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Student Study Abroad Goals and Change in Intercultural Competence

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CERTIFICATE OF APPROVAL

MASTER'S THESIS

This is to certify that the Thesis of

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Abstract

University study abroad facilitators must maximize the benefits of a semester away from the home campus for students seeking to realize a transformational experience. Among the documented benefits of study abroad for students is the development of intercultural competence. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between student goals (excluding foreign language goals) for study abroad and change in intercultural competence. Data for this study was collected over four semesters from students (N = 78) who applied and were accepted to attend a study abroad program in a western European country. The study abroad program was hosted by a faith-based university in the Midwest. Participants were from the host university (n = 69) and other similar universities (n = 9). Participants were first-semester freshmen (n = 34), upperclassmen (n = 44), female (n = 61), and male (n = 17). The Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) (Kitsantas, 2004) and the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) (Hammer, 2012) were administered within the first week of the semester. The IDI was administered again at the conclusion of the semester. Students were encouraged but not required to complete the instruments. Kitsantas' (2004) study on the role of goals as a predictor of cross-cultural development served as a model for this study. Two research questions guided this study. First, what is the relationship (correlation) between student goals as measured by the SAGS for their study abroad experience and change in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI? A Pearson r correlation analysis was run on each of the three

SAGS subscales for the combined, freshmen, and upperclassmen participants. Results indicated a simple negative linear correlation on SAGS subscale two for the combined (r = -.279; $p < .05$, two-tailed) and also for the freshmen participants (r = -.404; $p < .05$, two-tailed). Second, what is the difference between first-semester freshmen and upperclassmen goals on the SAGS for study abroad and change in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI? A two-tailed t-test revealed a statistically significant difference on subscale one (t = 1.812; $p < .10$) and on subscale three (t = 3.594; $p < .001$). Results from a secondary analysis showed significant growth ($p < .001$) on the IDI for all three participant groups from pre-to-post semester. Literature is sparse on the relationship of goals and change in intercultural competence, which provides ample opportunities for additional research. This study was the first to examine the correlation between the SAGS and the IDI. Limitations included a small sample size, a single study abroad setting, and a narrow pool of participants (only students from small, faith-based universities). The SAGS is a useful tool for students studying abroad and for on-site personnel to understand students' goals for their experience. With designated time for self-evaluation of goals, feedback, and guided reflection, goals may still prove a factor for growth in intercultural competence during study abroad.

Acknowledgements

Lord, I will trust You,
Help me to journey beyond the familiar
and into the unknown.
Give me the faith to leave old ways
and break fresh ground with You.
-A Prayer of St. Brendan

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Chapter 1

Introduction

> Attitudes in the United States about study abroad have changed dramatically during the past few decades. Many of us who enroll U.S. students in programs of study in other countries have come to embrace two ideas that simply would not have occurred to most of our study abroad counterparts as recently as the 1970s and 1980s. The first is that through studying abroad, students can learn things, and learn in ways, that they will not if they stay on their home campuses. The second is that if study abroad's unique potential is to be met, we need to intervene actively in our students' learning—before, during, and after their experiences abroad. (Vande Berg, 2007, p. 392)

The Institute of International Education (2019) reported that, in 2017-2018, the United States hosted 1,094,792 international students (new and returning) in colleges and universities nationwide, and, according to the U.S. Department of Commerce, these students contribute $42.4 billion to the U.S. economy. Students from the U.S. studying abroad for academic credit (2016/17) numbered 332,727, spending U.S. dollars abroad (Institute of international Education, 2019). Besides being big business, international education—for students from the U.S. and for the students from other countries who come to study within our borders—is a significant component of the field of higher education. Whether sending or receiving students for study abroad, universities have an

obligation to know how to maximize the many benefits of study abroad for every student participant. To best deliver to students the desired transformative experience they seek, study abroad offices and programs must prepare, provide interventions, and assess the effectiveness of each program offered to our students—both at home and abroad. The following research is focused solely on U.S. students studying abroad and not on international students at U.S. educational institutions; there are, however, transferable applications beyond the scope of the current study.

Qualitative and quantitative research affirms the beneficial effects of study abroad (see Chapter 2). Perhaps most importantly, "When one studies abroad, the desired goal—again, cross-cultural competence—should be made equally clear" (Engle & Engle, 2003, p. 7). Notably,

> Gaining the knowledge, skills, and attitudes through an international experience is no longer just the interest of individual students. It has now become a priority of the collective. Why, then has study abroad emerged as a national priority? There may be myriad explanations, but we can certainly all agree on one: globalization. . . . we recognize the importance of an educated workforce becoming more knowledgeable about other cultures as essential so that the United States remains economically competitive. (Lewin, 2009, para. 1)

Lewin (2009) continued to state, "We should articulate a vision for study abroad, as for global learning more broadly, that is aligned with the type of institution in general, and the values of the specific institution in particular" (para. 9); he then followed up with examples such as a nursing school valuing the preparation of nurses for global work or with diverse cultures at home.

As participants in the broader community of faith-based educators, what is our institutional "collective priority" for study abroad? Is it solely about economic competition? Or is there a more compelling priority? The most compelling priority is first and foremost found in I John 4:20-21 and Luke 10:27 (ESV), which undeniably instructs us to love God and love others. As Christ-followers, we must first learn how to love others and teach our students to do the same. Learning about others increases our understanding of others. A deeper understanding of others increases intercultural competency, promoting greater love for others and love for God. "Ultimately, we hope to form a generation of Christian believers whose faith exerts a major influence on their posture vis-à-vis the wider world, and whose global awareness and broadened perspectives will leaven their self-understanding as followers of Christ" (Morgan, 2010b, p. 234). When properly implemented, the study abroad experience provides a natural starting point for students to increase global awareness, broaden their perspective, and develop an understanding of others—in short, to grow in intercultural competence.

Many faith-based institutions offer excellent study abroad programs for students "seeking a space to better understand themselves, their connections to God, and their places in the world" (Toms Smedley, 2010, p. 24). Directors for the South American Studies Program (SASP) in Bolivia help students see cultural disorientation and feelings of disequilibrium as opportunities for spiritual growth (Fendall, 2010). Abilene Christian University (ACU) in Oxford focuses studies on conflict and "models for dialogue and mutual understanding," experiential learning, and theological reflection, all the while helping "students balance a realistic discernment of global challenges and conflicts with a hopeful, Christ-shaped outlook" (Morgan, 2010a, p. 135).

Yet another study abroad program, Westmont in Mexico (WIM), is built on both a theoretical and a theological model. Theoretically, WIM relies upon the work of Milton J. Bennett's Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS), which describes development of intercultural competence as moving from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism (further described in Chapter 2). Theologically, WIM is built on "the Incarnation of Christ. In particular, we emphasize Christ's model of humility, empathy, and reconciliation. We cultivate these characteristics as we teach students "how" to learn, live, and communicate cross-culturally" (Montgomery & Docter, 2010, p. 118). According to Montgomery and Docter (2010),

> WIM program is designed to cultivate "world Christians": individuals who are able to encounter God in new contexts, to participate in the worldwide Christian church, to enjoy the rich diversity of God's creation, and to share their faith graciously with peoples of other languages and cultures. (p. 118)

How, then, do we "cultivate world Christians" in students studying abroad? What tools can we provide to help students grow towards greater intercultural competence? The literature suggests several critical components: the presence of a cultural mentor, who engages students in discussions about their experiences and provides feedback; providing students with cultural content for learning and reflection; guided reflection of experiences to help students make meaning of their intercultural experiences; engagement with the culture, followed by reflection with a cultural mentor; and intercultural learning throughout a cycle of before, during, and after the study abroad experience (Paige & Vande Berge, 2012). Do other potential factors exist for increasing intercultural competence that merit exploration?

The impetus for the present study was to explore what can be learned regarding the intersection of student goals for their study abroad experience and the development of intercultural competence. Might the goals of students studying abroad play a role in movement (growth) along the continuum from ethnocentrism to ethnorelativism? Do students' goals influence the development of intercultural competence (Kitsantas, 2004)?

