2%
Netherlands	28	12.4%
Spain	5	2.2%
Turkey	1	0.4%
United Kingdom	3	1.3%
Latin America	*3*	*1.3%*
Brazil	1	0.4%
Dominican Rep.	1	0.4%
El Salvador	1	0.4%
Asia	*8*	*3.5%*
China	4	1.8%
India	1	0.4%
Japan	2	0.9%
South Korea	1	0.4%
Africa	*1*	*0.4%*
Cameroon	1	0.4%

Source: Developed for this study

4.1.1 Study abroad experience

The majority of respondents spent one semester abroad (81.7%), while 8.3% spent an academic year and 10.4% spent a summer abroad (see Table 4.2). Given the largest group of respondents was between the ages of 22 and 25, it follows that the majority of respondents (79.1%) studied abroad 5 years ago or less.

Few respondents (15.3%) had studied abroad prior to their Magellan Exchange experience; however, 16.2% of respondents chose to study abroad again after their Magellan Exchange experience.

Table 4.2: Frequencies of respondents: duration of study abroad program, prior and post study abroad experience

	Frequencies	
Duration of Magellan Exchange Study Abroad Program	n = 229	
Semester	187	81.7%
Summer	23	10.4%
Academic Year	19	8.3%
Prior Study Abroad Experience	n = 229	
Yes, studied abroad before the Magellan Exchange program	35	15.3%
In high school	23	10.0%
In college	10	4.4%
In high school and college	2	0.9%
No, did not study abroad before the Magellan Exchange program	194	84.7%
Post Study Abroad Experience	n = 229	
Yes, studied abroad again after the Magellan Exchange program	37	16.2%
Once more	31	13.5%
Twice more	5	2.2%
Thrice more	1	0.4%
No, did not study abroad after the Magellan Exchange program	192	83.8%

Source: Developed for this study

4.1.2 Internships

As shown in Table 4.3, the majority of respondents (84.3%) did not participate in an internship in conjunction with their classes while studying abroad through The Magellan Exchange. Of those who did participate in an internship, slightly more than half (52.8%) felt their internship experience assisted them with their career.

Table 4.3: Frequencies of respondents: internships while on the Magellan Exchange

	Frequencies	
Internships	n = 229	
Participated	36	15.7%
Did not participate	193	84.3%
Internship assisted career	n = 36	
Yes	19	52.8%
No	17	47.2%

Source: Developed for this study

4.1.3 Influence of study abroad

Respondents were asked if their study abroad experience influenced their life in any way. Only 3 respondents (1.3%) felt it did not influence them in any way (see Table 4.4). There were five aspects of the study abroad experience that were deemed influential by more than half of the respondents. Many respondents (74.2%) indicated that they made friends in the host country with whom they have maintained contact, while an interest in travel was sparked among 73.8% of respondents. Respondents were also influenced to explore other cultures (66.8%), to develop a more sophisticated world view (62.4%), and to develop an interest/passion for another language and/or culture (61.1%).

In terms of career related influences, 35.8% of respondents felt their study abroad experience influenced them to obtain a job abroad, while 34.1% of respondents were influenced to work for a multi-national organization in their home country. Some respondents (15.3%) established relationships that became professional contacts, and almost a quarter of respondents (22.7%) changed their career plans because of their study abroad experience.

Table 4.4: Frequencies of respondents: influence of study abroad

	Frequencies	
INFLUENCE OF STUDY ABROAD	n = 229	
Influenced me	*226*	*98.7%*
Met host country friends with whom I stay in contact.	170	74.2%
Sparked an interest in travel.	169	73.8%
Influenced me to explore other cultures.	153	66.8%
Developed a more sophisticated way of looking at the world.	143	62.4%
Opened up an interest/passion for another language and/or another culture.	140	61.1%
Met friends from my home country with whom I stay in contact.	103	45.0%
Influenced me to get a job overseas.	82	35.8%
Influenced me to work for a multi-national organization in my home country.	78	34.1%
Changed my career plans.	52	22.7%
Established relationships that became professional contacts.	35	15.3%
Met my spouse or life partner there.	9	3.9%
Did not influence me	*3*	*1.3%*

Source: Developed for this study

4.1.4 International work

Almost half of all respondents (44.5%) have worked in an international capacity since their study abroad experience, as indicated in Table 4.5. The most frequently occurring profession (27.9%) is as a paid employee in private industry. While a large proportion of respondents have worked in some sort of international capacity, approximately one-third of respondents have been responsible for hiring employees (34.9%), and of those, 93.8% prefer to hire employees with some sort of international experience.

Table 4.5: Frequencies of respondents: international work experience since studying abroad, responsible for hiring employees

	Frequencies	
INTERNATIONAL WORK EXPERIENCE	n = 229	
Work(ed) in an international capacity since studying abroad	*102*	*44.5%*
Paid employee in private industry	64	27.9%
Paid employee for your home country government	6	2.6%
Paid employee for any other government	2	0.9%
Paid employee in a non-profit agency/organization	9	3.9%
A teacher or educator	7	3.1%
A volunteer for a non-profit agency/organization	13	5.7%
A consultant	6	2.6%
Intern abroad	13	5.7%
Have never worked in an international capacity	*127*	*55.5%*
RESPONSIBLE FOR HIRING EMPLOYEES	n = 229	
Yes, I have been responsible for hiring employees	*80*	*34.9%*
Prefer hiring employees with international experience	75	32.8%
Do not prefer hiring employees with international experience	5	2.1%
No, I have not been responsible for hiring employees	*149*	*65.1%*

Source: Developed for this study

4.2 Data Analysis Procedures

In order to test the hypotheses that were presented in chapter one, a variety of tests were conducted using SPSS. Initially, exploratory factor analysis of the survey questions pertaining to expectations and values was used for data reduction. Next, paired samples and independent samples t-tests were conducted. Paired samples t-tests were used to compare the pre-experience expectations to the post-experience perceived outcomes as well as to compare the pre-experience values to the post-experience values. Independent samples t-tests were used to compare the European and U.S. respondents' pre-experience expectations and post-experience perceived outcomes as well as their pre- and post-experience values. In addition, independent samples t-tests were conducted to compare respondents' expectations and perceived outcomes, as well as their pre- and post-experience values, on the basis of time elapsed since the study abroad experience, age, whether there was prior study abroad experience, and gender.

To make further comparisons, analyses of variance was used to examine possible differences between groups based upon the time elapsed since their study abroad experience and region of origin; gender and region of origin; age and region of origin; and age and gender.

For the purposes of analysis, a 5 percent level of significance was used for all tests, and the 5 point Likert scales were considered as interval data. This assumption of interval measure was made due to the standard treatment of Likert scales in the social sciences. Levine's test for equality of variance was used in all t-tests.

4.2.1 Exploratory factor analysis

Factor analysis is a useful statistical method for reducing and summarizing data and whose key purpose 'is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis' (Hair et al. 2006, p. 94). In a broad sense, it 'provides the tools for analyzing the structure of the interrelationships (correlations) among a large number of variables…by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors' (Hair et al. 2006, p. 94). One can assume that the variable groups, or factors, represent the data's dimensions, which 'correspond to concepts that cannot be adequately described by a single measure' (Hair et al. 2006, p. 94).

Factor analysis considers the original variables as dependent variables that are a function of latent dimensions, or factors. The rotation of the factors is an integral concept and means 'the reference axes of the factors are turned about the origin until some other position has been reached' (Hair et al. 2006, p. 113); this practice generally reduces the ambiguities that sometimes follow unrotated factors, thereby

generating simpler, more meaningful factor solutions and improving the interpretation (Hair et al. 2006).

As discussed in chapter 3, the present questionnaire was based on the IES instrument that dealt with 'academic attainment, intercultural development, career impact and personal growth' (Dwyer 2004, p. 154) and the Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006) instrument that dealt with the motivations and barriers pertaining to study abroad and the cultural impact on them. The present questionnaire measured expectations and values and also included questions about the time elapsed since their Magellan Exchange experience, what their country of origin is, if they had studied abroad before, as well as demographic questions regarding gender, age, and nationality. Exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the expectations and values; the factors were computed by averaging across the items indicated in the following discussion.

Study abroad expectations. In order to explore the latent factors of the present study, exploratory factor analysis was conducted using SPSS. The latent root criterion was applied given the use of component analysis. Only factors with latent roots, or eigenvalues, greater than 1.0 are deemed significant; any factor with an eigenvalue of less than 1.0 is disregarded (Hair et al. 2006). Regarding the participants' expectations before studying abroad, the analysis revealed five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The variables corresponding to expectations prior to study abroad were reduced from 24 to 15 items. These 15 items had loadings that ranged from 0.601 to 0.889.

Since the naming of factors is somewhat subjective, different factor labels can be assigned to the same results by different analysts (Hair et al. 2006). However, the factors pertaining to study abroad expectations were comprised of variables that seemed to allow for a relatively logical name being assigned to represent the latent nature of the factors.

According to Hair et al. (2006, p. 117), 'loadings +/-0.50 or greater are considered practically significant,' a guideline that is applicable 'when the sample size is 100 or larger'. The four items with high loadings on the first factor represent the latent variable *expectation of Adventure*, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.797. The second factor, comprised of three items, represents the latent variable *expectation of Intrepidness*, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.774. Two items loaded on the third factor, which represent the latent variable *expectation of Money*, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.740. The three items loading on factor four represent the latent variable *expectation of Career Preparation*, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.544. Factor five was comprised of three items and represents the latent variable *expectation of Self-Actualization*, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.664. These 5 factors account for 50.915 percent of the total variance. The rest of the items did not load on any factors. The scree plot confirmed the factor structure. Table 4.6 below shows the items that loaded on each of these 5 factors.

Table 4.6: Items loading on factors pertaining to *expectations* of study abroad

Factor	Latent Variable	Question: "I expect…"	Loading
1	Adventure Cronbach's alpha = 0.797	To see new things To travel To experience another culture To have fun	0.808 0.776 0.768 0.694
2	Intrepidness Cronbach's alpha = 0.774	To miss my friends To miss my family To be wary of new places	0.889 0.872 0.621
3	Money Cronbach's alpha = 0.740	To improve my starting salary upon graduation To maximize my long-term earnings	0.808 0.754
4	Career Preparation Cronbach's alpha = 0.544	To equip myself to be able to work in another country To learn advanced business techniques To help myself develop a career in international business	0.705 0.611 0.601
5	Self-Actualization Cronbach's alpha = 0.664	To become more open minded To create my own independent life To help myself realize my own potential	0.677 0.666 0.656

Source: Developed for this study

Study abroad values. Exploratory factor analysis was also used on the variables corresponding to the *values* pertaining to study abroad before the experience. These items had loadings ranging from 0.629 to 0.897 and also loaded on five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. These five factors accounted for 70.604 percent of the total variance.

Six items had high loadings on factor one, which represents the latent variable *value of Career Preparation,* yielding a Cronbach's alpha of 0.911. Five items loaded on the second factor, which represents the latent variable *value of Adventure*, yielding a Cronbach's alpha of 0.894. Factor three, which represents the latent variable *value of Intrepidness*, is comprised of five items, yielding a Cronbach's alpha of 0.866. Three items loaded on factor four, the latent variable *value of Money*, which yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.881, while four items loaded on the fifth factor, representing the latent variable *value of Self-Actualization*, yielding a Cronbach's alpha of 0.811.

The scree plot confirmed the factor structure. Table 4.7 shows the items that loaded on each of the 5 factors.

Table 4.7: Items loading on factors pertaining to *value* of study abroad

Factor	Latent Variable	Question: "I value…"	Loading
1	Career Preparation *Cronbach's alpha = 0.911*	Learning advanced business techniques	0.871
		Comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	0.857
		Helping me develop a career in international business	0.839
		Equipping myself to be able to work in another country	0.730
		Making professional work connections	0.676
		Influencing my decision in a career direction that I will pursue after graduation	0.629
2	Adventure *Cronbach's alpha = 0.894*	Seeing new things	0.876
		Travelling	0.872
		Experiencing another culture	0.782
		Having fun	0.765
		Obtaining a different view of the world	0.687
3	Intrepidness *Cronbach's alpha = 0.866*	Not missing my friends	0.897
		Not missing my family	0.895
		Not being wary of new places	0.840
		Not being able to graduate on time	0.708
		Not going into debt	0.693
4	Money *Cronbach's alpha = 0.881*	Improving my starting salary upon graduation	0.856
		Maximizing my long-term earnings	0.840
		Making myself more promotable in the long-run	0.734
5	Self-Actualization *Cronbach's alpha = 0.811*	Creating my own independent life	0.770
		Helping myself realize my own potential	0.772
		Becoming more open minded	0.709
		Learning other languages	0.680

Source: Developed for this study

In Table 4.7, the factor *value* of Career Preparation emerged as the strongest factor and its loadings were higher (ranging from 0.871 to 0.629) than were the loadings for the respondents' *expectations* of Career Preparation (ranging from 0.705 to 0.601, see Table 4.6). The two factors Adventure and Intrepidness emerged as strong factors in terms of both expectations and values. The loadings for *expectations* of Adventure ranged from 0.808 to 0.694 (see Table 4.6), while the loadings for *values* of Adventure ranged from 0.876 to 0.687 (see Table 4.7). The loadings for *expectations* of Intrepidness ranged from 0.889 to 0.621 (see Table 4.6), while the

loadings for *values* of Intrepidness ranged from 0.897 to 0.693 (see Table 4.7). In Table 4.6, the factor *expectation* of Money had loadings that were higher (ranging from 0.808 to 0.754) than the respondents' *value* loadings for Money (ranging from 0.856 to 0.734, see Table 4.7). The factor Self-Actualization had the lowest loadings both in terms of expectations (ranging from 0.677 to 0.656, see Table 4.6) and values (ranging from 0.770 to 0.680, see table 4.7).

4.2.2 Differences between expectations and values

This section will discuss the testing of the study's first two hypotheses, as well as the consideration of one of the research questions. The following specific null hypotheses were presented in chapter 1, while the following research question was noted in chapter 2:

> H1: There are no differences between *expectations* prior to the study abroad experience and *perceived outcomes* afterward.
>
> H2: There are no differences between the *values* prior to the study abroad experience and the *values* afterward.
>
> RQ 5: Do individuals perceive that employers value a foreign experience when evaluating them as job applicants?

Since this is an exploratory study with a limited sample, a conservative approach of using null hypotheses was followed. This section will discuss the testing of the above hypotheses.

To determine if two numbers differ from one another, a basic inferential analysis procedure called a t-test can be used (Rowntree 2004). Using SPSS, paired samples

T-tests were used to test both of the above hypotheses. Factor 1 (*Adventure*), factor 2 (*Intrepidness*), factor 3 (*Money*), factor 4 (*Career Preparation*), and factor 5 (*Self-Actualization*) were compared in terms of expectations prior to studying abroad and perceived outcomes after studying abroad, while factor 1 (Career Preparation), factor 2 (Adventure), factor 3 (Intrepidness), factor 4 (Money), and factor 5 (Self-Actualization) were compared in terms of values before and after studying abroad.

The probability value refers to 'the probability of a Type 1 error, which is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true' (Morgan et al. 2007, p. 92). As indicated in Table 4.8 below, the probability (sig. = 0.000) is less than the alpha level (0.05); therefore, the results of the t-test are statistically significant. Thus, hypothesis 1 (H1) is rejected. The *perceived outcomes* of all five factors were significantly different after the study abroad experience compared to the *expectations* prior to the study abroad experience.

Table 4.8: Factor comparison of *expectations* prior to and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

		Paired Differences					
		Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Std. Error Mean**	**T**	**df**	**Sig. (2 tailed)**
Pair 1	Factor one: *expectation* of Adventure, pre-experience Factor one: perceived *outcome* of Adventure, post-experience	-1.055	1.312	0.085	-12.402	237	0.000
Pair 2	Factor two: *expectation* of Intrepidness, pre-experience Factor two: perceived *outcome* of Intrepidness, post-experience	-1.013	1.124	0.073	-13.904	237	0.000
Pair 3	Factor three: *expectation* of Money, pre-experience Factor three: perceived *outcome* of Money, post-experience	-0.794	1.259	0.082	-9.734	237	0.000
Pair 4	Factor four: *expectation* of Career Preparation, pre-experience Factor four: perceived *outcome* of Career Preparation, post-experience	-1.108	1.211	0.079	-14.113	237	0.000
Pair 5	Factor five: *expectation* of Self-Actualization, pre-experience Factor five: perceived *outcome* of Self-Actualization, post-experience	-1.493	1.237	0.080	-18.621	237	0.000

Source: Developed for this study

Likewise, the results of the comparison of values prior to the study abroad experience and values after the study abroad experience are significant (sig. = 0.000) at the 0.05 level. Therefore, hypothesis 2 (H2) is also rejected. The values of all five factors were significantly different after the study abroad experience compared to the values prior to the study abroad experience (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9: Factor comparison of *values* prior to and *values* after studying abroad

		Paired Differences					
		Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Std. Error Mean**	**T**	**df**	**Sig. (2 tailed)**
Pair 1	Factor one: *value* of Career Preparation, pre-experience Factor one: *value* of Career Preparation, post-experience	-0.425	0.678	0.045	-9.499	229	0.000
Pair 2	Factor two: *value* of Adventure, pre-experience Factor two: *value* of Adventure, post-experience	-0.250	0.600	0.040	-6.317	229	0.000
Pair 3	Factor three: *value* of Intrepidness, pre-experience Factor three: *value* of Intrepidness, post-experience	-0.189	0.883	0.058	-3.239	229	0.000
Pair 4	Factor four: *value* of Money, pre-experience Factor four: *value* of Money, post-experience	-0.309	0.771	0.051	-6.071	229	0.000
Pair 5	Factor five: *value* of Self-Actualization, pre-experience Factor five: *value* of Self-Actualization, post-experience	-0.310	0.568	0.037	-8.272	229	0.000

Source: Developed for this study

To address RQ 5 above, respondents were asked if they thought their study abroad experience would make them more attractive to employers when being considered as a job applicant. A paired samples T-test was used to determine if there were differences between the expectation of attractiveness prior to studying abroad and the perceived outcome after the experience. As indicated in Table 4.10 below, the probability (sig. = 0.000) is less than the alpha level (0.05); therefore the results are statistically significant. The *expectation of attractiveness to prospective employers* prior to studying abroad was significantly different than the *perceived outcome of attractiveness to prospective employers* after studying abroad. Likewise, the results of the comparison of the value of this variable prior to the study abroad experience and the value after the study abroad experience were significant (sig. = 0.008) at the 0.05 level.

Table 4.10: Comparison of *expectations* prior to and *perceived outcomes* after, and of *value* prior to and after, studying abroad: attractiveness to prospective employers

		Paired Differences					
		Mean	**Std. Dev.**	**Std. Error Mean**	**t**	**df**	**Sig. (2 tailed)**
Pair 1	*Expectation* of attractiveness to prospective employers, pre-experience Perceived *outcome* of attractiveness to prospective employers, post-experience	-1.097	1.884	0.122	-8.982	237	.000
Pair 2	*Value* of attractiveness to prospective employers, pre-experience *Value* of attractiveness to prospective employers, post-experience	-.148	0.844	0.056	-2.658	237	0.008

Source: Developed for this study

4.2.3 Cross-cultural hypotheses

This section will discuss the testing of the following cross-cultural null hypotheses, which were presented in chapter 1:

> H3.1: European and U.S. students will have the same *expectations* regarding career-related variables prior to the study abroad experience.
>
> H3.2: European and U.S. students will have the same *values* for the career-related variables prior to the study abroad experience.
>
> H3.3: European and U.S. students will perceive the same *outcomes* regarding the career-related variables after the study abroad experience.
>
> H3.4: European and U.S. students will have the same *values* for the career-related variables after the study abroad experience.

Using SPSS, independent samples t-tests were used to test these cross-cultural hypotheses by comparing the U.S. and European respondents on the questionnaire's individual career-related items, as indicated below, as they pertained to respondents' expectations and values:

- *Employability*: Making myself more attractive to employers when they evaluate me as a job applicant
- *Career Choice*: Influencing my decision in a career direction to pursue after graduation
- *Career/Professional Preparation*: Making professional work experiences; equipping myself to be able to work in another country; learning advanced business techniques; comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country; and developing a career in international business
- *Starting Salary*: Improving starting salary upon graduation
- *Earnings*: Maximizing long-term earnings
- *Promotability*: Making myself more promotable in the long-term

Career-related *expectations* prior to the study abroad experience. As shown in Appendix D, there were no significant differences between the U.S. and European respondents on their *expectations* of career/professional preparation, employability, career choice, starting salary, earnings or promotability prior to their study abroad experience. Therefore, hypothesis 3.1 (H3.1) is accepted.

Career-related *values* prior to the study abroad experience. There were no significant differences between U.S. and European respondents on their values about career/professional preparation, employability, or career choice (see Appendix D). However, as indicated in Table 4.11 below, the means of the variable *value of starting salary* prior to studying abroad were significantly different, t (206) = 2.837, sig. = 0.005, between U.S. and European respondents. In addition, the means of the variable *value of earnings* were significantly different, t (206) = 2.449, sig. = 0.015, and the means of the *value of promotability* were significantly different, t (206) = 2.970, sig. = 0.003, prior to the study abroad experience between U.S. and European respondents. Therefore, hypothesis 3.2 (H3.2) is rejected. Given the exploratory nature of this study and the small sample size, a conservative approach of using null hypotheses was followed. This hypothesis was rejected since there were significant

differences between U.S. and European respondents on at least a portion of the career-related values prior to studying abroad.

Table 4.11: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of career-related *values* before studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
STARTING SALARY: *Value* of improving starting salary upon graduation	US Europe	91 117	3.480 3.090	0.993 0.974
EARNINGS: *Value* of maximizing long-term earnings	US Europe	91 117	3.490 3.150	0.959 1.022
PROMOTABILITY: *Value* of making myself more promotable in the long-term	US Europe	91 117	3.950 3.560	0.886 0.941

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
STARTING SALARY: *Value* of improving starting salary upon graduation	2.837	206	0.005	0.389	0.137
EARNINGS: *Value* of maximizing long-term earnings	2.449	206	0.015	0.341	0.139
PROMOTABILITY: *Value* of making self more promotable in the long-term	2.970	206	0.003	0.381	0.128

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

The conclusion is that U.S. respondents placed greater importance on the career-related factors of starting salary, long-term earnings, and promotability before studying abroad than their European counterparts did.

Career-related *perceived outcomes* after the study abroad experience. There were no significant differences between U.S. and European respondents on the *perceived outcomes* of employability, career choice, starting salary, earnings, or promotability (see Appendix D). However, as indicated in Table 4.12 below, the means of one of the career-related variables pertaining to *perceived outcome of career/professional preparation* after studying abroad were significantly different, t (206) = 2.764, sig. = 0.006, between U.S. and European respondents. Therefore,

hypothesis 3.3 (H3.3) is rejected since there was a significant difference between U.S. and European respondents on at least one of the career-related perceived outcomes after the study abroad experience.