Research Questions

The research sought to explore the relationship between student goals for their study abroad experience and the development of intercultural competence. Specifically,

1. What is the relationship or correlation between student goals as measured by the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) for their study abroad experience and change in intercultural competence as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) from pre- to post-semester?
2. What is the difference (if any) between first-semester freshmen and upperclassmen goals (SAGS) for study abroad and change in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI?

This study hopes to add an important element to the small body of literature addressing student goals for study abroad.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Goals, study abroad, and intercultural competence are the three primary foci of the study. Separately, each of these topics merits the reams of empirical research, data, and studies that have been and continue to be documented and published. Pinpointing the intersection between these three areas, however, is the real challenge—the goal, even—of the study. The study, in its entirety, was accomplished within the context of Christian higher education and there we commence. It is within this milieu we hope to realize and understand a relationship between student goals for study abroad and measurable growth in intercultural competence.

Christian higher education will be introduced, followed by a definition and explanation of study abroad. Next is a brief overview of goals (primary focus 1), including goal theory, then an examination of student goals that may apply to study abroad (primary focus 2). One particular study utilizing the Study Abroad Goals Scale will be reviewed as a model for evaluating goals as a tool for the development of intercultural competence (primary focus 3). Intercultural competence will be discussed by identifying a working definition and how it can be measured. Finally, the Intercultural Development Inventory, an instrument for measuring growth in intercultural competence and the instrument chosen for the purpose of the study, will be reviewed along with the theory behind the instrument's design.

Study Abroad

A Christian higher education context. Numerous Christian higher education institutions, including the institution at which the study was initiated, "are accredited, comprehensive colleges and universities whose missions are Christ-centered and rooted in the historic Christian faith" (CCCU, n.d.b, para. 1). The Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU) is an association of 180 faith-based schools world-wide that share a common ethos and mission. As a part of that mission, faith-based study abroad opportunities are available through the CCCU and/or delivered through the individual institutions to promote students' "intellectual, cultural, vocational, and spiritual growth . . . by providing culturally immersive learning experiences that equip students to apply their Christian faith to the world" (CCCU, n.d.b., para. 7). As previously stated, the research was developed from a faith-based study abroad program from one such CCCU university.

Definition. One definition of study abroad is "an activity offered within higher education in a myriad of shapes and sizes by the highly diverse group of higher education providers and support organizations that so uniquely enrich the U.S. educational landscape" (Wanner, 2009, p. 81). A goal of study abroad is for students to obtain knowledge of the country and culture in which they study. Equally important is to help students "learn to shift cultural perspective and to adapt their behavior to other cultural contexts," and to develop transferable skills that can be utilized throughout life to "interact more effectively and appropriately with others" (Vande Berg, Paige & Lou, 2012, p. 18). Most students do not acquire such skills on their own, but with focused and intentional intervention of an on-site mentor/educator, these skills can be fostered and

developed. The study abroad program from which the research for the study was acquired sought for participating students to take away from their experiential educational opportunity the following: an extensive knowledge of the country, a deep understanding of the culture, skills that might transfer to one's future vocation, a deepening of their faith, and measurable growth in intercultural competence.

Benefits and impact. Study abroad organizations such as NAFSA: Association of International Educators (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs), the CCCU BestSemester, the Council on International Educational Exchange (CIEE), and other study abroad organizations are dedicated to all facets of international education. Each organization exists because of a belief in the wide array of benefits of study abroad—from personal and spiritual growth to growth toward global mindedness to development of second language skills. Students who have studied abroad return to the home campus giving anecdotal lip-service to their "life-changing experience" and self-report benefits such as growth academically, personally, and in cross-cultural awareness. Real evidence does exist for the changes experienced and touted by the students who have had a study abroad opportunity (CIEE, n.d.; CCCU, n.d.a.; NAFSA, 2019).

Researchers have explored and documented a myriad of benefits of study abroad. The benefits and impact of study abroad experiences include, but are not limited to, the following: personal growth and development (Chickering & Braskamp, 2009; Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Jones, & Bond, 2000; Kauffmann & Kuh, 1984; Younes & Asay, 2003), educational/academic growth (Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005; Younes & Asay, 2003), and career opportunities (Bachner, Malone, & Snider, 2001; Curran, 2007; Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Gray, Murdock & Stebbins, 2002). Study abroad

can also increase foreign language development (Allen, 2010; Bachner et al., 2001; Engle & Engle, 2004; Gray et al., 2002; Jones, & Bond, 2000; Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005; Opper, Teichler & Carlson, 1990) and intercultural development/cross-cultural awareness/worldmindedness (Bachner et al., 2001; Bennett, J. M., 2009; Bennett, M. J., 2004; Douglas & Jones-Rikkers, 2001; Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Engle & Engle, 2004; Gray et al., 2002; Jones, & Bond, 2000; Kitsantas, 2004; Kitsantas & Meyers, 2002; Paige & Vande Berg, 2012).

First-semester freshman study abroad. Nearly half (44%) of the participants of the study abroad program referenced in the research were first-semester freshmen. While not the norm for most study abroad programs, there are benefits. "Younger students are open to new experiences; they are open to influence; their intellects and perspectives have not crystallized, and they are struggling and searching on many levels" (Bachner, et al., 2001, p. 135). There are some risks associated with freshmen study abroad—namely, maturity levels of underclassmen. However, a freshman study abroad experience affords students in less flexible majors the opportunity that might not prove feasible later (Athavaley, 2008). In addition, freshman students have much more time to integrate their study abroad experience into the entirety of their college curriculum, personal development, and potential careers (Bachner et al., 2001).

Goal Theory

As early as 1932, Tolman's writings on the theory of purposive behaviorism supported his idea of behavior as goal directed. According to Schunk (2012), results from studies on the behaviors of animals and humans led Tolman to conclude that behavior always moves towards or away from a goal—whether an object or situation.

Tolman, a behavioral psychologist, believed "learning is more than the strengthening of responses to stimuli, and he recommended a focus on *molar behavior* – a large sequence of goal-directed behavior" (Schunk, 2012, p. 138).

Locke and Latham (2002) emerged later as leading voices of goal-setting theory and, for over four decades, contributed extensively to the field of industrial-organizational psychology through their research. Based on Ryan's (1970) hypothesis that "conscious goals affect action," Locke and Latham (2002) defined a goal as "the object or aim of an action, for example, to attain a specific standard of proficiency, usually within a specified time limit"; their research "focused on the relationship between conscious performance goals and level of task performance rather than on discrete intentions to take specific actions" (p. 1).

Locke and Latham (2002) identified three influencers of goal performance: goal commitment, feedback, and task complexity. Goal commitment is determined by (1) the importance of goal attainment for the individual and by (2) self-efficacy. Goals may be assigned or set participatively and may still be considered important. Performance for goals that are assigned or set participatively will not lessen if a purpose and/or rationale is given for the goal. Self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977) also augments goal commitment (Locke & Latham, 2002) and "is strongly related to effort and task persistence" (p. 4). Those with higher self-efficacy "are likely to exert effort in the face of difficulty and persist at a task when they have the requisite skills" (Schunk, 2012, p. 161).

Secondly, feedback is critical for goal effectiveness; joined with goals, it can lead to more success of goal completion than goals alone (Locke & Latham, 2002). Feedback also promotes higher self-efficacy, motivation, and achievement (Schunk, 2012). Third,

task complexity refers to the ability to find and employ strategies for increasingly complex tasks that ultimately result in goal achievement (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Whereas goal-setting theory focuses on motivation, social-cognitive theory "contends that goals enhance learning and performance through their effects on perceptions of progress, self-efficacy, and self-evaluations" (Schunk, 2012, p. 151). Goal-setting theory and social cognitive theory converge in that "both acknowledge the importance of conscious goals and self-efficacy" (Locke & Latham, 2002, p. 10).

In summary, a goal "reflects one's purpose and refers to quantity, quality, or rate of performance," whereas goal-setting "involves establishing a standard or objective to serve as the aim of one's actions" and can be set by on one's own or by another" (Schunk, 2012, p. 151). Goals provide motivation to put forth the effort and persist for as long as it takes to accomplish a specific task.

> Goals also direct individuals' attention to relevant task features, behaviors to be performed, and potential outcomes, and can affect how they process information. Goals give people "tunnel vision" to focus on the tasks, select task-appropriate strategies, and decide on the effectiveness of their approach, all of which are likely to raise performance. (Schunk, 2012, p. 152)

Finally, self-set goals yield better results than assigned goals resulting in higher self-efficacy and skill accomplishment (Schunk, 2012).

Student Goals for Study Abroad

What can be gleaned from goal theory and applied to students' goals for study abroad? Four pertinent areas emerged: self-set and participatively set goals, feedback on goal progress, motivation towards goal progress, and self-evaluation of goal progress.

Self-set goals. Students permitted to self-set or participate in setting their goals gain greater self-efficacy (Schunk, 2012) and increased commitment to goal achievement (Locke & Latham, 2002). Performance is also enhanced for those who participate in setting goals in that higher goals are chosen, leading to a greater understanding of how to realize their goals (Locke & Latham, 2002).

Feedback on goal progress. Once goals are determined and stated, feedback on goal progress is essential in providing information regarding goal progress. Feedback increases self-efficacy, motivation, and achievement. Greater self-efficacy supports greater motivation and effort towards goal achievement, which in turn leads to new goal formation following the realization of current goals (Schunk, 2012). Early studies on feedback ("knowledge of results") and goals concluded that both goals and knowledge of results are essential for improving performance (Locke, Shaw, Saari & Latham, 1981, pp. 135–136). "Providing effort feedback for prior successes supports students' perception of their progress, sustains their motivation, and increases their efficacy for further learning" (Schunk, 2012, p. 410).

Motivation toward goal progress. Schunk (2012) defined motivation as "the process of instigating and sustaining goal-directed behavior" (p. 410). Feedback that affirms capability of goal achievement can provide motivation to work harder. Motivation towards goal progress is enhanced and prolonged by self-reaction, or believing satisfactory progress is being realized, which in turn enhances self-efficacy (Schunk, 2012).

Self-evaluation of goal progress. Simply stated, self-evaluation is honestly assessing one's progress toward goal accomplishment and evaluating—either positively

or negatively—the effectiveness of the current approach. Positive self-evaluation increases self-efficacy and motivation while low self-evaluation may help students realize a current approach towards a goal is ineffective. Students noting a less effective approach towards goal attainment adopt self-regulation practices such as "working harder, persisting longer, adopting what they believe is a better strategy, or seeking help from teachers and peers" to increase the likelihood of success (Schunk 2012, p. 425).

Schunk (2012) contended that students may not prioritize self-evaluation and may need prompting to self-evaluate goals by regularly assessing their goal progress. He recommended students compare their current performance with past performance, note the progress, and make the improvements or changes required. "Self-evaluation augments the effects of goals on performance when goals are informative of one's capabilities" (Schunk, 2012, p. 426).

Goals Studies for Study Abroad

Volumes of research on various topics related to study abroad are readily available. Studies abound on assessment of study abroad programs, orientation for study abroad, re-entry from study abroad, benefits and impacts of study abroad, development of cross-cultural skills, student expectations for study abroad, and more. However, the literature pool narrows substantially on the topic of student goals for study abroad, with some research emphasis on goals for increasing proficiency in a foreign language (Allen, 2010; Engle, & Engle, 2004).

Minimal research exists to support the notion of student goals as germane to the development of intercultural competence during study abroad. However, one significant goals study is highlighted and reviewed below.

> …teaching individuals to set goals and sub goals for the particular skill to learn, plan how to go about achieving these goals, self-monitor and evaluate their accomplishments based on their standards and then, change their performance accordingly will motivate them to participate in the activity, and encourage them to adhere to this type of behavior, long enough to achieve the desired outcomes. (Kitsantas, 2004, pp. 447–448)

Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS)

Kitsantas (2004) conducted an empirical study of the role of students' goals for expected outcomes of study abroad programs, particularly the development of students' global understanding and cross-cultural skills. Kitsantas (2004) studied students (N=232) enrolled in study abroad programs across five European countries. Constructed on the research of Opper and colleagues (1990), Kitsantas developed the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) (Appendix A) to evaluate student goals as a tool for the development of cross-cultural skills (A. Kitsantas, personal communication, December 12, 2010). The SAGS is a 13-question instrument utilizing a five-point rating scale ranging from 1 (Very Important) to 5 (Not at all Important).

> [Kitsantas'] study attempted to determine the extent to which students become cross-culturally competent as a result of participating in these programs (b) validate the Study Abroad Goals Scale; and (c) examine the role of goals on the development of students' cross-cultural skills and enrichment of global understanding. (Kitsantas, 2004, p. 443).

Kitsantas' (2004) research findings confirmed the ability of study abroad programs to promote students' cross-cultural skills and global understanding. "Most

importantly, however, students' goals to study abroad significantly predicted development of these skills" (Kitsantas, 2004, p. 448). Results of a factor analysis of the SAGS three subscales (cross-cultural competence subscale, subject interest and competence subscale, and the social gathering subscale) suggested that students' goals to develop cross-cultural competence was the most important predictor of cross-cultural skill development. Goals relating to the subject interest and competence subscale to a lesser degree also reported gains in cross-cultural skills and understanding while the social gathering subscale goals indicated no significant correlation in growth.

Intercultural Competence

Definition. Intercultural competence is "most often viewed as a set of cognitive, affective, and behavioral skills and characteristics that support effective and appropriate interaction in a variety of cultural contexts" (Bennett, J., 2009, p. 122). The concept of intercultural competence is inarguably "complex, ongoing, and varies among experts worldwide in the field of study abroad. Development of the components of intercultural competence is cultivated and not achieved serendipitously" (Maloney & Asbury, 2018, p. 68). Growth in intercultural competence is continuous over one's lifetime and varies widely across cultures. According to Crabb and Maloney (2016), intercultural competence includes various traits, qualities, and abilities, such as cultural empathy, curious humility, suspended judgement, patience with ambiguity, and cognitive complexity. If development of intercultural competence is one of the fundamental benefits of study abroad, then more research must be completed on the relationship between the development of intercultural competence and students' goals for their study abroad experience.

Measurement of intercultural competence. Self-reported measures of a student's study abroad experience may not be considered generalizable because they give an indication of how the individual student felt about their experience, learning, and personal gains; these reports are not empirical in nature (Paige & Vande Berge, 2012). A variety of instruments, however, have demonstrated validity, reliability, and generalizability. One such instrument that proved critical to the research is the Intercultural Development Inventory.

Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)

The Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI®), developed and owned by Mitchell R. Hammer, Ph.D., LLC, "is a 50-item cross-culturally generalizable, valid and reliable assessment in intercultural competence" (Hammer, 2012/2013, p. 26). The IDI is "well-reputed, widely used, easily administered, and independently evaluated. . . . As a theory-based test, the IDI meets the standard criteria for a valid and reliable psychometric instrument" (Engle & Engle, 2004, p. 229). Eliminating self-report, the IDI measures growth in intercultural competence by utilizing the Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC™).

The Intercultural Development Continuum conceptualizes a range of orientations of intercultural competence, which Hammer (2012/2013) defined as "the capability to shift cultural perspective and appropriately adapt behavior to cultural difference and commonalties" (p. 26). The continuum begins with the monocultural mindsets of Denial and Polarization, spans the transitional stage of Minimization, progresses towards an intercultural mindset of Acceptance, and finally concludes with Adaptation (see Table 1) (Maloney & Asbury, 2018).