Table 4.12: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *perceived outcomes* of career-related variables after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Perceived outcome* of making professional work connections	US Europe	91 117	3.340 2.870	1.310 1.134

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Perceived outcome* of making professional work connections	2.764	206	0.006	0.469	0.170

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Career-related *values* after the study abroad experience. There were no significant differences between U.S. and European respondents on the values of most of the career/professional preparation variables or the value of employability and career choice (see Appendix D). However, as indicated in Table 4.13 below, the means of one of the career/professional preparation variables (making professional connections) were significantly different, t (206) = 2.897, sig. = 0.004, between U.S. and European respondents. In addition, the means of the variable *value of starting salary* after studying abroad were significantly different, t (206) = 2.185, sig. = 0.030, between U.S. and European respondents. Further, the means of the variable *value of earnings* after the study abroad experience significantly differed, t (206) = 3.288, sig. = 0.001, and the means of the *value of promotability* after the study abroad experience were significantly different, t (206) = 3.341, sig. = 0.001, between

U.S. and European respondents. Therefore, hypothesis 3.4 (H3.4) is rejected due to the significant differences between U.S. and European respondents on at least some of the career-related values after the international experience.

Table 4.13: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *values* of career-related variables after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of making professional work connections	US Europe	91 117	4.230 3.830	0.895 1.061
STARTING SALARY: *Value* of improving starting salary upon graduation	US Europe	91 117	3.780 3.480	0.987 0.988
EARNINGS: *Value* of maximizing long-term earnings	US Europe	91 117	3.930 3.490	0.975 0.970
PROMOTABILITY: *Value* of making myself more promotable in the long-term	US Europe	91 117	4.200 3.800	0.846 0.843

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of making professional work connections	2.897	206	0.004	0.402	0.139
STARTING SALARY: *Value* of improving starting salary upon graduation	2.185	206	0.030	0.302	0.138
EARNINGS: *Value* of maximizing long-term earnings	3.288	206	0.001	0.447	0.136
PROMOTABILITY: *Value* of making self more promotable in the long-term	3.341	206	0.001	0.394	0.118

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

The conclusion is that after the foreign experience, European respondents placed less importance on the study abroad experience's impact on improving starting salary and maximizing long-term earnings potential, as well as on making professional work connections and improving promotability, than did U.S. respondents.

4.3 Further Cross-Cultural Comparisons: European and U.S. Respondents

To further explore possible differences between European and U.S. respondents in regard to their expectations and values prior to studying abroad and their perceived outcomes and values after the abroad experience, a series of independent samples t-tests were performed. European and U.S. respondents were compared on each of the five expectation factors and each of the five value factors (Money, Career Preparation, Adventure, Intrepidness, and Self-Actualization).

4.3.1 European and U.S. respondents: *expectations* of Adventure before and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

As indicated in Table 4.14 below, the t-test indicated that the means of the factor *expectation of Adventure* differed significantly before the study abroad experience, t (206) = 3.608, sig. = 0.000. In addition, another t-test indicated that the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after the experience were significantly different, t (206) = 2.951, sig. = 0.001, between European and U.S. respondents.

Table 4.14: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *expectations* of Adventure before and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	US	91	4.050	1.412
	Europe	117	3.327	1.448
Perceived Outcomes of Adventure, post-experience	US	91	4.819	0.511
	Europe	117	4.594	0.569

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	3.608	206	0.000	0.723	0.200
Perceived Outcomes of Adventure, post-experience	2.951	206	0.004	0.225	0.076

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations/outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

The conclusion is that culture played a role in the expectations of adventure prior to study abroad as well as in the perceived outcomes of adventure after the abroad experience; U.S. respondents had greater expectations, as well as greater perceived outcomes, on this factor than European respondents.

4.3.2 European and U.S. respondents: *expectations* of Money before and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

The t-test did not reveal significant differences between the means of the factor *expectation of Money* prior to the study abroad experience or between the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Money* after studying abroad between European and U.S. respondents (see Appendix D).

4.3.3 European and U.S. respondents: *expectations* of Career Preparation before and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

The t-test did not reveal significant differences between the means of the factor *expectation of Career Preparation* prior to the study abroad experience or between the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Career Preparation* after the experience between European and U.S. respondents (see Appendix D).

4.3.4 European and U.S. respondents: *expectations* of Intrepidness before and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

The t-test did not reveal significant differences between the means of the factor *expectation of Intrepidness* prior to the study abroad experience or of the factor *perceived outcome of Intrepidness* after the abroad experience between European and U.S. respondents (see Appendix D).

4.3.5 European and U.S. respondents: *expectations* of Self-Actualization before and *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad

The t-test did not reveal significant differences between the means of the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* prior to the study abroad experience or of the factor *perceived outcome of Self-Actualization* after the experience between European and U.S. respondents (see Appendix D).

4.3.6 European and U.S. respondents: *value* of Adventure before and after studying abroad

The independent samples t-test indicated that the means of the factor *value of Adventure* before studying abroad differed significantly, t (206) = 2.410, sig. = 0.017, between European and U.S. participants. In addition, the t-test indicated that the means of the factor *value of Adventure* after the study abroad experience differed significantly, t (206) = 3.483, sig. = 0.001, between European and U.S. respondents (see Table 4.15).

Table 4.15: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *value* of Adventure before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	US	91	4.473	0.663
	Europe	117	4.251	0.652
Value of Adventure, post-experience	US	91	4.741	0.540
	Europe	117	4.482	0.524

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	2.410	206	0.017	0.221	0.092
Value of Adventure, post-experience	3.483	206	0.001	0.259	0.074

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

The conclusion is that U.S. respondents placed greater importance on adventure both before and after the study abroad experience as compared to European respondents.

4.3.7 European and U.S. respondents: *value* of Money before and after studying abroad

The means of the factor *value of Money* prior to the study abroad experience differed significantly, t (206) = 3.100, sig. = 0.002, between European and U.S. respondents. The means of the factor *value of Money* after the experience were significantly different, t (206) = 3.203, sig. = 0.002, between European and U.S. respondents (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *value* of Money before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Money, pre-experience	US	91	3.641	0.845
	Europe	117	3.271	0.862
Value of Money, post-experience	US	91	3.971	0.857
	Europe	117	3.560	0.846

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Money, pre-experience	3.100	206	0.002	0.370	0.119
Value of Money, post-experience	3.203	206	0.002	0.381	0.119

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

4.3.8 European and U.S. respondents: *value* of Career Preparation before and after studying abroad

There were no significant differences between the means of the factor *value of Career Preparation* prior to studying abroad and the means of the factor *value of Career Preparation* after studying abroad (see Appendix D).

4.3.9 European and U.S. respondents: *value* of Intrepidness before and after studying abroad

There were no significant differences between the means of the factor *value of Intrepidness* prior to studying abroad (see Appendix D). However, as indicated in Table 4.17, the means of the factor *value of Intrepidness* after the abroad experience differed significantly, t (206) = 2.017, sig. = 0.045, between European and U.S. respondents.

Table 4.17: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *value* of Intrepidness before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	US	91	3.248	0.878
	Europe	117	3.019	0.761

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	2.017	206	0.045	0.230	0.114

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

4.3.10 European and U.S. respondents: *value* of Self-Actualization before and after studying abroad

There were no significant differences between the means of the factor *value of Self-Actualization* prior to studying abroad and the means of the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after studying abroad (see Appendix D).

4.4 Other Comparisons: Time Elapsed, Age, Prior Study Abroad Experience, and Gender

4.4.1 Time elapsed

To determine if there were differences between those who studied abroad 5 years ago or less and those who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, another series of

independent t-tests was conducted. The means of the factor *expectations of Career Preparation* before the experience were significantly different, t (228) = -2.482, sig. = 0.014, as were the means of the factor *expectations of Self-Actualization* before the experience, t (228) = -2.242, sig. = 0.026 (see Table 4.18). There were neither significant differences between the means of the factors *expectations of Money, Intrepidness,* and *Adventure,* nor between the means of the factors *perceived outcome of Money, Intrepidness, Adventure, Career Preparation,* and *Self-Actualization.* Furthermore, there were no significant differences between the means of the factors *value of Money, Intrepidness, Adventure, Career Preparation,* or *Self-Actualization* either before or after the abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Table 4.18: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad: *expectations* of Career Preparation and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Time Elapsed	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	2.118	0.882
	5 years ago or less	182	2.540	1.088
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	2.278	1.172
	5 years ago or less	182	2.764	1.375

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	-2.482	228	0.014	-0.422	0.170
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	-2.242	228	0.026	-0.486	0.217

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

4.4.2 Age

Other independent samples t-tests were used to examine the possible differences between respondents who are 30 and over and those who are under 30 years of age. Analysis revealed significant differences between the means of the factor *expectation of Adventure* prior to studying abroad, t (224) = 2.165, sig. = 0.031, as well as

between the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after the study abroad experience, t (224) = 2.326, sig. = 0.021. There were also significant differences, t (224) = 2.336, sig. = 0.020, between the means of the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* prior to studying abroad (see Table 4.19). No significant differences were revealed between the means of the factors *expectations of Intrepidness, Money,* or *Career Preparation* prior to the abroad experience or of the factors *perceived outcomes of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation,* or *Self-Actualization* after the experience. There were also no significant differences between the means of any of the value factors either before or after the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Table 4.19: Comparison of respondent age: *expectations* of Adventure and Self-Actualization before studying abroad and *perceived outcomes* of Adventure after studying abroad

	Age of Respondent	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	190	3.738	1.433
	30 years old and over	35	3.157	1.594
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.734	0.550
	30 years old and over	35	4.500	0.536
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	2.741	1.369
	30 years old and over	35	2.171	1.071

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	2.165	223	0.031	0.581	0.268
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	2.326	224	0.021	0.234	0.101
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	2.336	224	0.020	0.570	0.244

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations/outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

4.4.3 Prior study abroad experience

Analysis was conducted to determine if there were differences between those who had studied abroad prior to their Magellan Exchange experience and those who had

not. A series of independent samples t-tests were conducted to reveal possible differences. As shown in Table 4.20, the means of the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* prior to the international experience were significantly different, t (227) = 2.443, sig. = 0.015. However, no significant differences were discovered between the means of any of the other expectation factors (i.e., *Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money, Adventure).* Furthermore, there were no significant differences between the means of the factors pertaining to *perceived outcomes* after the international experience, or between the means of any of the factors pertaining to values before or after studying abroad (see Appendix D).

Table 4.20: Comparison of those with prior study abroad experience and those without: *expectations* of Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Prior study abroad experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.171	1.427
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	2.572	1.319

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	2.443	227	0.015	0.599	0.245

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

4.4.4 Gender

To determine if there were differences between male and female respondents in terms of their expectations and values before studying abroad and their perceived outcomes and values after studying abroad, a series of independent samples t-tests was conducted. As indicated in Table 4.21, the means of the factor *expectation of Adventure* prior to the international experience were significantly different, t (223) = 4.002, sig. = 0.000. There were also significant differences, t (224) = 2.012, sig. = 0.045, between the means of the factor *expectation of Career Preparation* as well as

significant differences, t (224) = 2.544, sig. = 0.012, between the means of the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* before studying abroad. However, no significant differences were discovered between the means of the factors *expectation of Intrepidness* or *Money* prior to studying abroad (see Appendix D).

Table 4.21: Comparison of male and female respondents: *expectations* of Adventure, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Female	121	4.000	1.335
	Male	104	3.238	1.521
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Female	121	2.573	1.134
	Male	105	2.292	0.937
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Female	121	2.862	1.456
	Male	105	2.413	1.155

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	4.002	223	0.000	0.762	0.190
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	2.012	224	0.045	0.281	0.140
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	2.544	224	0.012	0.450	0.177

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Male and female respondents also differed significantly, t (224) = 3.668, sig. = 0.000, on the factor *value of Adventure* before studying abroad. In addition, the means of the factor *value of Self-Actualization* were significantly different, t (224) = 4.192, sig. = 0.000, prior to the study abroad experience (see Table 4.22 below). The means of the factors *value of Career Preparation*, *Intrepidness*, and *Money* before studying abroad were not significantly different (see Appendix D).

Table 4.22: Comparison of male and female respondents: *value* of Adventure and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Female	121	3.580	0.913
	Male	105	3.483	0.779
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Female	121	4.178	0.748
	Male	105	3.760	0.748

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	3.668	224	0.000	0.309	0.084
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	4.192	224	0.000	0.418	0.010

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

The analysis revealed no significant differences between the means of the *perceived outcome of Career Preparation* after studying abroad (see Appendix D). However, analysis revealed significant differences between male and female respondents in terms of the other value factors, as shown in Table 4.23. The means of the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure*, t (224) = 3.274, sig. = 0.001, and the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Intrepidness*, t (224) = 2.050, sig. = 0.041, differed significantly after studying abroad. Further, the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Money*, t (224) = -2.180, sig. = 0.030, and the means of the factor *perceived outcome of Self-Actualization*, t (224) = 3.438, sig. = 0.001, were significantly different after the study abroad experience.

Table 4.23: Comparison of male and female respondents: *perceived outcomes* of Adventure, Intrepidness, Money, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Female	121	4.808	0.369
	Male	105	4.571	0.689
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Female	121	3.132	0.969
	Male	105	2.870	0.948
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	Female	121	3.029	1.055
	Male	105	3.314	0.889
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Female	121	4.328	0.662
	Male	105	3.991	0.812

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	3.274	224	0.001	0.236	0.072
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	2.050	224	0.041	0.262	0.128
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	-2.180	224	0.030	-0.285	0.131
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	3.438	224	0.001	0.337	0.098

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

As shown in Table 4.24, further analysis revealed significant differences between the means of the factor *value of Adventure*, t (224) = 2.953, sig. = 0.003, after studying abroad. The means of the factor *value of Self-Actualization* also differed significantly, t (224) = 4.512, sig. = 0.000, after studying abroad. There were no significant differences between the means of the factors *value of Career Preparation*, *Intrepidness*, or *Money* after the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Table 4.24: Comparison of male and female respondents: *value* of Adventure and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Female	121	4.696	0.434
	Male	105	4.488	0.620
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Female	121	4.479	0.579
	Male	105	4.088	0.724

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Adventure, post-experience	2.953	224	0.003	0.208	0.071
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	4.512	224	0.000	0.391	0.087

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

4.5 Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) procedure is 'used for comparing sample means to see if there is sufficient evidence to infer that the means of the corresponding population distributions also differ' (George & Mallery 2007, p. 144). While t-tests are helpful when comparing two distributions, analysis of variance can compare many distributions (George & Mallery 2007). In the case of the present study, a variety of comparisons were desired for which analyses of variance was appropriate, as discussed in the following sections.

A 'one-way ANOVA will generate a significance value indicating whether there are significant differences within the comparisons being made'; however, 'this significance value does not indicate where the difference is or what the differences are' (George & Mallery 2007, p. 144).

4.5.1 Comparison of time and region

A one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences between the following groups in terms of their expectations and perceived outcomes, as well as in terms of their values before and after studying abroad:

- Group 1: European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago
- Group 2: U.S. respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago
- Group 3: European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less
- Group 4: U.S. respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less

Comparison of time and region: *expectations* before studying abroad. The one-way ANOVA revealed a significant finding (F (3, 202) = 6.262, p = 0.000) for the factor *expectation of Adventure* before studying abroad. Accg to post hoc tests, Group 1, European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, was significantly different from Groups 2 and 4 (all U.S. respondents). In addition, Group 2, U.S. respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, was significantly different from Groups 1 and 3 (all European respondents), as indicated in Table 4.25 below.

Table 4.25: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *expectation* of Adventure before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.823	1.212
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	4.158	1.302
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	92	3.440	1.480
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.063	1.412

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	12.500	6.262	0.000

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Further, the analysis revealed a significant finding (F (3, 202) = 2.846, p = 0.039) for the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* before the study abroad experience. Duncan's post hoc test indicated that Group 2, U.S. respondents who studied abroad

more than 5 years ago, and Group 4, U.S. respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less, were significantly different (see Table 4.26).

Table 4.26: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *expectation* of Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.292	1.209
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.000	0.889
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	2.613	1.230
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	2.873	1.417

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	4.807	2.846	0.039

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

The one-way ANOVA revealed no significant differences among the groups for the factors *expectations of Intrepidness, Money,* or *Career Preparation* (see Appendix D).

Comparison of time and region: *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad.

Another one-way ANOVA revealed a significant finding ($F(3, 203) = 3.362$, $p = 0.020$) for the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after the study abroad experience. Duncan's post hoc test indicated that Group 1, European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, was significantly different from Groups 2 and 4 (all U.S. respondents), as indicated in Table 4.27 below. There were no significant differences among the groups for the factors *perceived outcomes of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization* after studying abroad (see Appendix D).

Table 4.27: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *perceived outcome* of Adventure after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	4.479	0.460
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	4.855	0.268
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	4.624	0.593
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.810	0.563

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.005	3.362	0.020

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of time and region: *values* before studying abroad. The respondents' values before and after their study abroad experience were also compared. The one-way ANOVA indicated a significant finding (F (3, 203) = 4.108, p = 0.007) for the factor *value of Money* before studying abroad. As shown in Table 4.28, post hoc tests revealed that Group 1, European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, was significantly different from Groups 2 and 4 (all U.S. respondents). There were no significant differences among the groups for the factors *value of Career Preparation, Adventure, Intrepidness, and Self-Actualization* before studying abroad (see Appendix D).

Table 4.28: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *value* of Money before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.056	0.693
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.526	0.632
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.326	0.895
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.681	0.897

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	3.001	4.108	0.007

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of time and region: *values* after studying abroad. A one-way ANOVA indicated a significant finding (F (3, 203) = 4.251, p = 0.006) for the factor *value of Adventure* after studying abroad. In addition, there was a significant finding (F (3, 203) = 4.206, p = 0.007) for the factor *value of Money* after the study abroad experience. As shown in Table 4.29, post hoc tests revealed that Group 1, European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, was significantly different from Groups 2 and 4 (all U.S. respondents) for both factors *value of Adventure* and *Money*.

Table 4.29: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *value* of Adventure and Money after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	4.392	0.411
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	4.726	0.394
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	4.505	0.549
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.744	0.581
	Value of Money, post-experience:			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.361	0.834
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.877	0.833
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.649	0.843
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.000	0.874

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.212	4.251	0.006
Value of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	3.052	4.206	0.007

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

The conclusion is that all U.S. respondents placed greater importance on adventure after the experience than did the European group who had studied abroad more than 5 years ago.

There were no significant differences among the groups for the factors *value of Career Preparation, Intrepidness, and Self-Actualization* after studying abroad (see Appendix D).

4.5.2 Comparison of gender and region

To explore the effect of gender and region of origin, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences between the following groups in terms of their expectations and perceived outcomes, as well as their values before and after studying abroad:

- Group 1: U.S. females
- Group 2: U.S. males
- Group 3: European females
- Group 4: European males

Comparison of gender and region: *expectations* before studying abroad. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant finding ($F(3, 203) = 8.236$, $p = 0.000$) for the factor *expectation of Adventure* before studying abroad, as indicated in Table 4.30. Post hoc tests revealed that Group 4, European males, was significantly different from all other groups (European females and all U.S. respondents). There were no significant differences among the groups for the factors *expectation of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation, or Self-Actualization* (see Appendix D).

Table 4.30: Comparison of gender and region: *expectation* of Adventure before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.269	1.320
3	US males	37	3.730	1.498
3	European females	53	3.700	1.350
4	European males	64	2.988	1.455

		Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	16.193	8.236	0.000

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of gender and region: *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad. In terms of perceived outcomes after the study abroad experience, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences in the means of several factors. The groups were significantly different (F (3, 204) = 5.197, p = 0.002) on the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure*, significantly different (F (3, 204) = 2.816, p = 0.040) on the factor *perceived outcome of Money*, and significantly different (F (3, 204) = 3.809, p = 0.011) on the factor *perceived outcome of Self-Actualization* (see Table 4.31).

Post hoc tests revealed that Group 4, European males, was significantly different from all other groups (European females and all U.S. respondents) for the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after studying abroad. Group 2, U.S. males, significantly differed from Groups 1 and 3 (US and European females) for the factor *perceived outcome of Money* after the abroad experience. Further, Group 1, U.S. females, was significantly different from Group 4, European males, for the factor *perceived outcome of Self-Actualization* after studying abroad.

Table 4.31: Comparison of gender and region: *perceived outcome* of Adventure, Money, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.861	0.310
2	US males	37	4.757	0.711
3	European females	53	4.726	0.431
4	European males	64	4.484	0.645
	Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	2.982	1.009
2	US males	37	3.378	0.931
3	European females	53	2.859	1.026
4	European males	64	3.219	0.835
	Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.377	0.644
2	US males	37	4.072	0.943
3	European females	53	4.245	0.708
4	European males	64	3.938	0.730

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.507	5.197	0.002
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.537	2.816	0.040
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.121	3.809	0.011

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

The conclusion is that there are differences among U.S. females and males and European females and males in the *perceived outcomes of adventure, money*, and *self-actualization* after the foreign experience.

There were no significant differences among the groups for the factors *perceived outcomes of Intrepidness* and *Career Preparation* after the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Comparison of gender and region: *values* before studying abroad. Values before and after studying abroad were also compared by gender and region. A one-way ANOVA revealed a significant finding ($F(3, 204) = 5.073$, $p = 0.002$) for the factor *value of Adventure*, a significant finding ($F(3, 204) = 4.190$, $p = 0.007$) for the factor

value of Money, and a significant finding (F (3, 204) = 4.782, p = 0.003) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* before the study abroad experience (see Table 4.32). There were no significant differences between the groups for the factors *value of Intrepidness* and *Career Preparation* (see Appendix D).

Post hoc tests revealed that Group 4, European males, was significantly different from Groups 1 and 3 (US and European females) for the factor *value of Adventure*, while Group 2, U.S. males, was significantly different from female respondents (Groups 1 and 3) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after the study abroad experience. Group 3, European females, was significantly different from Groups 1 and 2 (all U.S. respondents) for the factor *value of Money* post-experience.

Table 4.32: Comparison of gender and region: *value* of Adventure, Money, and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.578	0.451
2	US males	37	4.319	0.871
3	European females	53	4.408	0.666
4	European males	64	4.122	0.616
	Value of Money, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.685	0.865
2	US males	37	3.577	0.823
3	European females	53	3.132	1.007
4	European males	64	3.385	0.708
	Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.088	0.729
2	US males	37	3.716	0.882
3	European females	53	4.193	0.784
4	European males	64	3.770	0.685

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.114	5.073	0.002
Value of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	3.047	4.190	0.007
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.758	4.782	0.003

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of gender and region: *values* after studying abroad. A one-way ANOVA indicated significant differences for all factors, except the *value of Career Preparation* (see Appendix D). The analysis revealed a significant finding ($F(3, 204) = 5.874$, $p = .001$) for the factor *value of Adventure* and a significant finding ($F(3, 204) = 2.854$, $p = .038$) for the factor *value of Intrepidness* after the abroad experience. In addition, the one-way ANOVA revealed a significant finding ($F(3, 204) = 3.907$, $p = .010$) for the factor *value of Money* and a significant finding ($F(3, 204) = 5.759$, $p = .001$) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after studying abroad, as indicated in Table 4.33.

Post hoc analysis indicated that Group 4, European males, significantly differed from Group 1, U.S. females, as well as was significantly different from Group 2, U.S. males, for the factor *value of Adventure* after studying abroad. For the factor *value of Intrepidness* after studying abroad, Group 1, U.S. females, was different from all other groups. Group 3, European females, differed significantly from Groups 1 and 2 (all U.S. respondents) for the factor *value of Money* after the study abroad experience. Males (Groups 2 and 4) were significantly different from females (Groups 1 and 3) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after studying abroad.

Table 4.33: Comparison of gender and region: *value* of Adventure, Intrepidness, Money, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.811	0.361
2	US males	37	4.638	0.721
3	European females	53	4.574	0.492
4	European males	64	4.406	0.542
	Value of Intrepidness, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.396	0.782
2	US males	37	3.032	0.972
3	European females	53	3.011	0.768
4	European males	64	3.025	0.761
	Value of Money, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.970	0.835
2	US males	37	3.973	0.901
3	European females	53	3.484	0.966
4	European males	64	3.677	0.727
	Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	4.472	0.617
2	US males	37	4.081	0.836
3	European females	53	4.443	0.584
4	European males	64	4.070	0.661

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.631	5.874	0.001
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.870	2.854	0.038
Value of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.836	3.907	0.010
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.558	5.759	0.001

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

4.5.3 Comparison of age and region

To explore the effect of age and region of origin, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences between the following groups in terms of their expectations and perceived outcomes, as well as their values before and after studying abroad:

- Group 1: European respondents under 30 years old
- Group 2: U.S. respondents under 30 years old

- Group 3: European respondents 30 years old and over
- Group 4: U.S. respondents 30 years old and over

Comparison of age and region: *expectations* before studying abroad. The one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences (F (3, 203) = 10.534, p = 0.000) for the factor *expectation of Adventure* before the study abroad experience (see Table 4.34). No significant differences were revealed for the factors *expectation of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation,* or *Self-Actualization* prior to studying abroad (see Appendix D).

Duncan's post hoc test revealed that Group 3, European respondents 30 years old and over, was significantly different from European respondents under 30 years old and all U.S. respondents.

Table 4.34: Comparison of respondent age and region: *expectation* of Adventure before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.544	1.391
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	4.007	1.450
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.132	1.128
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.286	1.204

		Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	20.102	10.534	0.000

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of age and region: *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad. Significant findings (F (3, 204) = 7.621, p = 0.000) for the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after the study abroad experience were also revealed by a one-way ANOVA (see table 4.35), while no significant differences were revealed for the other factors, *perceived outcomes of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation,* or *Self-*

Actualization (see Appendix D). Post hoc tests indicated that Group 3, European respondents 30 years old and over, was significantly different from all other groups (European respondents under 30 years old and all U.S. respondents) for the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after studying abroad.

Table 4.35: Comparison of respondent age and region: *perceived outcome* of Adventure after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	4.674	0.550
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	4.812	0.543
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	4.184	0.499
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.857	0.289

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.139	7.621	0.000

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of age and region: *values* before studying abroad. A one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences ($F(3, 204) = 2.792$, $p = 0.042$) between the groups for the factor *value of Adventure* before the study abroad experience, as well as significant differences ($F(3, 204) = 3.394$, $p = 0.019$) for the factor *value of Money* before the study abroad experience, as shown in Table 4.36. There were no significant differences between the groups for the factors *value of Career Preparation*, *Intrepidness,* and *Self-Actualization* before the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Duncan's post hoc test revealed that Group 3 (European respondents 30 years old and over) was significantly different from Groups 2 and 4 (all U.S. respondents) for the factor *value of Adventure*, while indicating significant differences between Group

3 (European respondents 30 years old and over) and Group 2 (US respondents under 30 years old) for the factor *value of Money* before studying abroad.

Table 4.36: Comparison of respondent age and region: *value* of Adventure and Money before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	4.294	0.686
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	4.470	0.700
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	4.032	0.379
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.486	0.420
	Value of Money, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.296	0.909
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.654	0.873
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.140	0.559
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.571	0.697

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.201	2.792	0.042
Value of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.496	3.394	0.019

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of age and region: *values* after studying abroad. Like the values before studying abroad, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant findings ($F(3, 204) = 6.137$, $p = 0.001$) for the factor *value of Adventure*, as well as significant findings ($F(3, 204) = 5.230$, $p = 0.002$) for the factor *value of Money*, after studying abroad, as shown in Table 4.37. There were no significant findings for the factors *value of Career Preparation*, *Intrepidness*, and *Self-Actualization* after studying abroad (see Appendix D).

Though the values before and after the study abroad experience differ significantly on the same two factors (*Adventure* and *Money*), the groups do not differ in the same way. Duncan's post hoc test revealed that Group 3 (European respondents 30 years old and over) was significantly different from all of the other groups (European respondents under 30 years old and all U.S. respondents) on the factor *value of*

Adventure after studying abroad. In terms of the factor *value of Money* after the abroad experience, Group 3 (European respondents 30 years old and over) was significantly different from Group 1 (European respondents under 30 years old) as well as significantly different from Group 4 (US respondent 30 years old and over). Group 4 also differed significantly from Group 1 on the factor *value of Money* after studying abroad.

Table 4.37: Comparison of respondent age and region: *value* of Adventure and Money after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	4.535	0.516
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	4.740	0.566
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	4.211	0.492
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.743	0.388
	Value of Money, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.663	0.847
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.940	0.866
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.211	0.747
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.143	0.814

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.699	6.137	0.001
Value of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	3.727	5.230	0.002

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

4.5.4 Comparison of age and gender

To explore the effect of age and gender, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if there were differences between the following groups in terms of their expectations and perceived outcomes, as well as their values before and after studying abroad:

- Group 1: Females under 30 years old
- Group 2: Males under 30 years old
- Group 3: Females 30 years old and over

- Group 4: Males 30 years old and over

Comparison of age and gender: *expectations* before studying abroad. A one-way ANOVA revealed significant findings (F (3, 221) = 7.306, p = 0.000) for the factor *expectation of Adventure* as well as significant findings (F (3, 222) = 4.421, p = 0.005) for the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* before studying abroad (see Table 4.38). There were no significant differences for the factors *expectations of Intrepidness, Money,* and *Career Preparation* before the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Duncan's post hoc test indicated that Group 4 (males 30 years old and over) was significantly different from Group 1 (females under 30 years old) for the factor *expectation of Adventure* before the study abroad experience. Group 2 (males under 30 years old) differed significantly from Group 1 on this factor. For the factor *expectation of Self-Actualization* before the abroad experience, Group 1 (females under 30 years old) was significantly different from Groups 3 and 4 (females and males 30 years old and over).

Table 4.38: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *expectation* of Adventure and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.091	1.284
2	Males under 30 years old	86	3.311	1.494
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.528	1.538
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	2.765	1.602
	Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	2.981	1.480
2	Males under 30 years old	87	2.456	1.167
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	2.111	1.042
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	2.235	1.129

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	14.577	7.306	0.000
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	7.601	4.421	0.005

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of age and gender: *perceived outcomes* after studying abroad. A one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences (F (3, 222) = 5.708, p = 0.001) for the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure*, as well as significant differences (F (3, 222) = 2.779, p = 0.042) for the factor *perceived outcome of Money*, after studying abroad. The factor *perceived outcome of Self-Actualization* were also significantly different (F (3, 222) = 4.738, p = 0.003), as shown in Table 4.39 below. There were no significant findings revealed for the factors *perceived outcomes of Intrepidness* or *Career Preparation* after the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Post hoc tests revealed that Group 4 (males 30 years old and over) was significantly different from all the other groups (females under 30 years old and all respondents 30 years old and over) for the factor *perceived outcome of Adventure* after studying abroad. Group 2 (males under 30 years old) were also significantly different from Group 3 (females 30 years old and over) for the factor *perceived outcome of Money* after the abroad experience. For the factor *perceived outcome of Self-Actualization*

after studying abroad, Group 4 (males 30 years old and over) differed significantly from Group 3 (females 30 years old and over) as well as differed significantly from Group 1 (females under 30 years old). In addition, Group 3 was significantly different from Group 2 (males under 30 years old) for this factor.

Table 4.39: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *perceived outcome* of Adventure, Money, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.834	0.349
2	Males under 30 years old	87	4.615	0.704
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	4.667	0.446
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	4.324	0.578
	Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.063	1.072
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.380	0.924
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	2.778	0.943
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.059	0.583
	Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.311	0.677
2	Males under 30 years old	87	4.020	0.828
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	4.444	0.560
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.804	0.727

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.643	5.708	0.001
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.659	2.779	0.042
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.559	4.738	0.003

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of age and gender: *values* before studying abroad. The respondents' values before studying abroad and after studying abroad were also examined. As indicated in Table 4.40, a one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences ($F(3, 222) = 5.095$, $p = 0.002$) for the factor *value of Adventure* before the study abroad experience, in addition to significant differences ($F(3, 222) = 6.138$, $p = 0.001$) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* before studying abroad.

There were no significant findings for the factors *value of Career Preparation, Intrepidness,* or *Money* before the study abroad experience (see Appendix D).

Duncan's post hoc test revealed significant differences between Group 1 (females under 30 years old) and Group 4 (males 30 years old and over) for the factor *value of Adventure* before studying abroad. Group 1 (females under 30 years old) differed significantly with Groups 2 and 4 (male respondents) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* before the abroad experience.

Table 4.40: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *value* of Adventure and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.521	0.569
2	Males under 30 years old	87	4.193	0.755
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	4.367	0.4735
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	4.118	0.436
	Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.197	0.772
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.776	0.780
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	4.056	0.566
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.662	0.599

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.037	5.095	0.002
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	3.450	6.138	0.001

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Comparison of age and gender: *values* after studying abroad. The one-way ANOVA revealed significant differences ($F(3, 222) = 4.385$, $p = 0.005$) for the factor *value of Adventure* and significant differences ($F(3, 222) = 6.800$, $p = 0.000$) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after the abroad experience (see Table 4.41). There were no significant findings for the factors *value of Intrepidness, Career Preparation,* or *Money* (see Appendix D).

Group 1 (females under 30 years old) were once again significantly different from Group 4 (males 30 years old and over) on the factor *value of Adventure*. In addition, the post hoc test indicated significant differences between Group 1 (females under 30 years old) and Group 4 (males 30 years old and over) for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after the abroad experience. Further, Group 4 differed significantly from Group 3 (females 30 years old and over), while Group 2 (males under 30 years old) differed from Group 1 (females under 30 years old), for the factor *value of Self-Actualization* after studying abroad.

Table 4.41: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *value* of Adventure and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Adventure, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.719	0.429
2	Males under 30 years old	87	4.520	0.633
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	4.578	0.454
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	4.294	0.534
	Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.490	0.593
2	Males under 30 years old	87	4.115	0.760
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	4.375	0.502
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.971	0.522

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.214	4.385	0.005
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.898	6.800	0.000

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

4.6 Conclusion

Chapter 4 discussed the data analysis conducted to compare the *expectations* and *perceived outcomes* of study abroad as well as to compare the *values* relating to study abroad both before and after the experience. Factor analysis was conducted to reveal the latent factors of *expectations* of *Adventure, Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money* and *Self-Actualization*. Factor analysis also revealed the latent

factors of *values* of *Adventure, Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money* and *Self-Actualization*.

T-tests were used to reveal the differences between respondents' *expectations* prior to their international experience and their *perceived outcomes* after the experience. Analysis revealed significant differences between the *expectations* and *perceived outcomes* on all five factors. T-tests were also used to determine the differences between the *values* respondents assigned to their *expectations/perceived outcomes* before and after the experience. Analysis again revealed significant differences.

Comparisons were also made between U.S. and European participants. The groups differed significantly on several factors, including the *expectation* and *perceived outcome* of *Adventure*, as well as the *value* of *Adventure* and *Money* before the experience and the *value* of *Adventure, Intrepidness* and *Money* after the experience.

Differences were also identified between those who had studied abroad 5 years ago or less and those who had studied abroad more than 5 years ago; between those who are 30 years of age and older and those who are under 30 years of age; between those who had studied abroad prior to their Magellan Exchange experience and those who had not; and between men and women. Further, analyses of variance were conducted to compare the participants by the time elapsed since the experience and region; by gender and region; by age and region; and by age and gender.

CHAPTER 5 – DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The final chapter's purpose is to interpret and discuss the findings presented in chapter four, as well as to demonstrate the connection of this research to prior theories and to discuss how it contributes to the existing body of knowledge.

Chapter five commences with a summary of the research questions, which were used to address the study's research objective, in Section 5.1. Section 5.2 then discusses the research findings and their link to prior theories. This section addresses the impact and contributions of the research to the existing body of knowledge as well as introduces the revised conceptual framework which was modified based on the research findings. Next, the contributions to methodology and practice are discussed in Section 5.3. Specifically, Section 5.3 focuses on the application of the study's findings to the support of university foreign study experiences and includes the salient points of improvement in the promotion of study abroad programs and the use of segmentation marketing strategies, and application of research findings to university processes. The limitations of the research are discussed in Section 5.4 before recommendations for future research are presented in Section 5.5. Section 5.6 then concludes the chapter and study.

5.1 Research Questions

In chapter 1, the following primary research question was identified:

How does a study abroad experience influence business students' values, expectations, and perceptions of career-related variables?

Further, several research sub-questions were identified for investigation:

- What were the pre-experience values and expectations of students who studied abroad?
- What are their values and perceived outcomes subsequent to the study abroad experience?
- Have their values changed since before their study abroad experience?
- How do their original expectations compare to their perceptions of the experiences' impact on their job marketability after spending time abroad?
- Are there differences across nationalities; genders; age groups?
- Do individuals perceive that employers value a foreign experience when evaluating them as job applicants?

As described in chapter 2, the present study was built upon a framework that used expectancy valence theory as well as career decision and goal setting theories. The theoretical concepts and framework underpinning the literature review was operationalized in chapters 3 and 4 by means of the surveys used in the present study (see Table 3.1). Section 5.2 will interpret and analyze the theoretical significance of the research findings as they pertain to the aforementioned research questions.

5.2 Contributions of the Research to the Existing Body of Knowledge

Given that the study's respondents were from a variety of countries, comparisons could be made between countries in order to investigate possible differences among cultures. Since the primary purpose of this study was to examine the perceived impact of a foreign study experience on job marketability and career choice, it was important to identify past study abroad participants' expectations and values prior to

the experience and to identify their perceived outcomes and values after the experience, as well as important to compare these. In addition, comparisons could be made to investigate possible differences between gender and age of respondent.

The positive effects of studying abroad have been reported in previous research, and the present study has confirmed some of the same benefits. Study abroad experiences have been shown to improve maturity, self-awareness, and self-confidence (Dwyer & Peters 2004; Hadis 2005; Kneale 2008; OSV Staff 2011); improve attitudes (Hensley & Sell 1979; Salter & Teger 1975 in Poole & Davis 2006; Winke & Teng 2010); develop greater flexibility (Kneale 2008; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004); and foster intellectual and personal growth (Hadis 2005). Respondents in the present study also confirmed that they developed a more sophisticated world view (see Table 4.4).

Further, perhaps one of the most obvious benefits of living abroad for a study term is the opportunity to learn another language (Dwyer & Peters 2004; Franklin 2010; Hadis 2006; Meuehls 2006; Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006), which was also confirmed in this study when the majority of respondents indicated that their study abroad experience helped them develop a passion or interest in learning another language. Foreign study experiences have also been shown to foster an interest in other cultures (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004). Respondents in the present study indicated that they, too, were influenced to explore other cultures and had an interest in travel sparked by the experience (see Table 4.4).

In addition, study abroad experiences can improve professional and financial potential (Fischer 2010; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004) and impact a participants'

career plans (Dwyer & Peters 2004; Franklin 2010) as well as their ability to network with others (Meuehls 2006). In this research, past Magellan Exchange participants indicated that they were influenced to get a job overseas, and some even changed their career plans. The present study also identified other career implications, such as influencing the participant to pursue international work and establishing relationships that became professional contacts (see Table 4.4).

The following sub-sections present the implications of the findings as well as the findings' contributions to existing research.

5.2.1 Impact of culture on factors

Hofstede et al. (2010) noted that there are levels of culture, namely a *national* level; a regional and/or ethnic and/or religious and/or linguistic level; a *gender* level; a *generational* level; a social class level; and an organizational level. In this study the national, gender, and generational levels are relevant, and the focus in this section is on the national level.

Previous research has shown that international study experiences can impact financial and professional potential, as well as impact professional goals and career choice (Franklin 2010; Muehls 2006; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004). Culture, too, has been shown to affect career choice and decision making processes (Lufkin & Byars-Winston 2009), as well as behavior and values (Keegan & Green 2011). Culture would also play a role in how study abroad participants view their foreign program experiences as confirmed by the present study's findings and discussed in the following sections.

5.2.1.1 Impact of culture on job marketability and career-related variables

Since relatively few universities report assessing career-related outcomes (Orahood, Kruse & Pearson 2004), it is useful to examine the impact of study abroad on career-related variables as well as to provide additional insight into the potential impact of culture on these variables. One of the study's research questions asked whether there were cultural differences in how participants viewed the career-related variables related to their study abroad experience. In particular, the study investigated whether there were differences across cultures in terms of the expectations and values associated with the career-related variables of employability, career choice, career/professional preparation, starting salary, earnings, and promotability. The findings indicated that U.S. and European respondents were not significantly different in terms of their expectations of career/professional preparation, employability, career choice, starting salary, earnings, or promotability prior to their study abroad experience. Likewise, they were not significantly different in the value they placed on career/professional preparation, employability, or career choice prior to studying abroad. Hofstede et al. (2010) and GLOBE (Chhokar, Brodbeck & House 2008) studies acknowledge that there are clusters of countries in different regions; in this study the different European clusters could not be differentiated due to small samples, although most of the participants came from the Anglo and Germanic clusters (Chhokar, Brodbeck & House 2008).

Given that culture permeates decision making in general (Lufkin & Byars-Winston 2009) and cultural typologies indicate that cultural differences exist (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010; Grove 2007; Javidan et al. 2010), the findings of the present study

did reveal some cultural differences in relation to career-related variables. Like the Sanchez, Fornerino and Zhang (2006) study, the present study confirmed that culture does impact study abroad participants. In the present study, U.S. and European respondents were found to be significantly different in how they valued the abroad experience's impact on their starting salary, earnings, and promotability before their foreign study experience (see Table 4.11). U.S. respondents placed greater importance on these factors than their European counterparts did.

After the study abroad experience, U.S. and European respondents did not differ significantly in their perceived outcomes of most career-related variables. Only their perception of career/professional preparation after their foreign experience differed significantly (see Table 4.12). Again, U.S. respondents perceived a greater impact of the study abroad experience on their career and professional preparation. The theoretical application of 'performance-to-outcome expectancy' (Miner 2007) can be applied to this situation whereby past study abroad participants perceived that their performance (i.e., studying abroad) led to certain outcomes (i.e., improved their career and professional preparation).

While there were no significant differences between U.S. and European respondents on the values of most of the career/professional preparation variables or on the value of employability and career choice after studying abroad, there were significant differences in the value they placed on making professional connections. Past study abroad participants from the U.S. more greatly valued the ability to make professional connections in conjunction with their foreign study experience than did European participants (see Table 4.13).

Further, after the foreign experience, European respondents placed less importance on the study abroad experience's impact on improving starting salary and maximizing long-term earnings potential, as well as on making professional work connections and improving promotability, than did U.S. participants (see Table 4.13).

The GLOBE study identified a status-conscious leadership factor; status conscious individuals tend to build deeper ties with those perceived as having more power or status. Javidan et al. (2010) posited that status-conscious leaders tend to be encouraged in societies with higher levels of uncertainty avoidance and power distance. According to Hofstede's cultural typology, the U.S. tend to have low power distance and uncertainty avoidance (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010). Therefore, the finding that U.S. participants placed greater importance on the ability to make professional connections could contradict these typologies.

However, the GLOBE study also identified a cultural dimension called future orientation (Ashkanasy et al. 2004), which applies to the present study's findings in that an individual who values such aspects as preparing for one's career, improving starting salary and improving long-term earnings, has a greater future orientation. In this way, the findings that U.S. participants place higher value on career preparation, starting salary, and improved long-term earnings support the future orientation dimension since the U.S. has a greater future orientation than most of the European countries considered in the present study.

While the above discussion links the study's findings to cultural typologies, due to a limited sample, a definite link to theory would need more operationalization of the relevant concepts than what was achieved in this study.

5.2.1.2 Impact of culture on pre-experience expectations and post-experience perceived outcomes

As previously indicated, countries are clustered differently depending on the study (Chhokar, Brodbeck & House 2008; Hofstede et al. 2010), and due to small samples, the European clusters could not be differentiated. While the preceding section addressed the impact of culture specifically on career-related variables, the U.S. and European respondents were also compared in a broader sense to determine if there were cultural differences in the expectations they had prior to their abroad experience and their perception of the outcomes after their experience. The findings indicated that U.S. and European respondents did not differ significantly in their expectations and subsequent perceived outcomes of the factors money, career preparation, intrepidness, and self-actualization. However, culture did play a role in the groups' expectations of adventure prior to study abroad as well as in their perceived outcomes of adventure (see Table 4.14). U.S. respondents expressed greater expectations of adventure before studying abroad and greater perceived outcomes of adventure after studying abroad than did European respondents. Moreover, after the international experience, both the U.S. and European groups felt they experienced adventure to a greater degree than they expected prior to traveling abroad for their foreign study term.