Table 1

Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC™) Scale

Monocultural Mindset ⟶ Intercultural Mindset				
Denial [55-70*]	Polarization [71-85*]	Minimization [86-115*]	Acceptance [116-130*]	Adaptation [131-145*]
Little recognition of more complex cultural differences	Judgmental orientation; "us & them"	Highlights cultural commonalities that mask deeper recognition of cultural differences	Recognizes cultural commonality & difference in own & other cultures	Able to shift cultural perspective and adapt behavior to cultural context

*Indicates score range within each of the 5 orientations of the IDC

Higher student scores, as measured by the IDI and comparing pre- and post-study-abroad experience, "were predictive of important study abroad outcomes, including greater knowledge of the host culture, less intercultural anxiety when interacting with culturally diverse individuals, increased intercultural friendships, and higher satisfaction with one's study abroad experience" (Hammer, 2012/2013, p. 31).

Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS). The Intercultural Development Continuum (IDC) model emerged from the Developmental Model of Intercultural Sensitivity (DMIS) (Hammer, 2012). M. J. Bennett (2004) first put forth the DMIS and, by adopting a grounded theory approach, observed the change toward becoming more interculturally competent as moving from ethnocentrism, or avoiding cultural differences, to ethnorelativism, or seeking cultural differences. Ethnocentrism

includes the orientations of Denial, Defense and Minimization, while ethnorelativism includes Acceptance, Adaptation and Integration.

> Each orientation of the DMIS is indicative of a particular worldview structure, with certain kinds of cognition, affect, and behavior vis-à-vis cultural difference typically associated with each configuration. . . . The DMIS is not predominately a description of cognition, affect, or behavior. Rather it is a model of how the assumed underlying worldview moves from an ethnocentric to a more ethnorelative condition, thus generating greater intercultural sensitivity and the potential for more intercultural competence. (Bennett, M., 2004, p. 75)

Hammer (2012) revised several aspects of the DMIS to create the IDC. One important revision was to remove the Minimization orientation from the ethnocentric (monocultural) mindset and give it a transitional status on the continuum between ethnocentric (monocultural) and ethnorelative (intercultural) mindsets. Research by Hammer, Bennett, and Wiseman (2003) acknowledged the transitional nature of the Minimization orientation between the Denial/Defense and the Acceptance/Adaptation spectrum. An additional conclusion was support of the IDI as a reliable measure of the stages of the DMIS (Hammer et al., 2003).

Conclusion

Study abroad programs, offered within or outside of the context of Christian higher education, strive to provide students the opportunity to gain knowledge of another country and another culture; to help students learn to change perspective and adjust their behavior within another culture; and to develop life and vocational skills of more effective interaction. The benefits and impact of studying abroad prove numerous and

include the development of intercultural competence in students. First-semester freshmen can experience the same benefits of a study abroad semester as upperclassmen.

Goal theory aids in understanding goals as applied to study abroad. Self-set goals foster self-efficacy, commitment, and performance for goal realization. Goal feedback also increases self-efficacy, motivation, and achievement. Motivation towards goal progress also enhances self-efficacy. Positive self-evaluation of goal progress increases self-efficacy and motivation, while low leads to a change in approach to goal attainment.

Utilizing the Study Abroad Goals Scale, student goals for study abroad can predict the extent to which study abroad programs cultivate intercultural competence. The Intercultural Development Inventory is an excellent instrument for measuring change in students' intercultural competence from the beginning to the end of the study abroad experience.

The following two primary questions emerged from the research and were explored as a quantitative study:

1. What is the relationship or correlation between student goals as measured by the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) for their study abroad experience and change in intercultural competence as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) from pre-to-post semester?
2. What is the difference (if any) between first-semester freshmen and upperclassmen goals (SAGS) for study abroad and change in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI?

Chapter 3

Methodology

The primary purpose of the study was to examine the relationship between student goals as measured by the Study Aboard Goals Scale (SAGS) and the development of intercultural competence as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI). A quantitative approach using instrument-based questions guided the research.

Design

Archival data from university students (N = 78) who studied abroad over four semesters (between 2013-2015) was examined by utilizing a One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design (Creswell, 2003). The intent of the research was to discover if a relationship existed between student goals for study abroad and any change in the development of intercultural competence during the study abroad experience. This was accomplished by calculating the correlation between goal selection on the SAGS (the independent variable) and change on the IDI (the dependent variable) from pre- to post-semester. The archival data used lends itself well to the One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design, as statistics from the SAGS and IDI were gathered during each semester. At the beginning of each semester, students received a pretest (SAGS and IDI), followed by the treatment—that is, the study abroad experience over the course of a semester—and ended with a posttest (IDI) (Creswell, 2003).

Context and Participants

The university that hosted the study abroad program in the research is a faith-based institution of higher education located in the Midwest United States. As a member of the Council for Christian Colleges and Universities (CCCU), students from the host university as well as other CCCU schools across the country were invited to participate in the study abroad program. The program was developed and directed by a faculty member from the host university.

The location of the study abroad program was a western European country where the primary spoken and written language was English. The program used in the study was an island-type program where the U.S. student participants lived, studied, and travelled together throughout the semester abroad. An island program is "often thought of as a self-contained academic program" (Kehl & Morris, 2008, p. 68).

Each participant underwent an application, selection, and acceptance process prior to the start of their study abroad experience. Participants included first-semester freshmen, upperclassmen, female, male, host university students, and other CCCU students as shown in Tables 2, 3, and 4. With the exception of two, all participants were U.S. citizens; the majority of participants identified as Caucasian.

Table 2

Freshman Participants over Two Semesters Abroad

	n	Host School	Other CCCU Schools
Women	23	23	0
Men	11	11	0
Total	34	34	0

Table 3

Upperclassmen Participants over Two Semesters Abroad

	n	Host School	Other CCCU Schools
Women	38	29	9
Men	6	6	0
Total	44	35	9

Table 4

Combined Participants over Four Semesters Abroad

	n	Host School	Other CCCU Schools
Women	61	52	9
Men	17	17	0
Total	78	69	9

Procedures

Data was collected at the beginning and the end of each semester. The SAGS and the IDI pre-test were administered within the first week of the study abroad semester, and the IDI post-test was administered at the conclusion of the semester. Students were encouraged to complete the instruments, but it was not mandatory for successful completion of the semester abroad program.

Study Abroad Goals Scale. The SAGS, developed by Kitsantas (2004), is a 13-question, paper and pencil instrument. Responses to questions are given on a rating scale from 1 (Very Important) to 5 (Not at All Important) (see Appendix A). For the purposes of the study, the numbers were reversed on the scale (1=5, 2=4, 3=3, 4=2, and 5=1),

assigning greater importance to a higher number and vice versa. The subscales were converted to reflect a score range of 5 – 25 for ease of comparison. Additionally, Question 8, "Desire to use/improve a foreign language," was eliminated from the scale in the current study, as students were in a primarily English-speaking country during their study abroad experience.

The instrument has three subscales of questions:

- The Cross Cultural Competence (CC) subscale – five items.
- The Subject Interest and Competence (IC) subscale – four items on the original instrument; after eliminating Question 8 regarding language improvement, the subscale was reduced to three items.
- The Social Gathering (SG) subscale with four items.

Kitsantas' (2004) findings (as stated in Chapter 2) confirmed student goals for study abroad significantly predicted the development of cross-cultural skills and global understanding.

Intercultural Development Inventory. Developed by Hammer (2012), the IDI is a 50-item questionnaire formatted for online administration. "The IDI has been rigorously tested and has cross-cultural generalizability" (p. 117) and "the IDI possesses strong content and construct validity" (p. 118). A valid and reliable psychometric instrument, the IDI is used in many settings, including corporations, colleges and universities, non-profit organizations, government, and public schools. Reviews of the IDI have confirmed the instrument's validity, reliability and generalizability. Specifically, Paige (2004) stated that "the current 50-item versions possess sound internal consistency reliability" along with "strong evidence of the IDI's construct validity" (p.

99). Stuart (2009) concurred that "the IDI is supported by impressive reliability and validity studies and can be used with confidence in both the selection process and developmental planning . . ." (p. 182).