Given that previous studies found that culture impacts the motivations and intentions to study abroad (Di Pietro & Page 2008; Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006), the present study's finding that cultural differences exist in terms of the expectations and perceived outcomes of adventure confirm and expand the existing body of literature. Vroom's model of expectancy theory asserts that motivation is determined by one's expectation of outcomes as a result of one's action (Radosevich et al. 2009), and adventure has been identified as a source of motivation (Schwartz 2005). The cultural typology introduced by Hofstede sought to specifically explain cultural differences on the basis of five dimensions with which comparisons could be made: power distance, individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010). In particular, uncertainty avoidance, which refers to the extent of individuals' dislike for unclear or ambiguous situations, is most applicable to the findings of the present study. Generally speaking, Europe has a relatively higher level of uncertainty avoidance than the United States (Hofstede 1980). Therefore, the U.S. has a greater acceptance for risk taking, thereby having greater expectations for the adventuresome aspect of their study abroad experience.

Further, since Europeans tend to have more experience with cross-border travel than those from the U.S. (Gerner & Perry 2000), it is possible that the U.S. respondents viewed their study abroad term as a more exciting and novel experience, whereas the European respondents viewed it with less excitement, thereby having somewhat lower expectations for adventure.

5.2.1.3 Impact of culture on values before and after studying abroad

Culture impacts society in many other ways, including the values of those members of a culture (Lufkin & Byars-Winston 2009). Just as the U.S. and European cultural groups were found to expect and perceive adventure differently, they were also found to be significantly different in terms of how they valued adventure (see Table 4.15). U.S. respondents placed greater importance on adventure both before and after the study abroad experience as compared to European respondents. Both U.S. and European groups valued adventure more after their experience than they did prior to departing for their foreign study experience.

Hofstede's concept of uncertainty avoidance could again apply to this finding (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010). Since the U.S. seems to be more receptive to risk, it could follow that they would place greater value on adventure than the Europeans in the study. In addition, a prior study found that individual uncertainty avoidance was related to subjective wellbeing (Arrindel et al. 1997 in Sully de Luque & Javidan 2004). One could apply this concept to study abroad; a past participant who values adventure to a lesser degree (i.e., could have higher uncertainty avoidance) would consider the risk taking behavior as contradictory with their wellbeing.

Though adventure was reported to be the most valued factor pertaining to study abroad among both U.S. and European respondents, there were also significant differences between them in terms of the value placed on money before and after studying abroad (see Table 4.16). U.S. respondents placed greater importance on this value factor than did European participants, while both cultural groups expressed

that the financial implications of study abroad were of greater importance after the experience than they were prior to their abroad experience.

As Hofstede (1980) noted, cultures can be grouped in terms of masculinity and femininity. In a feminine society, individuals value relationships, while in a masculine society competitiveness and materialism are valued. As such, masculine societies could be expected to place greater emphasis on and be more motivated by money (Gooderham & Nordhaug nd). The U.S. is considered a more masculine culture than many of the European countries in the present study. Therefore, the finding that U.S. respondents more highly valued the factor of money seems to support Hofstede's contentions.

Hofstede et al. (2010) and GLOBE (Chhokar, Brodbeck & House 2008) studies cluster countries differently. Though it was not possible to differentiate the European cluster due to small samples in the present study, the study's findings suggest that there were no significant differences between U.S. and European respondents in the value placed on intrepidness prior to their foreign study experience, while the groups were different in how they valued this factor after studying abroad: U.S. respondents placed greater importance on intrepidness than did European respondents (see Table 4.17). This implied that it was more important to U.S. respondents that they be able to graduate on time and that they not miss friends and family, be wary of new places, or go into debt as a result of studying abroad. These findings both support and contradict Hofstede's contentions. The U.S. tend to have weak uncertainty avoidance, whereas most of the European countries in the study tend to have strong uncertainty avoidance; this contradicts the

finding that U.S. participants valued not being wary of new places more than their European counterparts. The U.S. is usually depicted as a more masculine society, and as such places great emphasis on money, and this coincides with the finding that the U.S. respondents valued being able to graduate on time (i.e., start a career sooner) and not going into debt more than the European respondents. On the other hand, as a more masculine society, the U.S. would place less importance on relationships which contradicts the finding that U.S. respondents valued not missing friends and family.

5.2.2 Expectations and values pertaining to study abroad

The conceptual framework of the present study allowed for the investigation of participants' original values and expectations, which are influenced by family, friends, gender, culture, previous experiences, and the environment, prior to studying abroad. The learning experience actually provided by the foreign study opportunity is influenced by environmental, economic, social, and cultural factors, which in turn impacts participants' perceived outcomes and associated values, including those related to career outcomes, after their abroad experience.

Prior research has found that friends and family's values and opinions can impact a young person's decision-making (Presley, Damron-Martinez & Zhang 2010; Tharenou 2003). Culture, too, permeates all aspects of one's daily life (Lufkin & Byars-Winston 2009). With an emphasis on the environmental influences on behavior, social learning theory takes into account the unobservable influences, such as one's behavioral expectations and one's beliefs about the associated reinforcements (Funder & Fast 2010). Past experiences (Sharf 2006) and gender

have also been shown to affect one's expectations and values (Fan 2010). These factors all combine to impact the student's expectations, values and goals prior to a study abroad experience.

Further, the framework proposes that a student's learning experience (i.e., study abroad experience) is impacted by external factors, including environmental, economic, social, and cultural factors. The student's culture has a strong influence on both decision making and perceptions (Lufkin & Byars-Winston 2009), while the beliefs, attitudes and behaviors of those with social influence play a significant role in the student's experiences (Anderman & Kaplan 2008). In addition, gender (Lent & Fouad 2011); past social, environmental and biological influences (Sharf 2006); and contextual influences, such as socioeconomic family status and education, are also important factors contributing to the learning experience. This learning experience ultimately affects the values and perceived outcomes of the experience, which in turn affects the career decision making process (Lent & Fouad 2011).

Expectancy valence theory provided a useful theoretical basis. Vroom's model of expectancy believes that a person's motivation is determined by his or her expectation of outcomes; the valence associated with a particular outcome and the expectancy that a particular action will lead to that outcome determines the force to perform that action. Valence indicates 'one's evaluation of the attractiveness of the outcomes' (Radosevich et al. 2009, p. 187), while expectancy refers to one's belief that an action will be followed by a particular outcome. Comparisons built upon this framework are discussed in the sections that follow.

Based upon the findings of the present study, past participants' expectations of outcomes could be grouped into five representative factors (see Table 4.6). In order of greatest expectations to least, they were: *expectations of adventure* (i.e., to see new things, to travel, to experience another culture, to have fun), *intrepidness* (i.e., to miss friends, to miss family, to be wary of new places), *money* (i.e., to improve starting salary upon graduation, to maximize long-term earnings), *career preparation* (i.e., to equip themselves to be able to work in another country, to learn advanced business techniques, to help themselves develop a career in international business), and *self-actualization* (i.e., to become more open minded, to create my own independent life, to help myself realize my own potential). In regards to the associated valences, the factors can be ordered from most important to least important as career preparation, adventure, intrepidness, money, and self-actualization (see Table 4.7).

Expectancy valence theory believes motivation is determined by an individual's expectations of outcomes and the valence associated with that outcome (Radosevich et al. 2009). While participants in the present study most highly expected adventure, they placed greater importance (i.e., more value) on career preparation. This implies that career preparation had a higher valence (i.e., was actually a more attractive outcome) than adventure. Likewise, though they valued career preparation the most, they actually expected it the least out of the five outcome factors identified in the study. This indicates an area for improvement in terms of marketing foreign study experiences.

The social learning perspective holds that the learning experience (in this case, the study abroad experience) is viewed as the most important concept for understanding career choice (Jackson, Potere & Brobst 2006). The fact that respondents in this study indicated that career preparation was the most highly valued factor of the learning experience provides a link to this theoretical perspective.

5.2.2.1 Expectations of study abroad

The expectation of *adventure* included the expectation of seeing new things, traveling, experiencing another culture, and having fun (see Table 4.6). Schwartz (2005) identified adventure and the desire to live an exciting life as a motivation. However, participants in the present study also expected some level of *intrepidness*, including missing friends and family and being wary of new places (see Table 4.6), things which could be identified as a negative outcome (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006).

Past participants of The Magellan Exchange also indicated that they had expectations related to money or career preparation variables; they expected their abroad experience to ultimately improve their starting salary upon graduation and to maximize their long-term earnings, as well as expected the experience to equip them with the ability to work in another country, to learn advanced business techniques, and to help develop a career in international business (see Table 4.6). This confirms some prior research which also indicated that study abroad participants felt their foreign experience improved their financial and professional potential (Fischer 2010; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004). Finally, as in the case of the IES Abroad study (2007) as well as in other research (Kneale 2008; Orahood, Kruze & Pearson 2004),

past participants in the present study expected their study abroad experience to make them more open minded. Further, they expected the experience to have an impact on their self-actualization by influencing them to become more independent and realize their own potential (see Table 4.6).

5.2.2.2 Value of study abroad

While past study abroad participants expected adventure most strongly prior to their departure, they valued career preparation the most (see Table 4.7). Though professional/career outcomes have been confirmed in prior research (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011; Dwyer & Peters 2004; Franklin 2010; IES Abroad 2007), this study contributes to the existing body of research in terms of the degree to which the impact of career preparation is valued in comparison to other factors.

An individual's values affect career choice (Sharf 2006). Indicating that they highly value career preparation, respondents in the present study specifically valued learning advanced business techniques, comparing doing business in their own country with doing business in another country, developing a career in international business, equipping themselves with the ability to work in another country, and making professional work connections. In addition, they valued the influence the experience would have on their career direction after finishing their university degree (see Table 4.7). This coincides with findings of a recent study which confirmed that international experiences influence career choice and provide an opportunity to learn more about business than in a traditional classroom setting (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011). Further, the social learning theoretical perspective as applied to career decision making views learning experiences as the most

important concept for the development of career choice (Jackson, Potere & Brobst 2006); the study abroad experience, as indicated in Figure 2.3 and Figure 5.1, is a learning experience.

The participants' second most strongly valued factor prior to going abroad, adventure, encompassed the value of seeing new things, traveling, experiencing another culture, having fun, and obtaining a different view of the world (see Table 4.7). A recent study by Carley et al. (2011) found that foreign study experiences sparked an interest in travel among participants, while the aforementioned IES Abroad (2007) study found that the majority of respondents developed a different and broader view of the world. Sanchez et al. (2006) found common dimensions with regard to motivations for the three countries included in their study (i.e., US, China and France): a search for a new experience, a search for liberty/pleasure, and the desire to improve their social situation. While these studies demonstrate the expectations and/or perceived outcomes of a study abroad experience in relation to the components of adventure, they do not indicate the degree to which adventure is valued, whereas the present study emphasizes the high value placed on adventure.

Prior to their study abroad experience, participants valued being able to graduate on time, not missing friends and family, not being wary of new places, and not going into debt as a result of the abroad experience (see Table 4.7). These things can be considered negative outcomes of the study abroad experience (Sanchez, Fornerino & Zhang 2006). If an individual expects trepidation and assigns a high degree of valence to not missing friends and family, for example, the likelihood that the individual will not be motivated to pursue a study abroad experience increases.

Likewise, if the individual expects a certain degree of trepidation but places low valence on missing friends and family, the likelihood that the individual will not be motivated to pursue the foreign experience decreases (i.e., the trepidation will not necessarily adversely affect his or her decision to study abroad). This is the core idea of expectancy valence theory – that an individual will be motivated to pursue an outcome that he or she values (Radosevich et al. 2009).

Though career preparation was the most highly valued factor pertaining to studying abroad in the present study, the value of money ranked fourth in importance; it included improving starting salary upon graduation and maximizing long-term earnings, as well as improving marketability in the long-run. Finally, the value of self-actualization (i.e., creating an independent life, realizing their own potential, becoming more open minded, and learning other languages) was deemed the least important (see Table 4.7). Social cognitive career theory, which focuses on the beliefs that affect an individual's behavior, incorporates the influence of self-efficacy. Defined as 'people's beliefs about their capabilities to organize and perform particular behaviors or courses of actions' (Lent & Fouad 2011, p. 74), self-efficacy relates to the concept of self-actualization. The results of the present study show that past participants identified self-actualization as the lowest expected and least valued factor (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7). Given that self-efficacy has a strong relationship with career choice in terms of social cognitive career theory, it could be inferred that the effect of a study abroad experience on career development is not as great as it might have been. Still, the effect on career development exists and confirms other studies which found a link between foreign study experiences and career choice (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011; Franklin 2010).

5.2.2.3 Comparison of pre-experience expectations and values to post-experience perceived outcomes and values

To determine the perceived impact of a study abroad experience, past participants' pre-experience expectations and values were compared to their post-experience perceived outcomes and values. The study's findings revealed significant differences between all of the pre- and post-experience factors: expectations, perceived outcomes, and values of adventure, intrepidness, money, career preparation, and self-actualization (see Tables 4.8 and 4.9).

While respondents expected to experience adventure and intrepidness, and expected the study abroad experience to have implications on money, career preparation, and self-actualization, after the experience, they perceived an outcome greater than they anticipated. Further, they placed even more value on these factors upon their return, indicating that they found them to be more important and impactful than they expected them to be prior to their departure.

Previous studies have identified the motivation to study abroad among potential or pending participants (Presley, Damron-Martinez & Zhang 2010; Relyea et al. 2008), as well as identified the perceived outcomes after the experience (Carley, Stuart & Dailey 2011; Dwyer & Peters 2004; Franklin 2010; IES Abroad 2007; Kneale 2008; Lopez et al. 2010). The present study contributes by providing an opportunity to identify both the pre-experience expectations and post-experience outcomes so as to compare them.

Vroom's expectancy valence model assumed that an individual has preferences among outcomes at any point in time, and the preference relates to the strength of desire for the outcome (Vroom 2005). Motivation then is determined by the individual's expectation of outcomes as a result of action. While prior to their international experience study abroad participants expected a variety of outcomes and had a certain level of desire for those outcomes which influenced their motivation to go abroad, their perceived outcomes and associated values differed after the experience. The present study confirmed a greater post-experience performance-to-outcome expectancy, which Miner (2007, p 70) referred to as the 'expectation (assessed probability) that should effort be successfully exerted, something that is desired will result', than pre-experience.

The discovery that past study abroad participants derive more valuable outcomes from the experience than they anticipated has positive implications on the worthwhileness of promoting foreign study experiences. This is key insight into the value of encouraging prospective participants to consider an abroad opportunity as it provides evidence that the international experience could have an even more profound experience on the individual than imagined.

5.2.3 Impact of demographic factors

The findings of the present study reveal the impact of demographic factors on the expectations, perceived outcomes and values as they pertain to studying abroad. Hofstede et al. (2010) also noted that there are levels of culture, including a generational level, and in this section the generational and gender levels are relevant. The following sections discuss the impact of age, time elapsed, gender, and prior

international experience, as well as the impact of time elapsed and region; gender and region; age and region; and age and gender.

5.2.3.1 Age differences

The 'major markers within adulthood are more closely linked to personal, social, and cultural forces or events' (Craig & Dunn 2007, p. 368). Cultural comparisons were drawn in the preceding sections, age comparisons will be drawn next. Hofstede et al. (2010) noted that there are levels of culture, including a generational level. The same caution that applied to region, namely that the participants came from the Anglo and Germanic clusters, applies when interpreting results by age and region. When comparing respondents who are 30 and over with those who are under 30 years of age, there were significant differences revealed in terms of their expectations and perceived outcomes of *adventure*, as well as in terms of their expectation of *self-actualization* (see Table 4.19).

In particular, the findings indicate that respondents who are under 30 years old expected adventure more before going abroad than did those who are 30 years old and older. Further, those under 30 years of age also perceived they had a more adventurous experience afterward than did those who are older. In addition, those under 30 years of age expected self-actualization more than those respondents who are 30 years old and older, though this was expected less than the other expectation/perceived outcome factors. Though Franklin's recent study (2010) consisted of older respondents (i.e., participants who had studied abroad 10 years ago), it did not include a group of younger respondents with which to measure the differences in attitudes.

The differences revealed between age groups in the present study relate to differences in generational cohorts that were discussed in chapter 2. The finding that respondents under 30 (Generation Y) expected and perceived adventure more than those 30 years old and older (Generation X) corresponds to the characterization that Generation Y responds more to excitement than does Generation X (Bristow 2010). In addition, older individuals (Generation X) have a false assumption that life can be viewed as controllable and simplistic, absent of major contradictions; however, the response to this false assumption is to recognize the unfilled needs and personal limitations (Craig & Dunn 2007). This way of thinking could explain why younger respondents expected more adventure and self-actualization than the older respondents; the older respondents were not viewing the experience with "rose colored glasses."

5.2.3.2 Differences based upon time elapsed since studying abroad

The present study also sought to determine if differences existed due to the time elapsed since the study abroad program. In order to determine if respondents viewed their pre-departure expectations, post-experience perceived outcomes, and pre- and post-values differently based upon how much time had elapsed since they studied abroad, respondents were grouped based upon those who studied abroad 5 years ago or less and those who studied abroad more than 5 years ago. As mentioned above, Franklin's study (2010) sought to determine the long-term impact of a study abroad experience and so surveyed past participants who had studied abroad 10 years ago; however, the lack of respondents with more recent experiences means that there is no comparison group.

The 50-year longitudinal IES Abroad study provided the researchers with an opportunity to cluster responses and make comparisons by decade of participation, in effect by time elapsed (Dwyer 2004). The researchers found that the international experience's impact on career development, such as influencing the individual to pursue work abroad or a multinational company based domestically, had an inverse relationship. That is, respondents with less time elapsed more greatly valued the career impact than those with more time elapsed. Likewise, those with less time elapsed reported a more positive impact on items akin to self-actualization, such as influencing a more open view of the world and learning about one's self (Dwyer 2004). The findings of the present study confirm the findings of the IES Abroad study in terms of the effect of time elapsed on the perception of the international experience's impact. The findings of the present study indicate that the elapsed time had impacted respondents' expectations of career preparation and self-actualization prior to their study abroad experience (see Table 4.18); those whose foreign study experience occurred 5 years ago or less indicated greater expectations of career preparation and self-actualization than those who studied abroad more than 5 years ago.

5.2.3.3 Gender differences

Previous research has revealed gender differences in cultural acceptance and career orientation (Gerner & Perry 2000); decision-making processes (Shirley 2006); study abroad expectations (Fan 2010; Kim & Goldstein 2005) and values (Presley, Damron-Martinez & Zhang 2010); and international program participation (Salisbury et al. 2009) and outcomes (Rexeisen et al. 2008). The present study

provided further confirmation that males and females differ in relation to studying abroad.

Gender differences in expectations and perceived outcomes. Respondents were grouped by gender in order to compare their expectations and subsequent perceived outcomes and determine if there were gender differences. Indeed, the study revealed that men and women differed significantly in their expectation of adventure prior to their foreign study experience; women expected adventure more than men (see Table 4.21). The study done by Gerner and Perry (2000) found that females were more positively receptive to cultural acceptance, language, and travel. The present study's factor of Adventure included similar components (i.e., seeing new things, traveling, experiencing other cultures, and having fun), which supports the previous study's finding.

In addition, the present study's findings indicated that men and women also differ in their expectations of career preparation and self-actualization before going abroad (see Table 4.21). Women had greater expectations of their study abroad experience impacting their career preparation and self-actualization than did men. There were no significant gender differences in terms of expectations of intrepidness and money.

Though there were no gender differences in perceived outcomes of career preparation after studying abroad, men and women did differ significantly on all other factors pertaining to perceived outcomes (see Table 4.23). Women perceived more adventure after their foreign study experience than men did. In addition, they also perceived greater intrepidness and self-actualization than men. However, men perceived more of an impact on money; men felt their study abroad experience had a

greater impact on their starting salary after graduation and their long-term earnings potential.

In Adler's (1991) study, which ranked the primary motivations among MBA students from Europe, the United States and Canada to seek international work, gender differences were identified in terms of perceptions of opportunities. The primary motivation for seeking international work in Adler's (1991) study was the opportunity for personal growth and learning from a cross-cultural experience; more than 50 percent of respondents wanted to 'see other cultures, travel, learn new languages, and gain a greater understanding of another way of life; that is, they want to expand their horizons' (Adler 1991, p. 284). The sixth highest ranking reason to seek international work was to obtain a more fulfilling life abroad, including enhanced opportunities for adventure (Adler 1991). In the present study, the factor Adventure contained items pertaining to travel and to seeing new things, which corresponds to Adler's (1991) first and sixth highest ranking reasons for working abroad. Women were found to be more specifically focus on adventure in the present study; they expected an international experience to provide an opportunity for adventure, and they also perceived more adventure after the experience.

Adler's (1991) study ranked money as the third most significant motivation for all respondents, whereas in the present study the perceived outcomes of money was significantly different for males and females after studying abroad, with men perceiving the experience to be more impactful on salary and long-term earnings. Women also expected their international experience to assist with career preparation

prior to departing, which relates to the fourth ranking motivator, career advancement, in Adler's (1991) study.

Gender differences in values before and after studying abroad. The values of men and women before and after the foreign study experience were also compared. Before studying abroad, women placed greater importance on adventure and self-actualization than did men (see Table 4.22). This was also the case after studying abroad (see Table 4.24). Further, both women and men deemed adventure and self-actualization more important after their foreign study experience than they did prior to traveling abroad for their study term.

Shirley (2006, p. 65) found that male and female study abroad participants expressed almost equal levels of agreement regarding motivating factors such as the 'opportunity to explore other cultures and a feeling of boredom with their current situation.' These two factors related to the factor of adventure in the present study, which indicated that women placed greater importance on adventure before and after the study than the female respondents in Shirley's (2006) study. Therefore, while Shirley's (2006) study and the present study addressed similar motivations, the findings were not the same.

Further, applications of a social cognitive model of academic choice found differences in values and beliefs between genders (Schwartz & Rubel 2005). In addition, the construct of self-efficacy also varies between males and females (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006). The findings in relation to the idea of creating an independent life and realizing one's own potential (i.e., the idea behind self-actualization) demonstrate the differences that exist between males and females.

In the Schwartz and Rubel (2005) study the value "stimulation" relates to excitement. Though adventure was more highly valued by women in the present study, this value was prioritized slightly higher for men in the previous studies, ranking number eight for men and number nine for women. "Achievement" and "self-direction" were defined as 'personal success through demonstrating competence' and 'independent thought and action choosing' respectively (Schwartz & Rubel 2005, p. 1010). These relate somewhat to the present study's concept of self-actualization, comprised of items pertaining to open-mindedness, independent life, and realizing self-potential. While self-actualization was valued more by women than men in the present study, self-direction was valued slightly more by men in the previous studies (ranking number two for men and three for women); the value of achievement was ranked seventh by both men and women in the previous studies (Schwartz & Rubel 2005).