The IDI is a proprietary instrument and thus may not be publicly shared. Sample items for each of the developmental orientations: Denial, Polarization, Minimization, Acceptance, and Adaptation are shown in Appendix B. Two examples include:

- It is appropriate that people do not care what happens outside their country. (Denial)
- Our common humanity deserves more attention than culture difference. (Minimization)

Formal training is required to become an IDI Qualified Administrator (QA). Training is received by attending a three-day workshop that then qualifies one to administer the IDI, provide feedback to participants, and conduct research that includes the IDI. The research in the study was conducted by a QA.

It is important to note that the researcher was employed as director in residence by the host university during the four semesters included in the research. To address potential bias, all student participants self-selected the study abroad program, and no participants were chosen by the researcher.

Data Analysis

The data was analyzed through a correlation. The change score for each participant on their IDI was separately correlated with each of the three subscales on the SAGS to determine if a relationship exists between the two instruments. No previous research has been conducted to determine a correlation between the SAGS and the

change score from pre- to post-semester abroad on the IDI. Data was controlled through three separate correlations for each subscale on the SAGS: freshmen participants only, upperclassmen participants only, and total participants. The correlation coefficient results are reported.

Benefits

There are benefits to understanding the relationship between goals and growth in intercultural competence. First, Kitsantas (2004) pointed out that an understanding can lead to more effective pre-departure training to accomplish the following:

> (a) assist study abroad students establish goals [*sic*] for their international experience, which primarily include aspiration to learn more about the culture and people in the country in which they will study, (b) reinforce students' goals to become more cross-culturally sensitive and knowledgeable and (c) change students' social goals into goals which focus on gaining cross-cultural sensitivity and understanding. (p. 448)

Second, understanding goals can be a tool for on-site personnel to remind, assist, and encourage students throughout the semester to pursue goals leading to greater intercultural competence. Third, at the semester's conclusion during debriefing with guided reflection, a comprehensive understanding of student goals for study abroad may give sojourners a richer picture of what they truly accomplished during their time abroad.

Chapter 4

Results

Two research questions guided this quantitative study. The results are addressed in order by question. First, an analysis of the correlation between the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) and the Intercultural Competence Inventory (IDI) are presented for the combined, freshmen, and upperclassmen participants. Presented next are an analysis of the SAGS and the IDI, controlling for differences between year in school. Differences between year in school are defined as first-semester freshmen as compared to upperclassmen. Finally, results are presented from a secondary analysis looking at the change score from pre-to-post semester on the IDI.

Research Results

The results follow in order of the two research questions. Question one analysis results are provided for each of the three SAGS subscales and change on the IDI for combined, freshmen, and upperclassmen participants (Figures 1-9, Tables 5-7). Question two results compare the difference between freshmen and upperclassmen SAGS scores for each of the three subscales and change on the IDI (Table 8). The three SAGS subscales are Cross Cultural Competence, Subject Interest and Competence, and Social Gathering. Finally, secondary analysis results are given for the mean IDI change scores from pre- to post-semester for the three participant groups (Table 9).

Question one. What is the relationship or correlation between student goals as measured by the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) for their study abroad experience and change in intercultural competence as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) from pre-to-post semester?

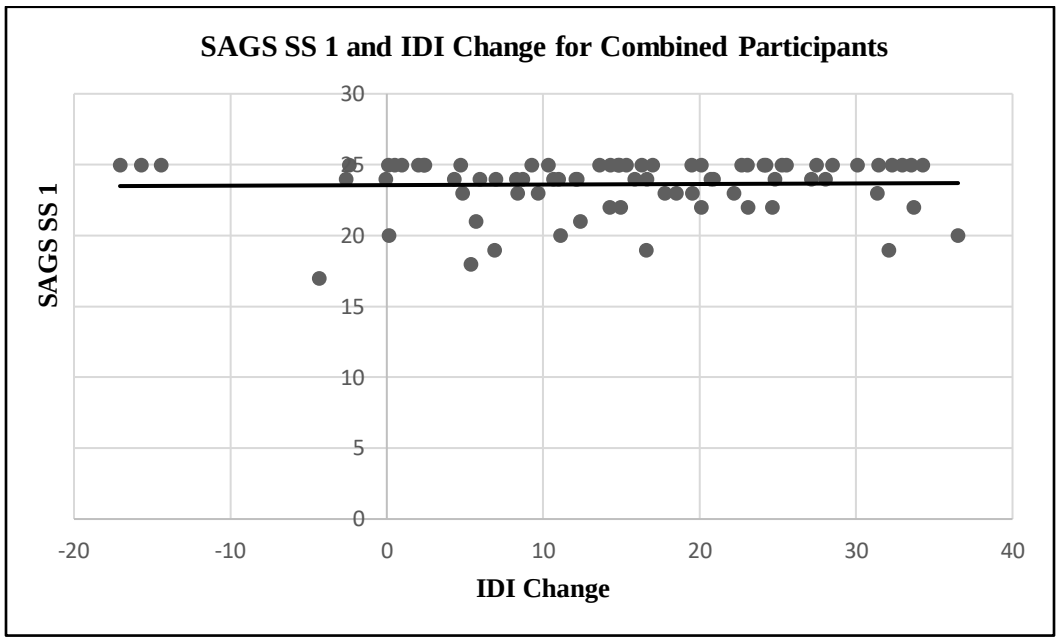

Figure 1. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale One and IDI Change for Combined Participants. The graph indicates no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that no relationship exists between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, for the combined participants (see Table 5).

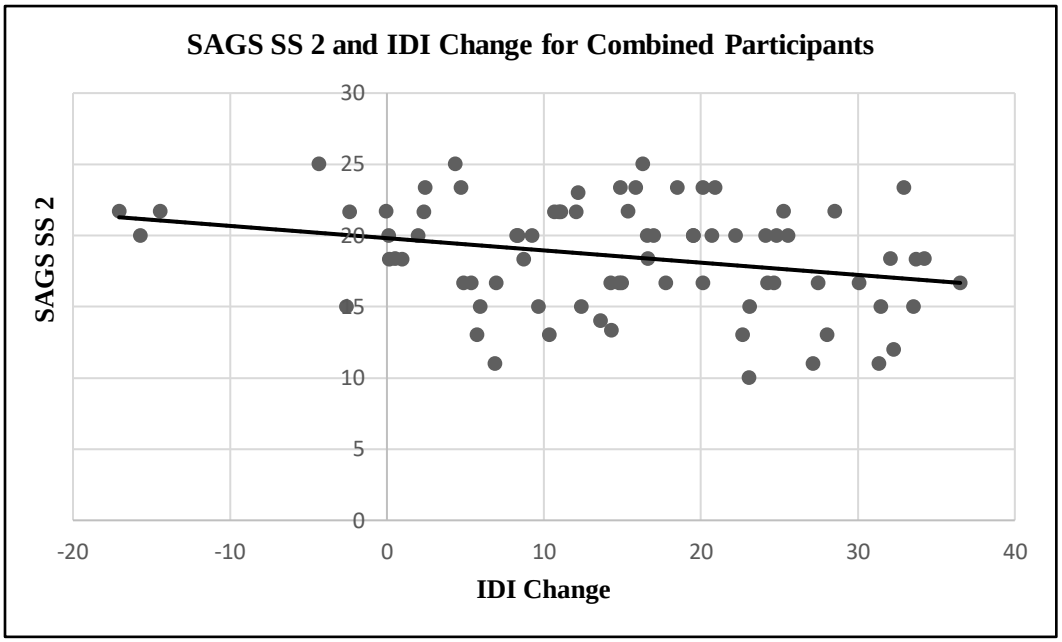

Figure 2. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale Two and IDI Change for Combined Participants. The slight downward slope of the line on the graph indicates a simple negative linear correlation between the variables (r = -.279; p < .05, two-tailed). The conclusion is that, as the change score on the IDI increases, the SAGS score for subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence, appears to slightly decrease for the combined participants (see Table 5).