5.2.3.4 Differences between those who had prior study abroad experience and those who did not

Some of the respondents had studied abroad prior to their participation in The Magellan Exchange program; in some cases this was in high school, while in other cases it was in college (see Table 4.2). The findings did not reveal any significant differences between those who had prior study abroad experience and those who did not in terms of their values either before or after the abroad experience. Further, there were no significant differences between these groups in terms of what they perceived as outcomes of their foreign study experience after the term abroad.

Generally, respondents showed no differences in their expectations prior to their study abroad experience. However, those who had studied abroad before had greater expectations of self-actualization than did those who had no prior study abroad experience before enrolling in an abroad program (see Table 4.20). Previous studies were not found which compared the expectations of those who had prior study abroad experience to those who had not. The present study contributes to the existing body of study abroad research by indicating that participants who have already spent time abroad are more inclined to understand and appreciate the personal growth implications of a study abroad experience.

5.2.3.5 Differences based upon time elapsed and region

The study provided opportunities for further analysis beyond what was associated with the original research questions. One such opportunity was to compare respondents based upon their region and the time elapsed since their study abroad experience.

Respondents were separated into the following groups for comparison purposes: European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, U.S. respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago, European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less, and U.S. respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less. The findings revealed that these groups were different in their *expectation of adventure* prior to their study abroad experience (see Table 4.25). Specifically, European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago differed significantly from all U.S. respondents. Likewise, European respondents who

studied abroad more than 5 years ago differed significantly from all U.S. respondents.

In addition, the groups were significantly different in terms of their expectation of self-actualization prior to studying abroad (see Table 4.26). U.S. respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less had greater *expectations of self-actualization* than did U.S. respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago.

Further, the groups were different in terms of their *values*. European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago were again different from all U.S. respondents, this time in terms of the value they placed on money prior to studying abroad (see Table 4.28); all U.S. respondents placed greater importance on money than did these European respondents.

In addition, European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago were significantly different from all U.S. respondents, regardless of time elapsed, on the value of money and adventure after the study abroad experience (see Table 4.29). All U.S. respondents placed greater importance on adventure after the experience than did the European group who had studied abroad more than 5 years ago.

5.2.3.6 Differences based upon gender and region

In this section the national or regional cluster and gender levels are relevant (Hofstede et al. 2010). The same caution, namely that the participants came from the Anglo as well as a Germanic cluster or other European clusters, applies when interpreting results by gender and region.

Comparison of expectations and perceived outcomes based upon gender and region. In order to investigate the effect of culture and gender, respondents were grouped as U.S. females, U.S. males, European females, and European males. Prior to studying abroad, these respondents showed no significant differences in their expectations of intrepidness, money, career preparation, or self-actualization; however, the groups were significantly different in their *expectation of adventure* (see Table 4.30). Further, though there were no significant differences in the perceived outcomes associated with intrepidness and career preparation identified by these groups after studying abroad, the findings revealed significant differences in the *perceived outcomes of adventure and money*, as well as in the *perceived outcomes of self-actualization*, after the foreign experience (see Table 4.31).

Specifically, **European males** were different from all other groups (i.e., European females and all U.S. respondents) in terms of both their expectations of adventure prior to studying abroad and their perceived outcomes of adventure after studying abroad. In both cases, European males had the lowest expectations prior to embarking and the lowest perceived outcomes regarding adventure after returning from their study abroad experience. This relates to Hofstede's (1980) finding that Europe generally has a relatively higher level of uncertainty avoidance than the U.S. (de Mooij & Hofstede 2010); the U.S., therefore, has a greater tolerance for risk taking, which corresponds to the U.S. respondents having greater expectations and perceived outcomes of adventure. The present study's findings also revealed that European males, like all other groups, reported greater perceived outcomes than their expectations originally indicated.

U.S. males were significantly different from U.S. and European females in regards to their perceived outcome of money after studying abroad. U.S. males felt that their study abroad experience more greatly impacted their starting salary and long-term earnings potential than did female respondents. This finding seems to support Hofstede's (1980) contention that the U.S. is a relatively masculine society, and masculine societies could be expected to place greater emphasis on money (Gooderham & Nordhaug nd). U.S. females were significantly different from European males in their perceived outcome of self-actualization after their foreign study experience.

Comparison of values based upon gender and region. Groups based upon gender and region showed more significant differences in terms of **values** than they did in terms of expectations and perceived outcomes. In particular, the groups were significantly different in the value they placed on *adventure, money, and self-actualization prior to studying abroad* (see Table 4.32); there were no significant differences in the value they placed on intrepidness and career preparation. They also differed significantly in the value *of adventure, intrepidness, money, and self-actualization after studying abroad* (see Table 4.33); only the value of career preparation after studying abroad showed no significant differences.

European males differed significantly from U.S. and European females in the importance of adventure before their foreign study experience; the female respondents valued adventure more than European males prior to going abroad. This was also the case in the value of adventure after the study abroad experience. Schwartz and Rubel (2005) found that men tend to value stimulation, which is

related to adventure, more than women, and Feather (in Schwartz & Rubel 2005) confirmed this finding when studying values and gender differences in Australia; however, this is the opposite of the present study's finding.

U.S. males, on the other hand, differed significantly from U.S. and European females in the value of self-actualization before studying abroad. As previously noted, the values "achievement" and "self-direction" identified by Schwartz and Rubel (2005) relate somewhat to the concept of self-actualization; however, while they determined that self-direction was valued slightly more by men in a study of 17 countries, the present study found that female respondents placed more importance on the self-actualization derived from studying abroad before the experience than did U.S. males. Further, after the study abroad experience, all males differed significantly from all females in the value of self-actualization, with females valuing it more than males.

Both before the study abroad experience and after the study abroad experience, **European females** were significantly different from U.S. males and females in the value of money, placing less importance on it than did U.S. respondents. In Australia, women tend to rate achievement-related values higher, as well as power values lower, than men (Feather 2004 in Schwartz & Rubel 2005), and U.S. and British women were found to more highly value achievement values than men (Ryckman & Houston 2003 in Schwartz & Rubel 2005).

Though there were no significant differences in the value of intrepidness before studying abroad, there were significant differences in the value of intrepidness after

the foreign study experience. U.S. females were different from the other groups in that they placed more importance on this factor than the others did.

5.2.3.7 Differences based upon age and region

In this section the national or regional cluster and generational levels are relevant (Hofstede et al. 2010). The same caution, namely that the participants came from the Anglo as well as a Germanic cluster or other European clusters, applies when interpreting results by generation and region. To explore the impact of age and culture on expectations and values before studying abroad and perceived outcomes and values after studying abroad, respondents were separated into four groups: European respondents under 30 years old, U.S. respondents under 30 years old, European respondents 30 years old and over, and U.S. respondents 30 years old and over. These correspond to Generations X and Y. Given the differences between generational cohorts, it is not surprising that differences between age groups were revealed in the present study.

Comparison of expectations and perceived outcomes based upon age and region. The findings revealed no significant differences among these groups in their expectations before studying abroad and their perceived outcomes after studying abroad in terms of intrepidness, money, career preparation, and self-actualization. However, the findings indicate that there are significant differences among the groups in both the expectation of adventure before the foreign experience and the perceived outcomes of adventure after the experience (see Tables 4.34 and 4.35). In particular, European respondents 30 years old and over were different from European respondents under 30 years of age and all U.S. respondents (regardless of

age) both before and after the study abroad experience; older European respondents (Generation X) had the lowest expectations of adventure before the experience and the lowest perceived outcomes of adventure after the foreign experience. According to Bristow (2010), Generation Y responds more to excitement than does Generation X, which relates to the concept of adventure in the present study.

Comparison of values based upon age and region. The comparison of respondents based upon age and region revealed no significant differences in the values of career preparation, intrepidness, and self-actualization either before or after the study abroad experience. However, significant differences were revealed among the groups in terms of the value placed on adventure and money both before the foreign experience and after (see Tables 4.36 and 4.37).

European respondents who are 30 years old and over were significantly different from all U.S. respondents, regardless of age, in regards to the importance of adventure before studying abroad; however, they are significantly different from all U.S. respondents, as well as European respondents under 30 years of age, after studying abroad. The older European respondents (Generation X) placed less importance on adventure than did all U.S. respondents prior to studying abroad and less importance on adventure than did all other respondents in these groups after studying abroad. This finding also relates to Generation Y's greater interest in excitement than Generation X (Bristow 2010).

In terms of the value placed on money before the foreign experience, European respondents who are 30 years old and over were significantly different from U.S. respondents who are under 30 years old. The younger U.S. respondents (Generation

Y) placed more importance on money prior to the study abroad experience than did the older European respondents, which corresponds to the observation that Generation Y places more emphasis on the value of education as a means to wealth and success than does Generation X which values education more for the intellectual impact (Ritter 2006). Post-experience, European respondents 30 years old and over differed significantly from European respondents under 30 years old as well as from U.S. respondents 30 years old and over in the value of money; the older European respondents placed less importance on money than did the U.S. respondents. U.S. respondents 30 years old and over were also significantly different from European respondents under 30 years of age in terms of the value of money after studying abroad; the older U.S. respondents placed greater importance on money post-experience than did the younger European respondents.

5.2.3.8 Differences based upon age and gender

To make comparisons between groups based upon age and gender, the respondents were separated into four groups: females under 30 years old, males under 30 years old, females 30 years old and over, and males 30 years old and over. This again corresponds to the Generation X and Generation Y cohorts.

Comparison of expectations and values based upon age and gender. The findings revealed significant differences among the groups based upon expectations of adventure and self-actualization prior to studying abroad (see Table 4.38) as well as upon perceived outcomes of adventure, money, and self-actualization after studying abroad (see Table 4.39). The groups were not significantly different in terms of

expectations of intrepidness, money, and career preparation, or in terms of perceived outcomes of intrepidness and career preparation after studying abroad.

Males who are 30 years old and over were significantly different from females who are under 30 years of age in terms of their expectation of adventure before their study abroad experience. The younger females (Generation Y) had a much greater expectation of adventure than the older males. This finding relates to Generation Y's greater interest in excitement (Bristow 2010) as well as to females' receptivity to travel and adventure (Gerner and Perry 2000; Shirley 2006). In terms of the expectation of self-actualization, females under age 30 were significantly different from females and males who are 30 years old and over; the younger female respondents had greater expectations of self-actualization prior to the foreign experience than did the older respondents.

Further comparisons of these groups revealed that they were significantly different in their perceived outcomes of adventure after studying abroad. Specifically, males 30 years old and over were significantly different from younger males and all female respondents. The older males perceived the fewest outcomes pertaining to adventure after the experience. In terms of money, males under 30 years old (Generation Y) differed significantly from females who are 30 years old and over; the younger males perceived a greater impact on their starting income and long-term earnings potential than did the older female respondents. Males 30 years old and over (Generation X) were significantly different from females 30 years old and over (also Generation X), as well as different from females under 30 years of age (Generation Y). The female respondents perceived greater outcomes pertaining to self-actualization after the

study abroad experience than the older males did. Further, females 30 years old and over (Generation X) differed significantly from males under 30 years old; this female group perceived that their study abroad experience was more impactful than the younger males did.

Comparison of values based upon age and gender. The respondents' values were also compared on the basis of age and gender. While no significant differences were revealed in the value placed on career preparation, intrepidness, or money either before or after the abroad experience, significant differences were revealed in the value placed on adventure and self-actualization before and after the foreign study experience (see Tables 4.40 and 4.41).

More specifically, females under 30 years old were significantly different from males 30 years old and over in terms of the value of adventure before studying abroad. The younger females (Generation Y) valued adventure more highly than did the older males. This supports Shirley's (2006) finding that women placed greater importance on adventure than men as well as again on Generation Y's interest in excitement (Bristow 2010). In addition, females under 30 years old differed significantly from all male respondents, regardless of age, in terms of the value of self-actualization before the abroad experience; the younger females more highly valued self-actualization than did the male respondents.

Females under 30 years old were significantly different from males 30 years old and over in how they valued adventure after studying abroad; the younger females (Generation Y) placed greater importance on the adventure derived from their foreign study term than did the older male respondents (Generation X). Females

under 30 years old also differed from males 30 years old and over in the value placed on self-actualization after studying abroad. Like adventure, the younger female respondents (Generation Y) placed greater importance on self-actualization than did the male respondents who are 30 years old and over. Generation Y can be characterized by their self-confidence, self-reliance and independence (Barford & Hester 2011; Shragay & Tziner 2011), which relates to the concept of self-actualization. More specifically, the subgroup of college women was described as 'a typical member of a growing class of global citizens – voracious learners, cultural sponges and unassuming ambassadors – who have chosen to take international detours for study, work and fun' (Ritter 2006, p. 11).

Further, the males 30 years old and over were significantly different from females 30 years old and over, placing less importance on self-actualization after the experience than did the older females. In addition, males under 30 years old differed significantly from females under 30 years old, again valuing self-actualization to a lesser degree than their female counterparts after studying abroad.

5.2.3.9 Career implications of study abroad

The final research question of the present study pertained to career implications and whether a study abroad experience affected an individual's job marketability which is impacted by economic, cultural, social, and environmental events and conditions. A study abroad program is an example of a learning experience, which provides opportunities for direct, associative learning, ultimately affecting, to some extent, career decision making. Prior research has indicated that a global perspective is beneficial to any employer (Fischer 2010). Moreover, it has indicated that foreign

study experiences can help participants to secure a certain job (Di Pietro & Page 2008) and has revealed that the experience could generate more receptivity toward working in an international capacity as well as an increase in the expected positive outcomes of doing so (Hadis 2005).

The present study revealed findings that support some of these assertions. Nearly half of all respondents have worked in an international capacity since participating in the study abroad program; of those respondents, the most frequently occurring position was as a paid employee in private industry. Other career paths included such things as working as an international intern, a consultant, a volunteer for a non-profit agency or organization, a teacher, and a paid government employee. While many have worked in an international capacity, approximately one-third of the present study's respondents indicated that they have been responsible for hiring decisions, and of those, the majority said they prefer hiring employees with international experience (see Table 4.5).

The survey asked respondents if they felt their study abroad experience makes them more attractive to employers when being evaluated as a job applicant, as well as asked the degree to which they valued this. The present study confirmed that study abroad participants generally agreed that their foreign study experience made them more attractive to employers (see Table 4.10). Specifically, analysis revealed that they perceived a greater impact after the experience than they expected before the study abroad experience. In addition, the study confirmed that respondents valued the impact of their abroad experience on employers' evaluation of them for employment to a greater degree after studying abroad than before.

5.2.4 Revision of conceptual framework

The original conceptual framework was developed in chapter 2 (see Figure 2.3) and took into account the factors that would influence an individual's expectations, values and goals prior to study abroad, such as friends and family (Meece, Glienke & Burg 2006), culture (Chhokkar et al. 2004), previous experiences, and their environment. It also considered the impact of the external environment, consisting of cultural, social, economic and environmental factors, on the learning experience (i.e., study abroad program). The conceptual framework indicated that the individual's expectations and values are affected by the learning experience, which also has implications for career outcomes.

The research questions established for the study were used to determine if this model was an accurate depiction. The analysis of data revealed significant differences based upon culture, for example, which was expected, given the pervasiveness of culture (Chhokkar et al. 2004). However, there are results that focus on the differences among *cultural clusters*, namely the Anglo cluster including the US, that in many cases were different from the European Germanic cluster. In addition, the somewhat unexpected result was the gender differences which were readily apparent. Since prior research has shown that males and females differ in terms of their motivation and career choices (Fan 2010), it was important to also take into consideration the impact of gender. Therefore, the conceptual framework was revised to incorporate gender into the model. Figure 5.1 below represents the revised model including the impact of the Anglo and European Germanic clusters (Chhokkar et al. 2004) on the pre- and post-experience phases as well as the impact of gender and age as demographic variables.

The study also confirmed the usefulness of expectancy theory as a framework to understand the concepts of expectancies and value of certain dimensions in the study abroad process. Factor analysis identified five representative factors of expectations: *adventure*, *intrepidness*, *money*, *career preparation*, and *self-actualization* (see Table 4.6). Expectancy valence theory believes motivation is determined by an individual's outcome expectations and the valence associated with them (Radosevich et al. 2009). Participants in the present study most highly expected adventure, but they placed greater importance on career preparation, implying that career preparation had a higher valence than adventure. Likewise, though they valued career preparation the most, they actually expected it the least (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7). The social learning theoretical perspective as applied to career decision making views learning experiences as the most important concept for career development (Jackson, Potere & Brobst 2006); the study abroad experience serves as a learning experience.

The original framework was predicated on the idea that pre-experience expectations and values would differ from post-experience outcomes and values. The study confirmed that all of the factors of expectations and values (i.e., adventure, intrepidness, money, career preparation and self-actualization) were significantly different pre- and post-experience; for all factors, the perceived outcomes were greater than the expectations, and past participants placed even more value on these factors upon their return, indicating that they found them to be more impactful than they expected them to be prior to their departure (see Tables 4.8 and 4.9).

The study specifically confirmed that culture impacts expectations and perceived outcomes, namely in relation to adventure (see Table 4.14). U.S. respondents (i.e., Anglo cluster) more greatly expected adventure before their international experience, as well as more greatly perceived outcomes of adventure after the experience, than did European respondents (namely, European Germanic). In addition, U.S. respondents more greatly valued adventure both before and after the study abroad experience as compared to the European Germanic respondents (see Table 4.15). Culture also impacted the value placed on money, with U.S. respondents placing greater importance on this than European Germanic respondents (see Table 4.16). The study also confirmed the cultural impact on the value of intrepidness; U.S. respondents placed greater importance on this than did the European Germanic respondents (see Table 4.17).

Demographic factors, namely age and gender, also had confirmed impacts. Age impacted the expectations and perceived outcomes of adventure, as well as the expectation of self-actualization (see Table 4.19). The present study confirmed that gender differences also exist, specifically in their expectations of adventure, career preparation and self-actualization prior to studying abroad (see Table 4.21). In addition, the study confirmed gender differences in the perceived outcomes of adventure, intrepidness, money, and self-actualization (see Table 4.23). Further, the study confirmed the impact of gender on the value placed on adventure and self-actualization both prior to and after the international experience (see Tables 4.22 and 4.24).

Further, the present study confirmed that differences exist when grouping respondents based on the demographic factors of age and gender together. Specifically, the findings revealed significant differences among the groups based upon expectations of adventure and self-actualization prior to studying abroad (see Table 4.38) as well as upon perceived outcomes of adventure, money, and self-actualization after studying abroad (see Table 4.39). In addition, the study confirmed significant differences in the value placed on adventure and self-actualization before and after the foreign study experience (see Table 4.40 and 4.41).

The conceptual framework takes into consideration the effect of the learning experience (i.e., the study abroad experience) and perceived outcomes of the experience on career outcomes. The present study confirmed findings that support the assertion that the experience impacts career-related outcomes (e.g., working in an international capacity, hiring employees with international experience) (see Table 4.5).

Figure 5.1 below represents the revised conceptual framework of the present study.

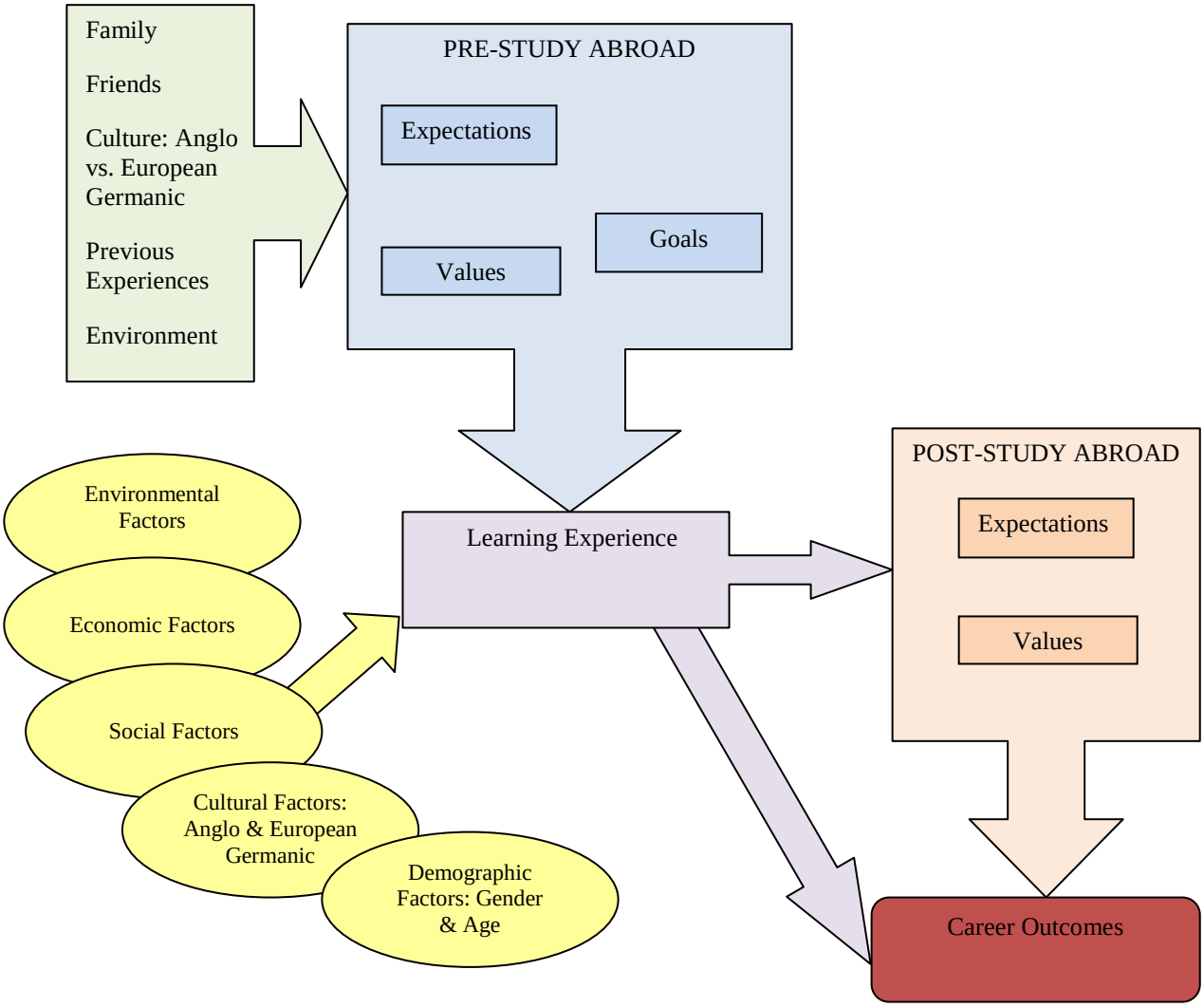

Figure 5.1: Revised conceptual framework

(Source: Developed for this study and revised)

5.3 Contributions to Methodology and Practice

The present study contributed to methodology and practice as discussed in the following sections.