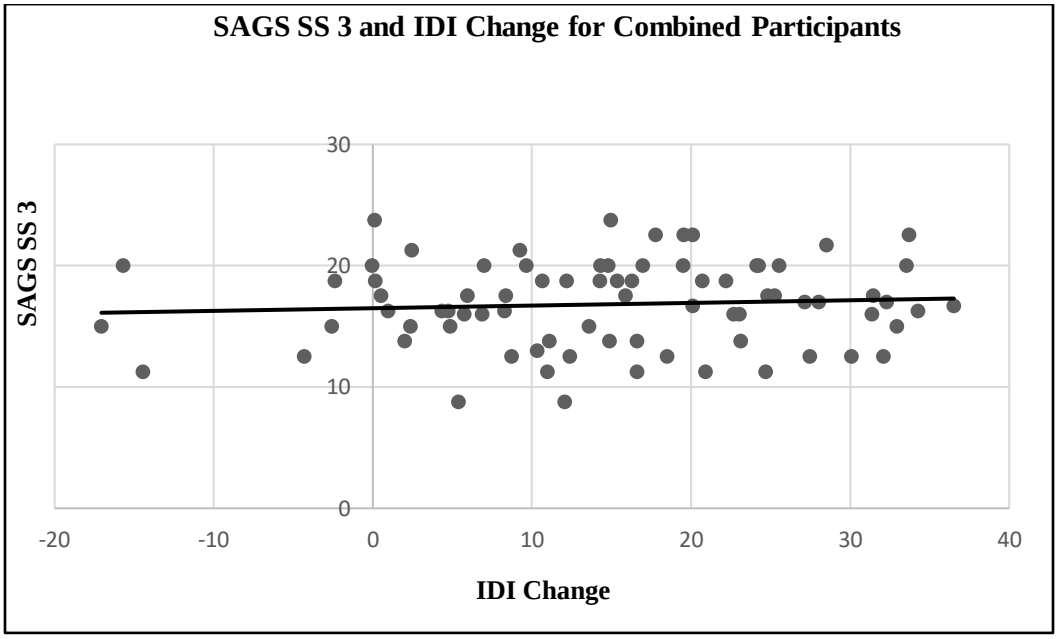

Figure 3. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale Three and IDI Change for Combined Participants. The graph indicates no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that no relationship exists between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale three, Social Gathering, for the combined participants (see Table 5).

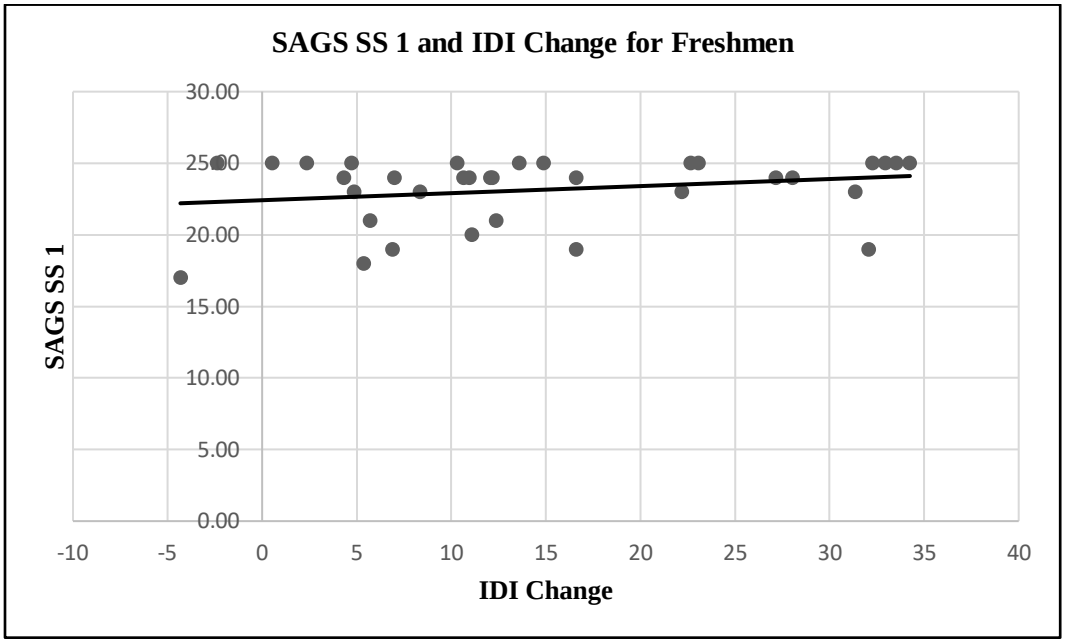

Figure 4. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale One and IDI Change for Freshmen Participants. The graph indicates no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that no relationship exists between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, for the freshmen participants (see Table 6).

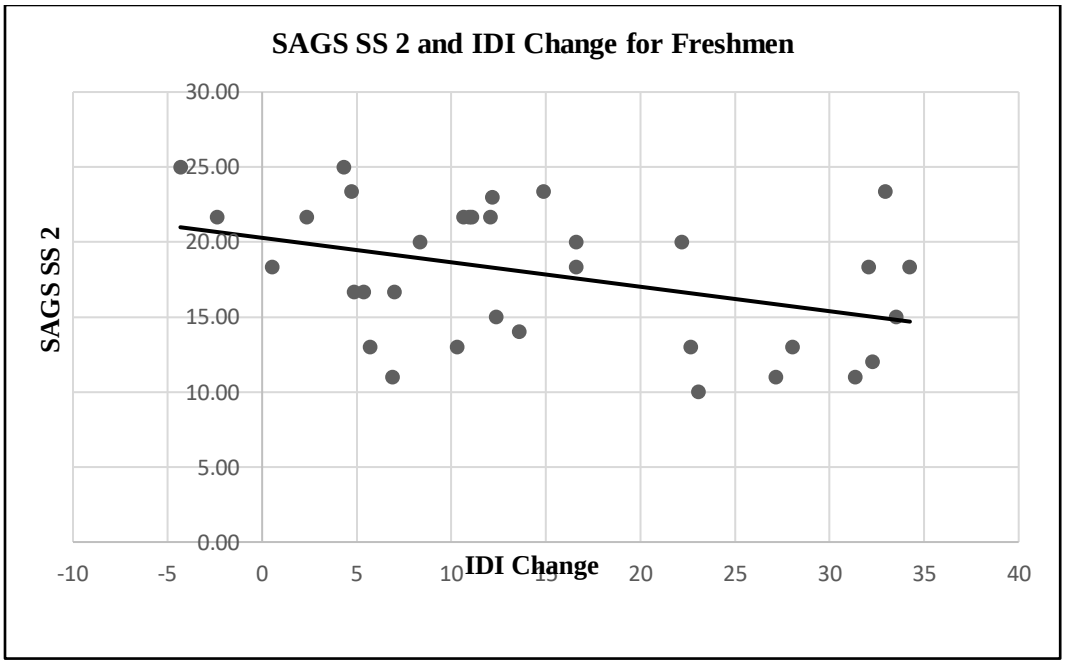

Figure 5. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale Two and IDI Change for Freshmen Participants. The slight downward slope of the line on the graph indicates a simple negative linear correlation between the variables (r = -.404; p < .05, two-tailed). The conclusion is that as the change score on the IDI increases, the SAGS score for subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence, appears to slightly decrease for the freshmen participants (see Table 6).