5.3.1 Contributions to methodology

This present study found acceptable split-half reliabilities and Cronbach's alpha for the questionnaire. When one analyzes individual scale items, the reliability tends to suffer, which affects the item's validity, making it poor or even unknown. The closer to 1.0 a Cronbach's alpha coefficient is, the greater is the internal consistency of items in the scale. Though a high Cronbach's alpha coefficient indicates internal consistency of the scale's items, it does not necessarily indicate unidimensionality; however, factor analysis can be used for this purpose (Gliem & Gliem 2003).

The present study used a survey instrument that was based in part on the instrument utilized in the Sanchez et al. (2006) study. As discussed in section 4.2.1, exploratory factor analysis on the data from the present study identified five latent factors related to study abroad expectations and five latent factors related to study abroad values. While some items loaded on certain factors in the 2006 study, the items did not necessarily load on latent variables in the present study. In the present study, the items "to see new things," "to travel," "to experience another culture," and "to have fun" loaded on the factor *expectation of adventure* (see Table 4.6); in the Sanchez et al. (2006) study, the first three loaded on the factor *search for a new experience,* while the fourth item loaded on *search for liberty/pleasure*. The items "to miss my friends," "to miss my family," and "to be wary of new places" loaded on the factor *expectation of intrepidness* in the present study (see Table 4.6), while the first two loaded on the factor *familial barriers* and the last on the factor *psychological*

barriers in the previous study. In the present study, two items loaded on the factor *expectation of money* and three items on both the factor *expectation of career preparation* and the factor *expectation of self-actualization* (see Table 4.6). In the Sanchez et al. (2006) study, these items did not load on any factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Therefore, the internal consistency of the scale items was greater in the present study and contributed new dimensions for research.

The Sanchez et al. (2006) study administered the survey instrument to current students in the US, China, and France to determine the motivating forces and barriers associated with studying abroad. The present study contributed to methodology by surveying past study abroad participants; some were current students and some were out of school in the workforce. In addition, the survey instrument was adjusted so that respondents were asked to respond to the expectation and value questions based upon how they felt *before* they studied abroad, and then respond to the same questions based upon how they felt now, *after* the abroad experience (see Appendix C). This enabled a comparison to be made in order to examine any changes that occur in the expectations/outcomes and associated values as a result of the learning experience, which provided new insight. However, it does represent a limitation since the longer the experience abroad, perhaps the less accurate the respondent's memory, and vice versa.

5.3.2 Contributions to practice

Employers search for job applicants who can successfully demonstrate an ability to work in a global marketplace (Barnes 2009), and as the demand for globally savvy, culturally sensitive employees continues to grow (McKenzie, Lopez & Bowes 2010)

and internationalization continues to increase in importance for businesses (Tillman nd), it becomes more vital for business schools to adequately prepare their graduates, equipping them with skills to be competitive in the global marketplace. Higher education is impacted by internationalization, which incorporates economic, social and cultural change worldwide. Higher education, therefore, is tasked with training a highly skilled and innovative workforce for a global economy based upon knowledge (OECD 2009).

With more institutional interest in increasing international program participation (McKenzie, Lopes & Bowes 2010), the present study provides timely and useful information for universities. By revealing how past study abroad participants view their international experiences, the findings justify the encouragement of study abroad experiences, as well as provide insight into what aspects to promote to current business students in order to ultimately improve participation rates.

Some of the positive benefits of studying abroad that were reported and could be promoted to current students include acquiring foreign language skills, improving starting salary, learning advanced business techniques, and becoming more open minded. In addition, past participants reported that they had expectations pertaining to adventure, money, career preparation, intrepidness, and self-actualization, as well as reported the value placed on these factors, prior to their foreign study experience. While adventure was the most greatly expected, the study revealed that career preparation was the most highly valued aspect of studying abroad. Though they valued career preparation the most, they actually expected it the least out of the

outcome factors identified in the study (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7). This indicates an area for improvement in terms of marketing foreign study experiences.

Though most of the factors had positive valences, the confirmation of participants' expectation of intrepidness (e.g., missing friends and family, going into debt) brings to the surface some of the potential participation barriers that could be addressed proactively in order to reduce anxiety. Knowledge about the less attractive expectations (Relyea, Cocchiara & Studdard 2008) puts a university in a position to proactively address these items and combat them with the promotion of the prospect of adventure, personal growth, and positive career implications in order to impact student perceptions in a positive way.

5.3.2.1 University support

Universities are responsible for communicating to students a message that emphasizes internationalization and the value of an international study experience in conjunction with a degree program (Presley, Damon-Martinez & Zhang 2010). Academic, international programs, and career advisors at universities can use the study's findings to better educate current students on the outcomes of a study abroad experience that have positive valences (e.g., better starting salary) as well as the outcomes of not participating which have negative valences (e.g., failure to develop global skills). Vroom (1964) asserted that valences could be manipulated by communicating information about the desirability of an action's outcome. This supports the idea that universities can promote and reinforce the positive aspects of study abroad in order to induce students' selection of the choice to study abroad.

In order to effectively market foreign study experiences to business students, universities must also understand the goals and expectations business students have of the experience (Latham & Locke 2007). In the case of study abroad, senior university administration support for foreign study experiences sends a message to students that goals such as learning a new language, improving personal growth, and developing international business skills while abroad are worthwhile, thereby stimulating self-efficacy (Locke & Latham 2002; Seijts & Latham 2011; White & Locke 2000).

Further, providing resources related to internationalization efforts as well as promoting faculty participation (e.g., faculty-led study tours, faculty exchanges) demonstrates to students the value of international experiences. Since students look to faculty as role models, it is important for senior administration to actively promote international opportunities and encourage international endeavors among faculty as a means of demonstrating to students the importance of global activities (Presley, Damon-Martinez & Zhang 2010; Relyea, Cocchiara & Studdard 2008). As students see more and more faculty members modeling international experiences, students will become more aware of the value of the abroad experience (Relyea, Cocchiara & Studdard 2008). Advisors can also assist students with determining their own goals and expectancies prior to embarking on a study abroad program as well as assist them with assessing their goal attainment upon their return.

5.3.2.2 Marketing and segmentation strategies

The career implications of an international experience in an era of internationalization can and should be promoted to students as a means for

improving marketability; other benefits, too, should be communicated to students (Relyea, Cocchiara & Studdard 2008). However, different approaches are required to reach different types of students (Salisbury et al. 2009). Understanding what students expect of studying abroad and what they value provides universities with information about what to promote to current students (i.e., prospective study abroad participants).

Marketing pieces, such as brochures and presentations, can focus on the adventure that study abroad experiences bring, including seeing new things, traveling, experiencing other cultures, and having fun. In addition, since career preparation was identified as the most highly valued factor related to studying abroad (see Table 4.7), universities can stress to business students the positive career implications of study abroad, such as learning advanced business techniques, comparing doing business at home with doing business in another country, assisting with the development of a career in international business, making professional work connections, and learning to be able to work in another country.

Given that many students look for support and feedback from those they respect, promotional pieces can also be directed to parents in order to effectively communicate the value of the study abroad experience (Presley, Damon-Martinez & Zhang 2010).

Since the study revealed cultural and gender differences in terms of expectations, perceived outcomes, and values, universities can use the information to devise more appropriate strategies for promoting study abroad opportunities. In particular, segmentation strategies can be used to more effectively reach targets. Shirley (2006)

suggested that study abroad advisors reach out to male students by using specialized, targeted methods, such as testimonials and returning male participants in order to better communicate the message that study abroad is valuable. The present study supports the idea that segmentation strategies can be useful. For example, marketing pieces directed to U.S. females can be distributed to sororities or to female-oriented clubs and organizations; they can emphasize the positive attributes of study abroad that were more important to U.S. females, such as the opportunity studying abroad provides to better prepare for a career, to become more open minded, and to foster personal growth. On the other hand, marketing information geared toward European males can more heavily focus on the opportunity for adventure. Though they expect adventure, the findings showed that they had a greater increase in the perceived outcome of adventure; therefore, better educating European males on the positive aspects of traveling, seeing new places, and experiencing new cultures may increase their participation in foreign study experiences. Segmentation strategies can be useful in an effort to improve the marketing efforts' ability to better appeal to specific groups of business students and subsequently improve participation, exposing more students to the benefits of foreign study experiences.

5.3.2.3 Post-experience assistance

As previously discussed, international experience contributes to the development of global skills; however, it is up to graduates to articulate those experiences and skills to employers. According to Gardner et al. (2009 p. 20), 'the value of study abroad depends on how well the student can reflect on and articulate his or her experience'. Social learning theory describes how the interactions between psychological

processes, behavior, and environment affect one's identity and learning; self-efficacy, in particular, addresses one's ability to reconcile the challenges of the larger world. The expectations associated with self-efficacy are learned through the experiential learning opportunity afforded by a study abroad experience. These expectations include performance accomplishments (e.g., mastery), vicarious learning/modeling (e.g., observing others), verbal persuasion (e.g., encouragement, role model support), and physiological arousal (e.g., anxiety from behavior) (Gardner, Steglitz & Gross 2009).

University personnel can assist returning study abroad participants by "unpacking" their experiences. To do so, they should assist participants with making connections between what they have learned abroad, including what was learned inside the classroom as well as outside. Next, students should be challenged to examine the significance of their international experience in terms of the personal, academic, professional, and cultural impact. Finally, students should be encouraged to become confident in articulating the knowledge gained and skills developed by studying abroad (Gardner, Steglitz & Gross 2009).

This could be done in one-on-one sessions but is perhaps done more efficiently in a workshop format after students return to campus after a semester abroad, for example. Various university departments can work together in this process, including study abroad advisors and career counselors (Fischer 2010). In addition to what students gain from the process of unpacking their experience, they can also be left with a resume that incorporates their experience and provides a basis of talking points for the prospective employer.

5.4 Limitations of the Study

Since more than 92 percent of respondents in the present study were from Europe and the United States, the results are not necessarily fully generalizable to other geographic areas such as Africa, Asia, or South America. Further, as expected prior to the study's commencement, respondents were mostly from lower to middle socioeconomic classes due to the enrollment patterns at the participating institutions (Horn, Peter & Rooney 2002).

Due to the location of participating institutions in small to medium sized cities within the Midwest and Midsouth areas of the United States, there was some level of geographic bias among the U.S. respondents. In contrast, the participating institutions in Europe are all in higher income, Western European countries, which also cause some geographic, class, and cultural skewing.

The overall response rate of almost 30 percent was acceptable; however, there were not necessarily enough responses to allow for additional cultural subgroup comparisons. For example, though comparisons could be made between European and U.S. respondents, the European respondents could not be meaningfully subdivided to compare the Germanic (i.e., Austria, Netherlands, Germany) and Latin (i.e., France, Spain) language groups, for instance.

5.5 Recommendations for Future Research

The present study provided insight into the cultural and professional/career implications of a study abroad experience. This included the examination of past participants' expectations, perceived outcomes, and values pertaining to the impact of the foreign experience on such things as starting salary, long-term earnings

potential, making professional work connections, and developing a career in international business, as well as a determination of whether past participants have pursued an international career path. However, the study did not look at the specific career choices that past participants made. Future researchers may wish to delve further into this area.

In addition, surveying students prior to their study abroad departure, and then surveying them upon their return would perhaps enable researchers to more specifically learn about prospective participants' goals in relation to study abroad as well as how they perceive their attainment of those goals. More insight into goal-setting associated with study abroad would also provide a means to further examine gender and cultural differences in terms of study abroad goals.

While the present study allowed for cultural comparisons between study abroad participants in the United States and Western Europe, future research could use a different sample of study abroad participants to investigate the expectations and values prior to the foreign experience, as well as the perceived outcomes and values after the experience, of participants from other geographic areas, such as Eastern Europe, Africa, Asia, Latin America, and Australia, to make additional comparisons.

Though the present study did not set out to examine gender differences among study abroad participants, the results indicated that gender differences exist. Future researchers may wish to focus further on the differences between male and female study abroad participants. It could be insightful to test additional null hypotheses, such as:

There are no differences between male and female expectations prior to the study abroad experience.

There are no differences between male and female expectations after the study abroad experience.

There are no differences between the values that males and females have prior to the study abroad experience.

There are no differences between the values that males and females have after the study abroad experience.

Future research topics could also include gender differences in terms of such things as goals, perceptions, and career plans.

While the present study asked respondents if they were currently responsible for hiring employees and, if so, whether or not they preferred hiring employees with international experience, an additional area of future research would be to further explore this concept in order to better determine how employers view foreign study experiences in terms of job applicant consideration. Combining past participants' perceptions with more insight into employer perceptions would perhaps provide a more all-encompassing view of the career implications of a university study abroad experience.

5.6 Concluding Remarks

The present study allowed for the comparison of the expectations and values prior to the foreign study experience to the perceived outcomes and values after the experience. The findings revealed significant differences between expectations and perceived outcomes and between the pre- and post-experience values on all factors (i.e., adventure, money, career preparation, self-actualization, and intrepidness).

More specifically, the study confirmed that participants' perceived outcomes were greater than their expectations and that they placed even more value on these factors upon their return, indicating that they found them to be more impactful than they expected them to be prior to their departure.

The study's findings also revealed that culture and demographic factors played an important role in past participants' expectations, perceived outcomes, and values. Specifically, the study confirmed that culture impacts expectations and perceived outcomes, namely in relation to adventure, as well as impacts values, namely in relation to money and intrepidness. Age of respondent impacted the expectations and perceived outcomes of some of the factors, while gender differences were evident for many factors relating to expectations, perceived outcomes, and values. The present study also confirmed findings that support the assertion that the study abroad experience impacts career-related outcomes, including perceived job marketability and career choice.

The career implications of study abroad are becoming more apparent and more important with increased internationalization. Understanding the goals and expectations of study abroad, as well as the values associated with them, in addition to what participants perceive as outcomes and how they value them, affords an opportunity to better market foreign study programs to prospective participants.

Prior studies have addressed various academic, personal, and professional benefits of studying abroad; the present study contributed to this body of knowledge by confirming some of these as well as expanded the existing body of knowledge by focusing more specifically on career variables and cultural implications.

This study's findings can be utilized by universities to better support the promotion of study abroad, and it provides insight into the differences between men and women, as well as the differences among cultural groups. The study has also revealed other interesting areas for future research, such as the investigation of other cultural differences (e.g., Africa, South America) as well as the investigation of the impact of an employee's past study abroad experience from the perspective of the employer.

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APPENDIX A

IES Alumni Survey – 2002

Experience as an IES Student and Alum

1. **In what year or years did you study abroad with IES?**

   _____ _____

2. **What term(s) did you study abroad in that year with IES? (Check all that apply.)**

   - ❑ Full academic year
   - ❑ Fall semester
   - ❑ Spring semester
   - ❑ Summer
   - ❑ Other. Please describe:

     _____

3. **In what city or cities did you study abroad with IES?**

   _____

   _____

4. **Did you participate in an internship or field placement program during your study abroad with IES?**

   - ❑ Yes. Answer question 4(a)
   - ❑ No. Go to question 5

   4(a) Did that experience assist you or influence you in your career?

   - ❑ Yes
   - ❑ No

5. **As part of your study abroad experience with IES, did you participate in courses at the university or universities in the city where your program was located?**

   - ❑ Yes. Answer question 5(a)
   - ❑ No. Go to question 6

   5(a) How many university courses did you take while studying with IES?

   _____ (fill-in number)

6. **What type of housing arrangement did you have during your IES experience?**

   - ❑ Home stay with a local family or resident
   - ❑ Residence hall or dormitory with local students
   - ❑ Apartment with local students
   - ❑ Apartment with U.S. students
   - ❑ Independent Housing
   - ❑ Other. Describe:

     _____

7. **Are you still in contact today with any of the host country nationals with whom you shared housing?**

   - ❑ Yes
   - ❑ No

8. **How many times have you visited the city or country in which you studied with IES since you completed your IES program?**

   _____ (fill-in number)

9. **After you completed your IES program did you study abroad again with a university or continuing education program?**

   - ❑ Yes. Answer questions 9(a) through 9(c)
   - ❑ No. Go to question 10

   9(a) How many different times did you study abroad since IES? _____ (fill-in number)

   9(b) How long did you study abroad the last time?

   - ❑ 6 weeks or less
   - ❑ One semester
   - ❑ Two semesters (one academic year)
   - ❑ More than one academic year

   9c) Did you receive any scholarship funding for any of your post-IES study abroad experience?

   - ❑ Yes. Answer question 9(c)1
   - ❑ No. Go to question 10

   9(c)1. What type(s) of scholarship funding did you receive? (Check all that apply)

   - ❑ Rhodes Scholarship
   - ❑ Fulbright Scholarship
   - ❑ Mitchell Scholarship
   - ❑ DAAD Scholarship
   - ❑ Other. Describe:

     _____

10. **Prior to studying abroad with IES, had you ever participated in a study abroad program?**

- ❑ Yes. Answer question 10(a)
- ❑ No. Go to question 11

10(a) What type or program?

- ❑ AFS
- ❑ Rotary
- ❑ With a high school program
- ❑ Other. Describe: _____

11. **Did your desire to study abroad influence which undergraduate college you attended?**

❑ Yes. ☐ No.

12. **Since college, have you ever worked or volunteered in an international capacity (either for an organization located in a foreign country or in a position in the U.S. that had a specific international component) in any of the following ways? (Check all that apply.)**

As a paid employee in the following sector(s):

- ❑ In private industry
- ❑ For the U.S. government
- ❑ For any other government
- ❑ For a non-profit agency or organization
- ❑ As a teacher or educator
- ❑ As a volunteer for a non-profit agency
- ❑ As a consultant
- ❑ In any other way. Describe: _____

13. **Do you use any languages other than English on a regular basis (more than once a month)?**

❑ Yes. Answer question 13(a) ☐ No. Go to question 14

13(a) Please name languages and check the capacity in which they are most likely used:

- ❑ Most used language other than English: _____
  Regular usage: ☐ at home ☐ at work ☐ socially
- ❑ 2nd Most used language other than English: _____
  Regular usage: ☐ at home ☐ at work ☐ socially
- ❑ 3rd Most used language other than English: _____
  Regular usage: ☐ at home ☐ at work ☐ socially

Alumni Relations

14. **Do you receive the IES Alumni Newsletter, the *IES Exchange*?**

- ❑ Yes. Answer question 13(a)
- ❑ No. Go to question 14

13(a) Use the 5-1 scale below to indicate the value of *IES Exchange* to you? Use 5=extremely valuable and 1=no value at all

5 4 3 2 1

15. **Have you ever visited IES' web site at www.IESabroad.org?**

- ❑ Yes. Answer question 15(a)
- ❑ No. Go to question 16

15(a). Which of the following areas have you visited at www.IESabroad.org? (Check all that apply.)

- ❑ Alumni Bulletin board to post messages
- ❑ Suggestions for building your resume
- ❑ Re-entry information
- ❑ Interview preparation tips
- ❑ Links to websites for jobs abroad, internships abroad, graduate schools or other.
- ❑ Updated your IES contact information
- ❑ Information on how to request a transcript
- ❑ Researching study abroad for someone else
- ❑ Visited 'Giving to IES'
- ❑ Other. Describe: _____

16. **Would you be interested in doing any of the following: (Check all that apply.)**

Networking
- ❑ Contribute articles or photos to the *IES Exchange* (the IES alumni newsletter).
- ❑ Speak with parents of prospective IES students about the benefits of IES study abroad.
- ❑ Speak with prospective students about the benefits of IES study abroad.

Abroad
- ❑ Attend an IES reunion abroad.
- ❑ Help locate internships at IES city sites for IES students.

Other
- ❑ Receive an IES Legacy Scholarship for reduction in program fees for your children or grandchildren.
- ❑ Make a financial contribution to IES.

17. **Please use the 5-0 scales to the left of each statement below to indicate your level of agreement with each statement about your IES study abroad experience. Use 5=strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree. Use 0 if the statement does not apply to your IES experience.**

My IES study abroad experience influenced my post-IES *academic choices* in the following ways:

5 4 3 2 1 0	Reinforced my commitment to foreign language study.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Influenced my decision to expand or change academic majors.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Enhanced my interest in academic study; I returned to the U.S. with a greater vigor for academic pursuits.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Created my interest in lifelong learning.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Influenced my subsequent educational experiences.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Influenced my decision to go to graduate school.

My IES study abroad experience influenced my *career development* in the following ways:

5 4 3 2 1 0	Ignited my interest in a career direction that I pursued after the experience.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Enhanced my ability to speak a language other than English which I have utilized in a workplace setting.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Provided me an internship experience that shaped my career choices.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Allowed me to acquire skills set that influenced my career path.

My study abroad experience influenced my *personal/social development* in the following ways:

5 4 3 2 1 0	Allowed me to better understand my own cultural values and biases.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Influenced me to seek out a greater diversity of friends.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Increased my self-confidence.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Enabled me to tolerate ambiguity.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Enabled me to learn something new about myself.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Served as a catalyst for increased maturity.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Caused me to change or refine my political and social views.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Gave me a new and on-going appreciation of the arts.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Continues to influence my interaction with people from different cultural backgrounds.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Continues to influence my political and social awareness.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Continues to influence my participation in community organizations.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Continues to influence the choices I make in my family life.
5 4 3 2 1 0	Continues to influence my perspective on how I view the world.

18. Did your IES experience influence your life in any of the following specific ways? (Check all that apply.)

- ❑ Met my spouse or life partner there.
- ❑ Met U.S friends with whom I maintain contact.
- ❑ Met host country friends with whom I maintain contact.
- ❑ Established relationships that became professional contacts.
- ❑ Opened up an interest/passion for another language and/or culture.
- ❑ Sparked an interest in travel.
- ❑ Influenced me to explore other cultures.
- ❑ Influenced me to get a job overseas.
- ❑ Influenced me to work for a multi-national organization in the U.S.
- ❑ Changed my career plans.
- ❑ Developed a more sophisticated way of looking at the world.

Long-term impact of study abroad

19. Would you be willing to participate in an in-depth research project on study abroad and the long- term effects of international education?

- ❑ Yes. Answer question 19(a)
- ❑ No. Go to question 20

19(a) Which of the following ways would you like us to follow-up with you on the study? (Check all that apply.)

- ❑ Phone
- ❑ Email
- ❑ Postal mail

20. Please provide us any additional comments that have not been covered on this survey on a separate sheet of paper.

Demographics

21. Are you?

- ❑ Male
- ❑ Female

22. What is the highest academic degree you have earned?

- ❑ Bachelors degree
- ❑ Masters degree (non MBA)
- ❑ MBA or International MBA
- ❑ Ph.D.
- ❑ Ed.D.
- ❑ JD
- ❑ Other: _____

23. If you earned a graduate degree, from what university/universities did you earn your graduate degree(s)?

_____

24. What is your annual gross income?

___Less than $25,000
___$25,000-$49,999
___$50,000-$79,999
___$80,000-$99,999
___$100,000-$149,999
___$150,000-$249,999
___$250,000 or greater

25. Please enter your current employer information.

Employer Name_____
Your Title_____
Address_____

26. What is your email address?

_____

27. What is your phone number?

Day phone_____
Evening phone _____

28. Do you have children?

- ❑ Yes. Answer question 28(a)
- ❑ No.

28(a) How many children in each of the following age groups? (Fill in number.)

0-12 years _____
13-17 years_____
18-22 years_____
23 or older _____

Thank you for your prompt response. Please return this questionnaire to the firm hired to compile the results in the postage paid envelope provided. If the envelope is missing, please return to: Monalco, Inc. 2205 N. Lake Drive, Milwaukee, WI 53202. You may also fax your response to Monalco at 414-273-0225.

APPENDIX B

INTERNATIONAL STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE

Please indicate to what degree you agree or disagree with the following statements.

A main reason why I would like to do some of my studies in another country is because I would expect:	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. To learn advanced business techniques	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. To belong to another culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. To learn a beautiful language that I like very much	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. To earn a better living	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. To be able to breathe the "air of liberty"	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. To compare doing business in my country with doing business in another country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. To learn about other cultures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. To help me develop a career in international business	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. To obtain a different view of the world	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. To differentiate my self from others	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. To earn a prestigious diploma	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. To earn a double degree or diploma	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. To achieve my dream of having a foreign experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. It would be an easier way for me to continue my studies at a higher educational level	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. It would be more economical for me to obtain a university degree in a foreign country than in my own country.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. To have exciting experiences	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. To experience another culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. To experience foreign food	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. To be able to freely practice my religious beliefs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. To have fun	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. To provide a good living to my family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. To find greater freedom	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
23. To be exposed to a higher academic level of thought	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
24. Because the higher education system in my country is too rigid	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
25. To achieve a higher social status	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
26. To increase my enjoyment level	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
27. To live independently, without worrying so much about what others think of me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
28. To have international experience	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
29. To more easily enter the job market	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
30. To learn other languages	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
31. To better learn about human civilization.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
32. To live in another culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
33. To experience a more exotic life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
34. To provide a good living to my children	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
35. So that my children can be exposed to a complete, modern and systematic educational system	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
36. To benefit my future career	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
37. To encourage myself to change in some way	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
38. To learn a native language	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
39. Because I will never be the same afterwards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
40. To see new things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
41. To learn about new ways of doing business	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
42. That I might not pass the exams necessary to obtain a higher level of education in my country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
43. To live where ones private life is respected	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
44. To give me a more open mind	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
45. To experience a lifestyle other than my own	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
46. To improve my parents' social recognition	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
47. To create my own independent life.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
48. To become part of a new culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
49. To be exposed to people from other countries	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

A main reason why I would like to do some of my studies in another country is because would I expect:	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
50. Personal enhancement	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
51. To please my parents	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
52. To study at a prestigious university	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
53. To make a professional work connection	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
54. To help me realize my own potential	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
55. To live where personal relations are relatively simple	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
56. To be richer	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
57. To get away from certain social and family rules and customs that usually surround me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
58. To see the world	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
59. Because there are more opportunities in other countries than in my country to obtain a university degree	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
60. To travel	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
61. To vacation	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
62. To experience Western life	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
63. To find a work environment that allows me a chance to succeed	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
64. To help me be able to work in another country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

A main reason why it would be difficult for me to do some of my studies in another county is:

65. My country is the best place for me to study	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
66. I would have to go into debt to do so	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
67. It would be difficult for my family if I were away from home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
68. No one in my family has ever studied abroad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
69. I would miss my family and friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
70. I have financial obligations that I would not be able to meet if I studied abroad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
71. I would be wary of new places	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
72. I have a job that I cannot afford to leave to study abroad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
73. Studying abroad is a luxury	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
74. None of my friends have ever studied abroad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
75. I have many obligations here at home	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
76. Studying abroad may prevent me from graduating on time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
77. I may not be able to practice my religion if I study abroad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
78. I would not be able to take care of my family and friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
79. My family would not be able to depend on me if I were away	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

It would be easier for me to study abroad if:

80. I had family and/or friends in the country where I would study abroad	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
81. One of my good friends did it with me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
82. It were not so expensive	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
83. If I did not have to leave my family and/or my friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Below is a list of values. Please rate the importance of each as a guiding principle in your life using the scale provided.	Most Important	Very Important	Moderately Important	Slightly Important	Not important at all
84. EQUALITY (equal opportunity for all)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
85. SOCIAL POWER (control over others, dominance)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
86. SENSE OF BELONGING (feeling that others care about me)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
87. FREEDOM (freedom of action and thought)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
88. SOCIAL ORDER (stability of society)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
89. DETACHMENT (from worldly concerns)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
90. POLITENESS (courtesy, good manners)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
91. WEALTH (material possessions, money)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
92. SELF RESPECT (belief in one's own worth)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
93. RECIPROCATION OF FAVORS (avoiding being in debt)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
94. CREATIVITY (uniqueness, imagination)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
95. AN EXCITING LIFE (stimulating experiences)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
96. RESPECT FOR TRADITION (preservation of time-honored customs)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
97. SELF-DISCIPLINE (self-restraint, resistance to temptation)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
98. HEALTHY (not being sick physically or mentally)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
99. FAMILY SECURITY (safety for loved ones)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
100. SOCIAL RECOGNITION (respect, approval by others)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
101. WISDOM (a mature understanding of life)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
102. AUTHORITY (the right to lead or command)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
103. PLEASURE (gratification of desires)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
104. SOCIAL JUSTICE (correcting injustice, care for the weak)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
105. INDEPENDENT (self-reliant, self-sufficient)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
106. UNITY WITH NATURE (fitting into nature)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
107. MODERATE (avoiding extremes of feeling and action)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
108. LOYAL (faithful to my friends, group)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
109. A VARIED LIFE (filled with challenge, novelty, and change)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
110. AMBITIOUS (hardworking, aspiring)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
111. BROAD-MINDED (tolerant of different ideas and beliefs)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
112. HUMBLE (modest, self-effacing)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
113. DARING (seeking adventure, risk)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
114. INFLUENTIAL (having an impact on people and events)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
115. CLEAN (neat, tidy)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
116. HONORING OF PARENTS AND ELDERS (showing respect)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
117. CHOOSING OWN GOALS (selecting own purpose)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
118. CAPABLE (competent, effective, efficient)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
119. A SPIRITUAL LIFE (emphasis on spiritual not material matters)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
120. ACCEPTING MY PORTION IN LIFE (submitting to life's circumstances)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
121. HONEST (genuine, sincere)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
122. FORGIVING (willing to pardon others)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
123. PRESERVING MY PUBLIC IMAGE (protecting my "face")	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
124. OBEDIENT (dutiful, meeting obligations)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
125. INTELLIGENT (logical, thinking)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
126. HELPFUL (working for the welfare of others)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
127. DEVOUT (holding to religious faith and belief)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
128. CURIOUS (interested in everything, exploring)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
129. SUCCESSFUL (achieving goals)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
130. RESPONSIBLE (dependable, reliable)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
131. INNER HARMONY (at peace with myself)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
132. ENJOYING LIFE (enjoying food, sex, leisure, etc.)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
133. NATIONAL SECURITY (protection of my nation from enemies)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
134. TRUE FRIENDSHIP (close, supportive friends)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
135. MEANING IN LIFE (a purpose in life)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
136. PROTECTING THE ENVIRONMENT (preserving nature)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
137. A WORLD AT PEACE (free of war and conflict)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
138. A WORLD OF BEAUTY (beauty of nature and the arts)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
139. MATURE LOVE (deep emotional and spiritual intimacy)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please tell us a few things about yourself.

140. **Age:** _____ 141. **Gender:** Male ☐ Female: ☐ 142. **Country of Birth:** _____

143. **Nationality:** _____ **If more than one nationality, please specify** _____

	Elementary	High School	College/University	Postgraduate
144. **Father's Educational Level:**	☐	☐	☐	☐
145. **Mother's Educational Level:**	☐	☐	☐	☐

146. **Approximate Household Income:**

Less than $20,000	$21,000-$40,000	$41,000-$70,000	$71,000-$100,000	Greater than $100,000
☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

147. **Are you currently studying in your home university?** Yes ☐ No ☐

If you answered **YES** to question **147**, please answer questions **148** and **149.**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree nor disagree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
148. I intend to do some of my studies in another country for at least 1 semester	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

149. Choose **TWO** countries from the following list where you would prefer to study abroad.

France ☐
Poland ☐
Mexico ☐
China ☐
Germany ☐
Japan ☐

If you answered **NO** to question number **147**, please answer question **150.**

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or disagree	Disagree	Strongly disa
150. I am satisfied with my experience doing some of my studies in another country.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Please tell us about any of your previous international experience.

151. **Have you lived in another country?** Yes ☐ No ☐ 152. **If yes, for a total of how long?** _____

153. **Have you visited other countries as a tourist or a visitor?** Yes ☐ No ☐ 154. **If yes, how many trips have you made?** _____

Thank you for completing this survey!

SEIDMAN COLLEGE OF BUSINESS

APPENDIX C

The Magellan Exchange Alumni Survey

Name_____

Please think back to the time <u>before</u> you applied to study abroad. Please keep this time period in mind as you answer this section.

1. **Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Use 5=strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree.**

<u>Before</u> I studied abroad, I expected:

a. 5 4 3 2 1 To obtain a different view of the world
b. 5 4 3 2 1 To see new things
c. 5 4 3 2 1 To travel
d. 5 4 3 2 1 To experience another culture(s)
e. 5 4 3 2 1 To have fun
f. 5 4 3 2 1 To make professional work connections
g. 5 4 3 2 1 To equip myself to be able to work in another country
h. 5 4 3 2 1 To learn advanced business techniques
i. 5 4 3 2 1 To compare doing business in my country with doing business in another country
j. 5 4 3 2 1 To help myself develop a career in international business
k. 5 4 3 2 1 To make myself more attractive to employers when they evaluate me as a job applicant
l. 5 4 3 2 1 To influence my decision in a career direction that I will pursue after graduation
m. 5 4 3 2 1 To improve my starting salary upon graduation
n. 5 4 3 2 1 To maximize my long-term earnings
o. 5 4 3 2 1 To make myself more promotable in the long-term
p. 5 4 3 2 1 To learn other languages
q. 5 4 3 2 1 To create my own independent life
r. 5 4 3 2 1 To become more open minded
s. 5 4 3 2 1 To help myself realize my own potential
t. 5 4 3 2 1 To go into debt
u. 5 4 3 2 1 To miss my family
v. 5 4 3 2 1 To miss my friends
w. 5 4 3 2 1 To be wary of new places
x. 5 4 3 2 1 To be unable to graduate on time

Please continue to think back to the time <u>before</u> you applied to study abroad. Please keep this time period in mind as you answer this section.

2. Please use the scale to the left of each statement below to indicate the degree to which you valued each of the following <u>before</u> your Magellan Exchange experience. Use 5=highly important and 1=highly unimportant.

a. 5 4 3 2 1 Obtain a different view of the world
b. 5 4 3 2 1 See new things
c. 5 4 3 2 1 Travel
d. 5 4 3 2 1 Experience another culture(s)
e. 5 4 3 2 1 Have fun
f. 5 4 3 2 1 Make professional work connections
g. 5 4 3 2 1 Equip myself to be able to work in another country
h. 5 4 3 2 1 Learn advanced business techniques
i. 5 4 3 2 1 Compare doing business in my country with doing business in another country
j. 5 4 3 2 1 Help me develop a career in international business
k. 5 4 3 2 1 Make myself more attractive to employers when they evaluate me as a job applicant
l. 5 4 3 2 1 Influence my decision in a career direction that I will pursue after graduation
m. 5 4 3 2 1 Improve my starting salary upon graduation
n. 5 4 3 2 1 Maximize my long-term earnings
o. 5 4 3 2 1 Make myself more promotable in the long-term
p. 5 4 3 2 1 Learn other languages
q. 5 4 3 2 1 Create my own independent life
r. 5 4 3 2 1 Become more open minded
s. 5 4 3 2 1 Help me realize my own potential
t. 5 4 3 2 1 Not going into debt
u. 5 4 3 2 1 Not missing my family
v. 5 4 3 2 1 Not missing my friends
w. 5 4 3 2 1 Not be wary of new places
x. 5 4 3 2 1 Not be able to graduate on time

Please answer the following section of questions based upon how you think <u>now</u> after having completed your study abroad experience.

3. Please indicate your level of agreement with each of the following statements. Use 5=strongly agree and 1=strongly disagree.

As a result of my study abroad experience, I:

a. 5 4 3 2 1 Obtained a different view of the world
b. 5 4 3 2 1 Saw new things
c. 5 4 3 2 1 Traveled
d. 5 4 3 2 1 Experienced another culture(s)
e. 5 4 3 2 1 Had fun
f. 5 4 3 2 1 Made professional work connections
g. 5 4 3 2 1 Equipped myself to be able to work in another country
h. 5 4 3 2 1 Learned advanced business techniques
i. 5 4 3 2 1 Compared doing business in my country with doing business in another country
j. 5 4 3 2 1 Helped myself develop a career in international business
k. 5 4 3 2 1 Made myself more attractive to employers when they evaluated me as a job applicant
l. 5 4 3 2 1 Influenced my decision in a career direction that I pursued after graduation
m. 5 4 3 2 1 Improved my starting salary upon graduation
n. 5 4 3 2 1 Maximized my long-term earnings
o. 5 4 3 2 1 Made myself more promotable in the long-term
p. 5 4 3 2 1 Learned other languages
q. 5 4 3 2 1 Created my own independent life
r. 5 4 3 2 1 Became more open minded
s. 5 4 3 2 1 Helped myself realize my own potential
t. 5 4 3 2 1 Went into debt
u. 5 4 3 2 1 Missed my family
v. 5 4 3 2 1 Missed my friends
w. 5 4 3 2 1 Was wary of new places
x. 5 4 3 2 1 Was unable to graduate on time

Please answer the following section of questions based upon how you think <u>now</u> after having completed your study abroad experience.

4. Please use the scale to the left of each statement below to indicate the degree to which you value each of the following <u>now</u>. Use 5=highly important and 1=highly unimportant.

a. 5 4 3 2 1 Obtain a different view of the world
b. 5 4 3 2 1 See new things
c. 5 4 3 2 1 Travel
d. 5 4 3 2 1 Experience another culture(s)
e. 5 4 3 2 1 Have fun
f. 5 4 3 2 1 Make professional work connections
g. 5 4 3 2 1 Equip myself to be able to work in another country
h. 5 4 3 2 1 Learn advanced business techniques
i. 5 4 3 2 1 Compare doing business in my country with doing business in another country
j. 5 4 3 2 1 Help myself develop a career in international business
k. 5 4 3 2 1 Make myself more attractive to employers when they evaluate me as a job applicant
l. 5 4 3 2 1 Influence my decision in a career direction that I will pursue after graduation
m. 5 4 3 2 1 Improve my starting salary upon graduation
n. 5 4 3 2 1 Maximize my long-term earnings
o. 5 4 3 2 1 Make myself more promotable in the long-term
p. 5 4 3 2 1 Learn other languages
q. 5 4 3 2 1 Create my own independent life
r. 5 4 3 2 1 Become more open minded
s. 5 4 3 2 1 Help myself realize my own potential
t. 5 4 3 2 1 Not going into debt
u. 5 4 3 2 1 Not missing my family
v. 5 4 3 2 1 Not missing my friends
w. 5 4 3 2 1 Not be wary of new places
x. 5 4 3 2 1 Not be able to graduate on time

5. **Indicate the year(s) you began your Magellan Exchange experience. (check all that apply)**
1994 1995 1996 1997 1998 1999 2000 2001 2002 2003 2004 2005 2006 2007 2008

6. **What was your home school for the Magellan Exchange? _____**

7. **What was your host school(s) for the Magellan Exchange? _____**

8. **In what country or countries did you study abroad with The Magellan Exchange? (check all that apply)**
Austria Belgium Finland France Germany Mexico The Netherlands Spain United Kingdom United States

9. **If you participated in an internship during your study abroad with The Magellan Exchange, did that internship assist you in your career?**
Did not participate in an internship. Yes. No.

10. **<u>Prior</u> to studying abroad through The Magellan Exchange, had you ever participated in a study abroad program?**
Yes, in high school (How many times? ___). Yes, in college (How many times? ___). No.

11. **How many different times did you study abroad in any program after your Magellan Exchange experience?**
0 1 2 3 4 5+

12. **Since your Magellan experience, have you ever worked in an international capacity (either for an organization located in a foreign country or in a position in your home country that had a specific international component) in any of the following ways? (check all that apply)**

- Paid employee in private industry
- Paid employee for your home country government
- Paid employee for any other government
- Paid employee in a non-profit agency/organization
- A teacher or educator
- A volunteer for a non-profit agency/ organization
- A consultant
- In any other way. Describe_____

13. **Did your study abroad experience influence your life in any of the following ways? (check all that apply)**

-Met my spouse or life partner there.
-Met friends from my home country with whom I stay in contact.
-Met host country friends with whom I stay in contact.
-Established relationships that became professional contacts.
-Opened up an interest/passion for another language and/or another culture.
-Sparked an interest in travel.
-Influenced me to explore other cultures.
-Influenced me to get a job overseas.
-Influenced me to work for a multi-national organization in my home country.
-Changed my career plans.
-Developed a more sophisticated way of looking at the world.

14. **Do you prefer hiring employees who have international experience?**

I have never been responsible for hiring employees. Yes. No.

15. **Are you?** Male Female

16. **What is your age? _____**

17. **Nationality_____ If more than one nationality, please specify: _____**

18. **What is your preferred email address? _____**

APPENDIX D

Table A.1: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of career-related *expectations* before studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of making professional work connections	US Europe	91 117	2.40 2.38	1.273 1.074
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of equipping myself to be able to work in another country	US Europe	91 117	2.56 2.41	1.558 1.593
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of learning advanced business techniques	US Europe	91 117	2.35 2.23	1.251 1.170
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	US Europe	91 117	2.58 2.31	1.585 1.361
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of helping myself develop a career in international business	US Europe	91 117	2.53 2.55	1.615 1.627
EMPLOYABILITY: *Expectation* of making myself more attractive to employers	US Europe	91 117	3.22 2.79	1.937 1.932
CAREER CHOICE: *Expectation* of influencing my decision in a career direction	US Europe	91 117	2.57 2.31	1.536 1.361
STARTING SALARY: *Expectation* of improving starting salary upon graduation	US Europe	91 117	2.43 2.23	1.335 1.078
EARNINGS: *Expectation* of maximizing long-term earnings	US Europe	91 117	2.44 2.36	1.284 1.133
PROMOTABILITY: *Expectation* of making myself more promotable in the long-term	US Europe	91 117	2.35 2.32	1.682 1.437

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of making professional work connections	0.068	206	0.946	0.011	0.163
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of equipping myself to be able to work in another country	0.681	206	0.497	0.150	0.221
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of learning advanced business techniques	0.717	206	0.474	0.121	0.169
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	1.343	206	0.181	0.275	0.205
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Expectation* of helping myself develop a career in international business	-0.086	206	0.931	-0.020	0.227
EMPLOYABILITY: *Expectation* of making myself more attractive	1.572	206	0.118	0.425	0.270

to employers					
CAREER CHOICE: *Expectation* of influencing my decision in a career direction	1.310	206	0.192	0.264	0.201
STARTING SALARY: *Expectation* of improving starting salary upon graduation	1.182	206	0.238	0.198	0.167
EARNINGS: *Expectation* of maximizing long-term earnings	0.480	206	0.632	0.081	0.168
PROMOTABILITY: *Expectation* of making myself more promotable in the long-term	0.124	206	0.901	0.027	0.217

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.2: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of career-related *values* before studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of making professional work connections	US Europe	91 117	3.52 3.29	0.982 0.929
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of equipping myself to be able to work in another country	US Europe	91 117	3.63 3.65	1.061 0.931
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of learning advanced business techniques	US Europe	91 117	3.27 3.31	1.116 1.013
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	US Europe	91 117	3.56 3.55	1.108 0.987
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of helping myself develop a career in international business	US Europe	91 117	3.51 3.62	1.205 1.016
EMPLOYABILITY: *Value* of making myself more attractive to employers	US Europe	91 117	4.16 4.02	0.860 0.900
CAREER CHOICE: *Value* of influencing my decision in a career direction	US Europe	91 117	3.60 3.45	1.021 0.960

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of making professional work connections	1.697	206	0.091	0.226	0.133
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of equipping myself to be able to work in another country	-0.168	206	0.867	-0.023	0.138
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of learning advanced business techniques	-0.223	206	0.824	-0.033	0.148
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	0.092	206	0.927	0.013	0.146
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of helping myself develop a career in international business	-0.713	206	0.477	-0.110	0.154
EMPLOYABILITY: *Value* of making myself more attractive to	1.198	206	0.232	0.148	0.123

employers					
CAREER CHOICE: *Value* of influencing my decision in a career direction	1.097	206	0.274	0.151	0.138

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.3: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *perceived outcomes* of career-related after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
EMPLOYABILITY: *Perceived outcome* of making myself more attractive to employers	US Europe	91 117	4.02 4.11	0.966 0.785
CAREER CHOICE: *Perceived outcome* of influencing my decision in a career direction	US Europe	91 117	3.54 3.47	1.158 1.039
STARTING SALARY: *Perceived outcome* of improving starting salary upon graduation	US Europe	91 117	3.03 3.04	1.100 0.995
EARNINGS: *Expectation* of maximizing long-term earnings	US Europe	91 117	3.25 3.07	1.007 0.980
PROMOTABILITY: *Perceived outcome* of making myself more promotable in the long-term	US Europe	91 117	3.77 3.56	0.932 0.950

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
EMPLOYABILITY: *Perceived outcome* of making myself more attractive to employers	-0.734	206	0.464	-0.089	0.121
CAREER CHOICE: *Perceived outcome* of influencing my decision in a career direction	0.448	206	0.655	0.068	0.153
STARTING SALARY: *Perceived outcome* of improving starting salary upon graduation	-0.067	206	0.655	-0.010	0.146
EARNINGS: *Expectation* of maximizing long-term earnings	1.330	206	0.185	0.184	0.139
PROMOTABILITY: *Perceived outcome* of making myself more promotable in the long-term	1.557	206	0.121	0.205	0.132