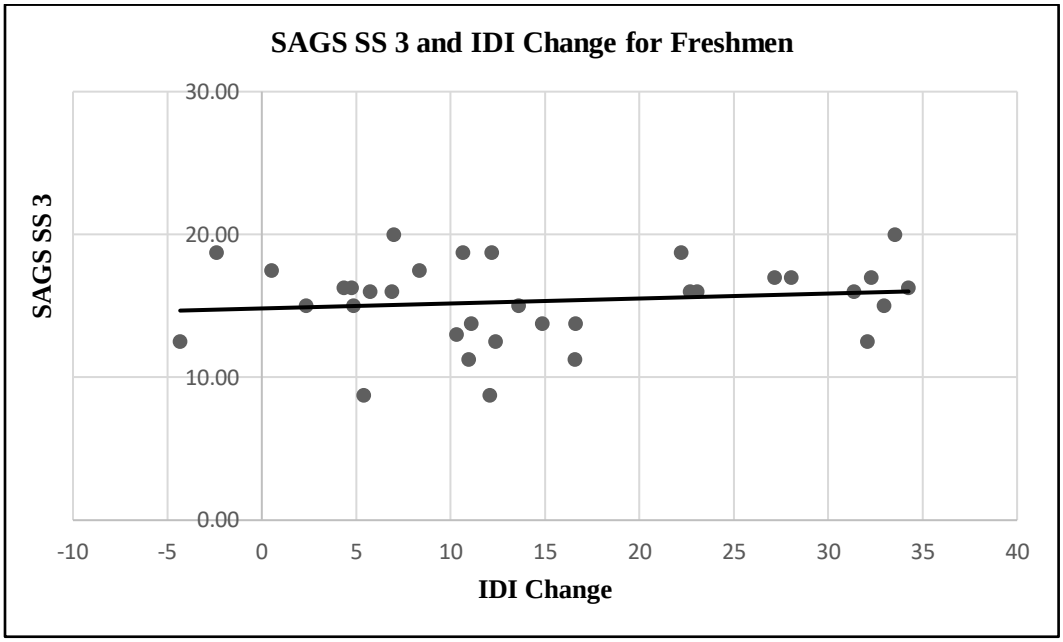

Figure 6. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale Three and IDI Change for Freshmen Participants. The graph indicates no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that no relationship exists between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale three, Social Gathering, for the freshmen participants (see Table 6).

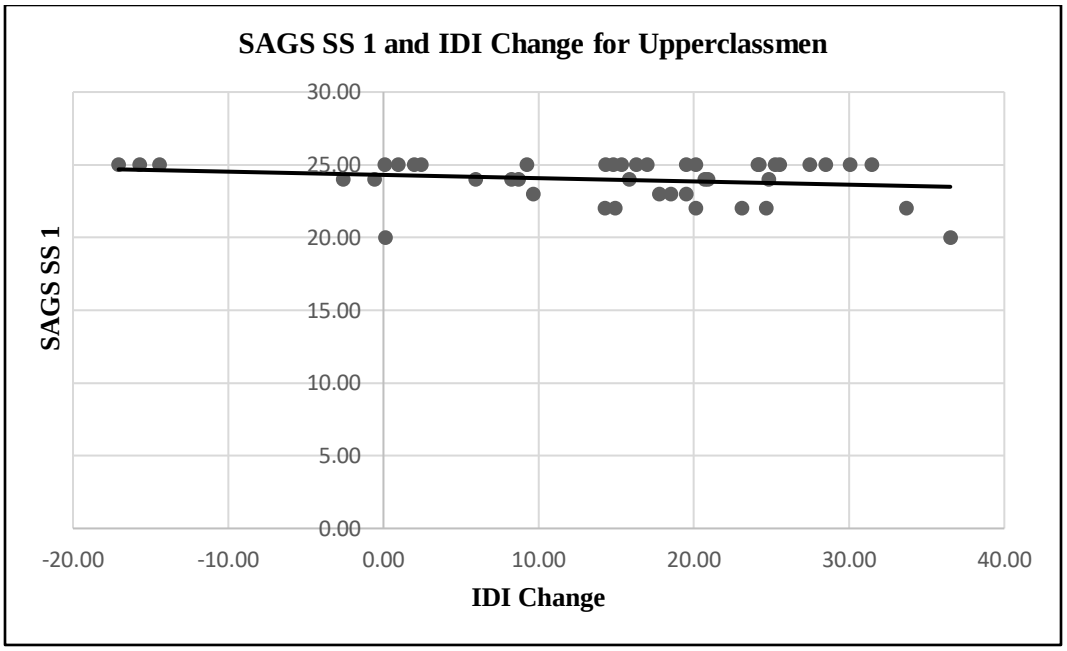

Figure 7. Scatter plot of SAGS Subscale One and IDI Change for Upperclassmen Participants. The graph indicates no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that no relationship exists between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, for the upperclassmen participants (see Table 7).

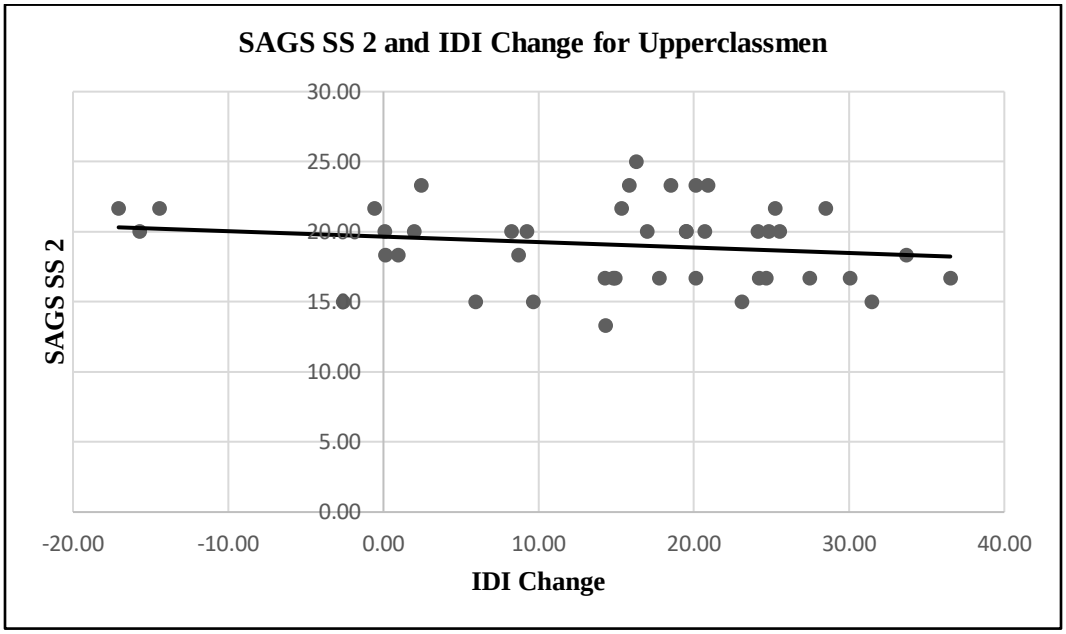

Figure 8. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale Two and IDI Change for Upperclassmen Participants. The graph indicates no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that no relationship exists between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence, for the upperclassmen participants (see Table 7).