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.4: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of career-related *values* after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of equipping myself to be able to work in another country	US	91	4.15	0.893
	Europe	117	4.08	0.873
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of learning advanced business techniques	US	91	3.79	1.131
	Europe	117	3.71	0.974
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	US	91	4.08	1.128
	Europe	117	3.87	0.987
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of helping myself develop a career in international business	US	91	3.80	1.185
	Europe	117	4.01	0.895
EMPLOYABILITY: *Value* of making myself more attractive to employers	US	91	4.33	0.844
	Europe	117	4.16	0.798
CAREER CHOICE: *Value* of influencing my decision in a career direction	US	91	3.81	1.043
	Europe	117	3.75	0.860

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of equipping myself to be able to work in another country	0.624	206	0.533	0.077	0.123
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of learning advanced business techniques	0.560	206	0.576	0.082	0.146
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of comparing doing business in my country with doing business in another country	1.396	206	0.164	0.205	0.147
CAREER/PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION: *Value* of helping myself develop a career in international business	-1.430	206	0.154	-0.206	0.144
EMPLOYABILITY: *Value* of making myself more attractive to employers	1.462	206	0.145	0.167	0.114
CAREER CHOICE: *Value* of influencing my decision in a career direction	0.463	206	0.644	0.061	0.132

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.5: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *expectations* and *perceived outcomes* of Money before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	US	91	2.434	1.216
	Europe	117	2.295	0.985
Perceived Outcome of Money, post-experience	US	91	3.143	0.992
	Europe	117	3.056	0.940

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	0.912	206	0.363	0.139	0.153
Perceived Outcome of Money, post-experience	0.649	206	0.517	0.087	0.135

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations and outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.6: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *expectations* and *perceived outcomes* of Career Preparation before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	US	91	2.480	1.102
	Europe	117	2.396	0.992
Perceived Outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	US	91	3.506	1.123
	Europe	117	3.570	0.845

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	0.576	206	0.565	0.084	0.146
Perceived Outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	-0.471	206	0.638	-0.064	0.136

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations and outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.7: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *expectations* and *perceived outcomes* of Intrepidness before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	US	91	1.978	0.999
	Europe	117	1.977	0.860
Perceived Outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	US	91	2.879	0.898
	Europe	117	3.037	0.954

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	0.006	206	0.995	0.001	0.129
Perceived Outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	-1.215	206	0.226	-0.158	0.130

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations and outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.8: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *expectations* and *perceived outcomes* of Self-Actualization before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	US	91	2.678	1.363
	Europe	117	2.547	1.280
Perceived Outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	US	91	4.253	0.789
	Europe	117	4.077	0.733

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	0.710	206	0.479	0.131	0.184
Perceived Outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	1.659	206	0.099	0.176	0.106

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations and outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.9: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *value* of Career Preparation before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	US	91	3.515	0.923
	Europe	117	3.477	0.792
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	US	91	3.978	0.906
	Europe	117	3.875	0.773

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	0.315	206	0.753	0.037	0.119
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	0.887	206	0.376	0.103	0.117

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.10: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *value* of Career Preparation before studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	US	91	2.991	0.857
	Europe	117	2.890	0.847

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	0.774	206	0.440	0.092	0.119

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.11: How do European and U.S. participants differ: comparison of *value* of Self-Actualization before and after studying abroad

	Region	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	US	91	3.937	0.811
	Europe	117	3.962	0.758
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	US	91	4.313	0.736
	Europe	117	4.239	0.652

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	-0.226	2206	0.821	-0.025	0.109
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	0.766	206	0.444	0.074	0.096

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.12: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad: *expectations* of Money, Intrepidness, and Adventure before studying abroad

	Time Elapsed	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	2.135	0.804
	5 years ago or less	182	2.451	1.166
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	1.979	0.994
	5 years ago or less	182	2.020	0.938
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.380	1.394
	5 years ago or less	182	3.696	1.486

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	-1.764	228	0.079	-0.315	0.179
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	-0.266	228	0.791	-0.041	0.154
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	-1.326	228	0.186	-0.316	0.238

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.13: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad: *perceived outcomes* of Money, Intrepidness, Adventure, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Time Elapsed	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived outcomes of Money, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	2.938	0.932
	5 years ago or less	182	3.228	0.989
Perceived outcomes of Intrepidness, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.132	0.904
	5 years ago or less	182	2.989	0.977
Perceived outcomes of Adventure, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	4.625	0.475
	5 years ago or less	182	4.706	0.580
Perceived outcomes of Career Preparation, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.472	0.844
	5 years ago or less	182	3.625	1.002
Perceived outcomes of Self-Actualization, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	4.250	0.726
	5 years ago or less	182	4.150	0.761

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Perceived outcomes of Money, post-experience	-1.831	228	0.068	-0.291	0.159
Perceived outcomes of Intrepidness, post-experience	0.915	228	0.361	0.143	0.156
Perceived outcomes of Adventure, post-experience	-0.892	228	0.373	-0.081	0.091
Perceived outcomes of Career Preparation, post-experience	-0.967	228	0.335	-0.152	0.158
Perceived outcomes of Self-Actualization, post-experience	0.816	228	0.415	0.099	0.122

Note: Higher means indicate greater perceived outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.14: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad: *value* of Money, Intrepidness, Adventure, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Time Elapsed	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Money, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.326	0.752
	5 years ago or less	182	3.550	0.919
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	2.879	0.656
	5 years ago or less	182	2.986	0.900
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	4.242	0.498
	5 years ago or less	182	4.368	0.686
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.413	0.653
	5 years ago or less	182	3.570	0.898
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.891	0.656
	5 years ago or less	182	4.010	0.803

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Money, pre-experience	-1.550	228	0.123	-0.223	0.144
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	-0.767	228	0.444	-0.107	0.139
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	-1.197	228	0.233	-0.126	0.106
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	-1.129	228	0.260	-0.156	0.139
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	-0.946	228	0.345	-0.119	0.126

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.15: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad: *value* of Money, Intrepidness, Adventure, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Time Elapsed	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Money, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.674	0.893
	5 years ago or less	182	3.848	0.865
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.075	0.853
	5 years ago or less	182	3.173	0.854
Value of Adventure, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	4.496	0.474
	5 years ago or less	182	4.617	0.560
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	3.840	0.646
	5 years ago or less	182	3.994	0.866
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	More than 5 years ago	48	4.323	0.572
	5 years ago or less	182	4.287	0.706

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Money, post-experience	-1.234	228	0.218	-0.174	0.141
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	-0.704	228	0.482	-0.098	0.139
Value of Adventure, post-experience	-1.369	228	0.172	-0.121	0.088
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	-1.144	228	0.254	-0.153	0.134
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	0.325	228	0.746	0.036	0.110

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.16: Comparison of respondent age: *expectations* of Intrepidness, Money and Career Preparation before studying abroad

	Age of Respondent	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	1.998	0.923
	30 years old and over	35	2.048	1.135
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	2.361	1.125
	30 years old and over	35	2.414	0.966
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	2.475	1.055
	30 years old and over	35	2.267	1.044

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	-0.280	224	0.780	-0.049	0.176
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	-0.262	224	0.794	-0.053	0.203
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	1.074	224	0.284	0.208	0.194

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.17: Comparison of respondent age: *perceived outcomes* of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Age of Respondent	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	2.986	0.982
	30 years old and over	35	3.143	0.879
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	3.207	1.017
	30 years old and over	35	2.914	0.790
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	3.641	0.991
	30 years old and over	35	3.333	0.840
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.178	0.761
	30 years old and over	35	4.133	0.715

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	-0.882	224	0.379	-0.157	0.178
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	1.613	224	0.108	0.293	0.181
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	1.724	224	0.086	0.307	0.178
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	0.322	224	0.748	0.045	0.139

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.18: Comparison of respondent age: *value* of Career Preparation, Adventure, Intrepidness, Money, and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Age of Respondent	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	3.551	0.892
	30 years old and over	35	3.443	0.560
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.372	0.679
	30 years old and over	35	4.248	0.447
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	2.970	0.898
	30 years old and over	35	2.891	0.626
Value of Money, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	3.517	0.920
	30 years old and over	35	3.391	0.698
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.005	0.801
	30 years old and over	35	3.864	0.607

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	0692	224	0.490	0.109	0.157
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	1.056	224	0.292	0.126	0.119
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	0.494	224	0.622	0.078	0.158
Value of Money, pre-experience	0.771	224	0.442	0.126	0.164
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	0.989	224	0.324	0.141	0.143

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.19: Comparison of respondent age: *value* of Career Preparation, Adventure, Intrepidness, Money, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Age of Respondent	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.001	0.846
	30 years old and over	35	3.767	0.686
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.628	0.539
	30 years old and over	35	4.440	0.508
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	3.152	0.842
	30 years old and over	35	3.160	0.940
Value of Money, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	3.839	0.872
	30 years old and over	35	3.657	0.902
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Under 30 years old	191	4.319	0.698
	30 years old and over	35	4.179	0.544

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	1.546	224	0.124	0.234	0.152
Value of Adventure, post-experience	1.915	224	0.057	0.188	0.098
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	-0.52	224	0.959	-0.008	0.158
Value of Money, post-experience	1.131	224	0.259	0.182	0.161
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	1.131	224	0.259	0.141	0.125

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.20: Comparison of those with prior study abroad experience and those without: *expectations* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money and Adventure before studying abroad

	Prior study abroad experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	1.981	1.137
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	2.016	0.916
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	2.314	1.137
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	2.481	1.048
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	2.271	1.107
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	2.402	1.110
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.721	1.452
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.617	1.479

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	-0.197	227	0.844	-0.345	0.175
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	-0.855	227	0.393	-0.167	0.195
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	-0.641	227	0.522	-0.131	0.204
Expectation of Adventure, pre-experience	0.377	227	0.707	0.103	0.274

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.21: Comparison of those with prior study abroad experience and those without: *perceived outcome* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money, Adventure and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Prior study abroad experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	2.791	1.016
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.053	0.947
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.619	1.048
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.589	0.962
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.129	1.010
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.173	0.983
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.807	0.364
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	4.669	0.588
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.276	0.716
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	4.150	0.761

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	-1.494	227	0.137	-0.263	0.176
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	0.166	227	0.868	0.030	0.179
Perceived outcome of Money, post-experience	-0.243	227	0.808	-0.044	0.181
Perceived outcome of Adventure, post-experience	1.345	227	0.180	0.138	0.103
Perceived outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	0.914	227	0.361	0.127	0.139

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.22: Comparison of those with prior study abroad experience and those without: *value* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money, Adventure and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

	Prior study abroad experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	2.857	1.063
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	2.978	0.814
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.586	0.927
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.526	0.844
Value of Money, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.533	0.971
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.493	0.877
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.343	0.915
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	4.345	0.595
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.136	0.865
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.955	0.758

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	-0.771	227	0.441	-0.121	0.157
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	0.381	227	0.704	0.060	0.157
Value of Money, pre-experience	0.245	227	0.806	0.040	0.164
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	-0.021	227	0.983	-0.003	0.120
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	1.271	227	0.205	0.181	0.142

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.23: Comparison of those with prior study abroad experience and those without: *value* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, Money, Adventure and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

	Prior study abroad experience	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	2.954	0.928
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.183	0.835
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.014	0.913
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.952	0.814
Value of Money, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	3.877	0.933
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	3.800	0.865
Value of Adventure, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.731	0.492
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	4.567	0.552

Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Studied abroad before Magellan	35	4.464	0.601
	Had not studied abroad before Magellan	194	4.263	0.691

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	-1.462	227	0.145	-0.228	0.156
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	0.410	227	0.683	0.062	0.152
Value of Money, post-experience	0.480	227	0.631	0.077	0.161
Value of Adventure, post-experience	1.658	227	0.099	0.165	0.010
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	1.617	227	0.107	0.201	0.125

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.24: Comparison of male and female respondents: *expectations* of Intrepidness and Money before studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Female	121	2.033	1.054
	Male	105	1.975	0.833
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Female	121	2.368	1.104
	Male	105	2.371	1.101

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	0.457	224	0.648	0.058	0.128
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	-0.025	224	0.980	-0.004	0.147

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.25: Comparison of male and female respondents: *value* of Career Preparation, Intrepidness, and Money before studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Female	121	3.580	0.913
	Male	105	3.483	0.779
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Female	121	3.046	0.831
	Male	105	2.856	0.886
Value of Money, pre-experience	Female	121	3.518	0.993
	Male	105	3.473	0.756

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	0.856	224	0.393	0.97	0.114
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	1.671	224	0.096	0.191	0.114
Value of Money, pre-experience	0378	224	0.706	0.045	0.119

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.26: Comparison of male and female respondents: *perceived outcomes* of Career Preparation after studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Female	121	3.623	1.068
	Male	105	3.559	0.855

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	0.491	224	0.624	0.064	0.130

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.27: Comparison of male and female respondents: *value* of Career Preparation, Intrepidness, or Money after studying abroad

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Female	121	4.012	0.863
	Male	105	3.910	0.783
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Female	121	3.228	0.853
	Male	105	3.067	0.855
Value of Money, post-experience	Female	121	3.813	0.938
	Male	105	3.810	0.806

	t-test for Equality of Means				
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	0.933	224	0.352	0.103	0.110
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	1.417	224	0.158	0.161	0.114
Value of Money, post-experience	0.027	224	0.979	0.003	0.117

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.28: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *expectation* of Intrepidness, Money and Career Preparation before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	***Expectation* of Intrepidness, pre-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	1.889	0.877
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.018	1.204
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	2.000	0.858
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	1.967	0.955
	***Expectation* of Money, pre-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.250	0.552
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.000	1.041
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	2.307	1.071
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	2.542	1.247
	***Expectation* of Career Preparation, pre-experience**			

1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.000	0.780
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.175	1.062
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	2.498	1.019
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	2.573	1.110

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.091	0.106	0.957
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.789	1.508	0.214
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.513	2.364	0.072

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.29: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *perceived outcomes* of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	***Perceived Outcome* of Intrepidness, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.125	0.791
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.930	0.972
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.014	0.994
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	2.869	0.890
	***Perceived Outcome* of Money, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.813	0.987
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.842	0.708
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.118	0.922
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.232	1.048
	***Perceived Outcome* of Career Preparation, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.542	0.665
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.230	1.012
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.577	0.889
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.554	1.157
	***Perceived Outcome* of Self-Actualization, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	4.125	0.797
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	4.474	0.591
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	4.065	0.719
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.183	0.828

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived Outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.507	0.579	0.629
Perceived Outcome of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.507	1.640	0.181
Perceived Outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.417	0.434	0.729
Perceived Outcome of Self-Actualization, , post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.921	1.605	0.189

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.30: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *value* of Adventure, Intrepidness, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	***Value* of Adventure, pre-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	4.125	0.486
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	4.463	0.411
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	4.284	0.687
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.482	0.720
	***Value* of Intrepidness, pre-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.783	0.690
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	2.905	0.671
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	2.930	0.883
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.022	0.906
	***Value* of Career Preparation, pre-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.319	0.631
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.535	0.645
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.518	0.827
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.509	0.994
	***Value* of Self-Actualization, pre-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.980	0.691
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.829	0.651
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.957	0.778
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.965	0.856

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Adventure, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.032	2.377	0.071
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.369	0.505	0.679
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.278	0.379	0.768
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.106	0.172	0.915

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.31: Comparison of time elapsed since studying abroad and region: *value* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	***Value* of Intrepidness, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	2.783	0.748
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.337	0.929
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.080	0.757
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.223	0.875
	***Value* of Career Preparation, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	3.764	0.618
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	3.956	0.664
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	3.903	0.809
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	3.984	0.971
	***Value* of Self-Actualization, post-experience**			
1	European respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	24	4.302	0.571
2	US respondents who studied abroad more than 5 years ago	19	4.368	0.530
3	European respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	93	4.223	0.673
4	US respondents who studied abroad 5 years ago or less	71	4.300	0.790

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.504	2.266	0.082
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.308	0.437	0.727
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.158	0.328	0.805

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.32: Comparison of gender and region: *expectation* of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation, or Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	2.019	1.100
3	US males	37	1.919	0.844
3	European females	53	2.006	0.986
4	European males	64	1.953	0.746
	Expectation of Money, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	2.435	1.170
3	US males	37	2.432	1.300
3	European females	53	2.255	0.984
4	European males	64	2.328	0.993
	Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	2.568	1.209
3	US males	37	2.351	0.926
3	European females	53	2.528	1.039
4	European males	64	2.287	0.946
	Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	2.790	1.491
3	US males	37	2.514	1.151
3	European females	53	2.800	1.403
4	European males	64	2.339	1.139

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.100	0.116	0.951
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.383	0.318	0.812
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.028	0.950	0.417
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.898	1.691	0.170

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.33: Comparison of gender and region: *perceived outcome* of Intrepidness and Career Preparation after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Perceived Outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.000	0.895
3	US males	37	2.703	0.885
3	European females	53	3.176	0.944
4	European males	64	2.922	0.953
	Perceived Outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.556	1.194
3	US males	37	3.432	1.021
3	European females	53	3.547	0.976
4	European males	64	3.589	0.727

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.697	1.987	0.117
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.198	0.206	0.892

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.34: Comparison of gender and region: *value* of Intrepidness and Career Preparation before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.133	0.748
2	US males	37	2.784	0.968
3	European females	53	2.967	0.862
4	European males	64	2.844	0.836
	Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.568	0.879
2	US males	37	3.437	0.991
3	European females	53	3.450	0.941
4	European males	64	3.500	0.650

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.183	1.652	0.179
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.174	0.238	0.870

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.35: Comparison of gender and region: *value* of Career Preparation after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Career Preparation, post-experience:			
1	US females	54	3.997	0.893
2	US males	37	3.951	0.936
3	European females	53	3.871	0.863
4	European males	64	3.878	0.697

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.199	0.283	0.838

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.36: Comparison of respondent age and region: *expectation* of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation, or Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	1.956	0.844
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	1.952	0.917
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.088	0.955
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	2.120	1.406
	Expectation of Money, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	2.214	1.010
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	2.481	1.231
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.711	0.733
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	2.178	1.137
	Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	2.415	0.988
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	2.511	1.100
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.300	1.036
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	2.310	1.143
	Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	2.602	1.288
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	2.779	1.415
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.263	1.235
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	2.120	0.873

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.202	0.235	0.872
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.997	1.693	0.170
Expectation of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.352	0.322	0.809
Expectation of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	2.621	1.527	0.209

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.37: Comparison of respondent age and region: *perceived outcomes* of Intrepidness, Money, Career Preparation, or Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Perceived Outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.014	0.983
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	2.849	0.888
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.158	0.796
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.048	0.968
	Perceived Outcome of Money, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.092	0.951
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.182	1.032
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.868	0.879
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	2.929	0.730
	Perceived Outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.626	0.875
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.541	1.132
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.281	0.611
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.310	1.090
	Perceived Outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	4.109	0.735
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	4.225	0.816
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.912	0.719
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.405	0.630

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived Outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.693	0.797	0.497
Perceived Outcome of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.648	0.698	0.554
Perceived Outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.914	0.963	0.411
Perceived Outcome of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.860	1.494	0.217

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.38: Comparison of respondent age and region: *value* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, and Self-Actualization before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	2.925	0.885
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	2.987	0.891
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.768	0.612
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.014	0.668
	Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.488	0.831
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.528	0.961
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.421	0.562
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.440	0.700
	Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.967	0.792
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.961	0.831
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.934	0.570
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.804	0.702

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.277	0.379	0.768
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.078	0.107	0.956
Value of Self-Actualization, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.114	0.185	0.906

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.39: Comparison of respondent age and region: *value* of Career Preparation, Intrepidness, and Self-Actualization after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Career Preparation, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.939	0.788
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.974	0.939
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	3.544	0.603
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.000	0.731
	Value of Intrepidness, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	3.057	0.750
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	3.200	0.854
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	2.821	0.808
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	3.514	0.991
	Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience:			
1	European respondents under 30 years old	98	4.276	0.668
3	US respondents under 30 years old	77	4.311	0.765
3	European respondents 30 years old and over	19	4.053	0.573
4	US respondents 30 years old and over	14	4.321	0.567

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.012	1.467	0.225
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.585	2.403	0.069
Value of Self-Actualization, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.357	0.749	0.524

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.40: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *expectation* of Intrepidness and Money before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	2.020	1.015
2	Males under 30 years old	87	1.973	0.804
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	2.167	1.280
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	1.922	0.983
	Expectation of Money, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	2.374	1.151
2	Males under 30 years old	87	2.322	1.100
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	2.139	0.801
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	2.706	1.062

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expectation of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.233	0.252	0.860
Expectation of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	1.047	0.864	0.461

Note: Higher means indicate greater expectations. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.41: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *perceived outcome* of Intrepidness and Career Preparation after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.090	0.983
2	Males under 30 years old	87	2.862	0.971
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.444	0.863
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	2.824	0.800
	Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.631	1.101
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.651	0.846
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.519	0.865
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.137	0.791

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perceived outcome of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	2.185	2.383	0.070
Perceived outcome of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	1.360	1.444	0.231

Note: Higher means indicate greater outcomes. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.42: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *value* of Career Preparation, Intrepidness, or Money before studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.607	0.955
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.485	0.810
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.444	0.589
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.441	0.629
	Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.042	0.856
2	Males under 30 years old	87	2.883	0.913
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.033	0.683
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	2.741	0.537
	Value of Money, pre-experience:			
1	*Females under 30 years old*	104	3.532	10.38
2	*Males under 30 years old*	87	3.498	0.731
3	*Females 30 years old and over*	18	3.463	0.658
4	*Males 30 years old and over*	17	3.314	0.750

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Career Preparation, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.354	0.484	0.694
Value of Intrepidness, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.711	0.960	0.412
Value of Money, pre-experience	Between Groups	3	0.240	0.301	0.825

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.

Table A.43: Comparison of respondent age and gender: *value* of Intrepidness, Career Preparation, or Money after studying abroad

Group		N	Mean	Std. Deviation
	Value of Intrepidness, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.227	0.851
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.062	0.827
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.189	0.888
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.129	1.020
	Value of Career Preparation, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	4.048	0.870
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.944	0.818
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.760	0.793
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.775	0.577
	Value of Money, post-experience:			
1	Females under 30 years old	104	3.853	0.924
2	Males under 30 years old	87	3.824	0.810
3	Females 30 years old and over	18	3.556	0.984
4	Males 30 years old and over	17	3.765	0.823

		df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Value of Intrepidness, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.440	0.598	0.617
Value of Career Preparation, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.711	1.041	0.375
Value of Money, post-experience	Between Groups	3	0.468	0.606	0.612

Note: Higher means indicate greater importance. Source: Developed for this study.