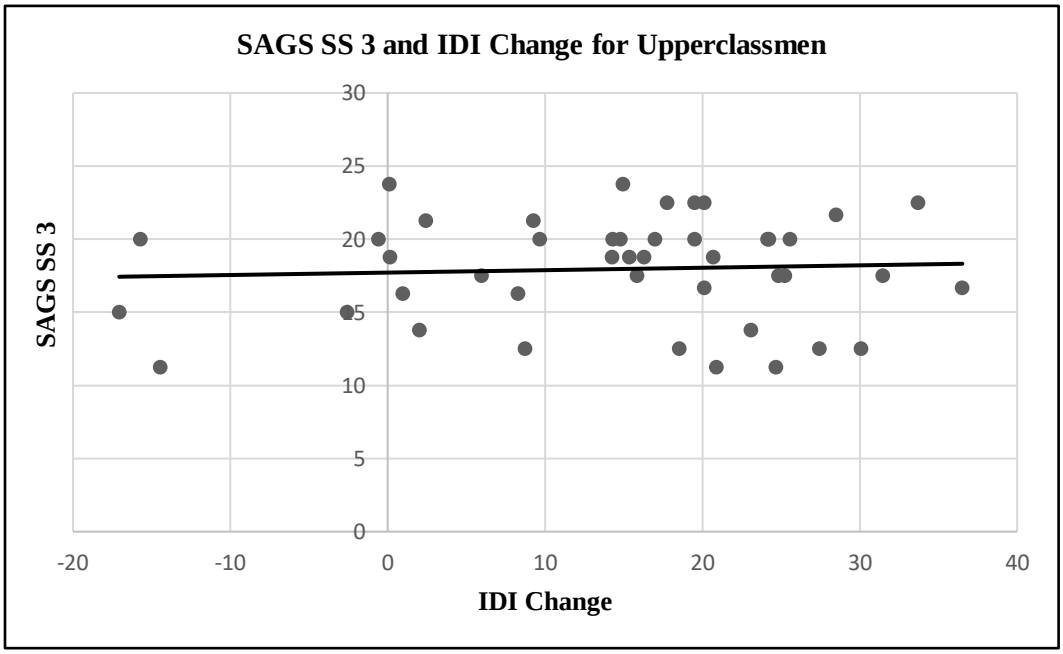

Figure 9. Scatter-plot of SAGS Subscale Three and IDI Change for Upperclassmen Participants. The graph indicates there is no correlation between the variables. The conclusion is that there is no relationship between the IDI change score and the SAGS score for subscale three, Social Gathering, for the upperclassmen participants (Table 7).

Table 5

Summary of Results for Combined Participants

Combined Group[a]	IDI Change Pearson *r*	Sig. (2-tailed)	*M*	*SD*
SAGS SS 1 Cross Cultural Competence	.025	.828	23.62	1.92
SAGS SS 2 Subject Interest & Competence	-.279*	.013	18.56	3.73
SAGS SS 3 Social Gathering	.075	.514	16.81	3.51

[a]n = 78
*$p < .05$ (two-tailed).

Table 6

Summary of Results for Freshmen Participants

Freshmen Group[b]	IDI Change Pearson *r*	Sig. (2-tailed)	*M*	*SD*
SAGS SS 1 Cross Cultural Competence	.234	.183	23.15	2.31
SAGS SS 2 Subject Interest & Competence	-.404*	.018	17.86	4.43
SAGS SS 3 Social Gathering	.137	.439	15.34	2.78

[b]n = 34
*$p < .05$ (two-tailed).

Table 7

Summary of Results for Upperclassmen Participants

Upperclassmen Group[c]	IDI Change Pearson *r*	Sig. (2-tailed)	*M*	*SD*
SAGS SS 1 Cross Cultural Competence	-.206	.179	23.98	1.37
SAGS SS 2 Subject Interest & Competence	-.174	.259	10.09	2.83
SAGS SS 3 Social Gathering	.059	.704	17.95	3.53

[c]n = 44

Question two. What is the difference (if any) between first-semester freshmen and upperclassmen goals on the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) for study abroad and change in intercultural competence from pre-to-post semester as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)?

The results of the overall comparison of first-semester freshmen to upperclassmen revealed a statistically significant difference on subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, and subscale three, Social Gathering, between freshmen and upperclassmen goals (SAGS) and change in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI. No difference appeared on subscale two (Table 8).

Table 8

Comparison of Freshmen to Upperclassmen

IDI Change with SAGS Subscales			
	SAGS subscale 1	SAGS subscale 2	SAGS subscale 3
t-test			
F vs U	1.812*	1.376	3.594**

*$p < .10$ (two-tailed *t*-test)
**$p<.001$

Secondary analysis. Additional results of a secondary analysis, while not included in the two original research questions, prove important to note. Significant change occurred in the mean scores from pre- to post-semester on the IDI (the dependent variable for this study) for all three participant groups (Table 9). The results indicate strong growth in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI over the study abroad experience.

Table 9

Change Score on the IDI from Pre- to Post-Semester

	N	Pre-IDI *M*	Post-IDI *M*	IDI Change *M*	*Significance 2-tailed t-test*
Freshmen	34	84.291	98.887	15.492	0.000*
Upperclassmen	44	83.469	97.935	14.466	0.000*
Combined	78	83.797	98.423	14.626	0.00*

*$p < .001$ (two-tailed *t*-test).

Conclusion

From the overall findings of this study, it is reasonable to state that student goals for study abroad, as measured by the SAGS, did not show a significant and positive correlation to change in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI. Two examples of a slight negative correlation emerged, both on SAGS subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence. The first example appeared in the combined participants group, and the second example emerged in the freshmen group. No other correlations of any significance appeared in the upperclassman group, SAGS subscale one, or SAGS subscale three.

A separate analysis of the comparison of IDI change and each of the three SAGS subscales between the freshmen and the upperclassmen revealed a statistically significant difference on subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, and subscale three, Social Gathering. No difference emerged on subscale two between the freshmen and upperclassmen. Finally, secondary results revealed significant positive mean growth in intercultural competence, as measured by the IDI, for all three participant groups.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Numerous studies have documented the benefits of study abroad for college and university students. Universities should maximize the impact that a semester spent in an international educational setting can have on students. These benefits include personal growth and development, academic growth, foreign language development, career opportunities, and intercultural development (see Chapter 2). The impetus for this study was to explore the intersection of student goals for their study abroad experience and the development of intercultural competence, one of the important benefits for students.

Except for research specific to student goals for increasing foreign language proficiency, little literature addresses student goals for increasing intercultural competence during study abroad. One important study that examined the role of students' goals for study abroad utilized the Study Abroad Goals Scale. The instrument and study were developed and conducted by Kitsantas (2004) to determine if goals might predict the development of students' global understanding and cross-cultural skills. More widely researched and studied is intercultural competence development. An array of instruments exists to measure change in intercultural competence. One well-known instrument is the Intercultural Development Inventory (Hammer, 2012/2013). The research in this study was conducted utilizing the Study Abroad Goals Scale and the Intercultural Development Inventory.

The findings of this study are discussed by summarizing the results for each research question and the secondary analysis. Next, implications for practice are addressed followed by implications for future research. Then, the limitations of this type of study are considered. Finally, remarks addressing the "so what now" question conclude this study of student study abroad goals and change in intercultural competence.

Summary of Findings

Question one. What is the relationship or correlation between student goals as measured by the Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS) for their study abroad experience and change in intercultural competence as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) from pre-to-post semester? The study analyzed the relationship between the IDI change score and the three SAGS subscales for each group of participants.

Results for the combined participants revealed a slight negative correlation on subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence. An unexpected inverse relationship indicated that, when the goals score on SAGS subscale two increased, the IDI scores decreased (Figure 2). No relationships appeared within SAGS subscale one or subscale three and the IDI for the combined participants (Table 5).

Results for freshmen participants also revealed a slight negative correlation on subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence. Again, an unexpected inverse relationship indicated that, when the goals score on SAGS subscale two increased, the IDI scores decreased (Figure 5). No relationships emerged within SAGS subscale one or subscale three and the IDI for the freshmen participants (Table 6). Finally, results for the upperclassmen participants revealed no correlations on any of the SAGS subscales and

the IDI (Table 7). It is unknown why the correlations were negative or why correlations only appeared on subscale two.

Question two. What is the difference (if any) between first-semester freshmen and upperclassmen goals (SAGS) for study abroad and change in intercultural competence from pre-to-post semester as measured by the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI)? The data was used to analyze separately the relationship of each of the three SAGS subscales and the IDI.

An analysis of the overall comparison of freshmen to upperclassmen resulted in a statistically significant difference between the freshmen and upperclassmen SAGS scores on subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, and subscale three, Social Gathering, and the change score on the IDI (Table 8). No differences appeared for subscale two. It is unknown why no significant difference emerged for subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence.

Secondary analysis. Noteworthy is the significance ($p < 0.001$) of the change score on the Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) from pre- to post-semester for all three participant groups: freshmen, upperclassmen, and combined. The mean growth (positive change) in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI from pre- to post-semester for the participant groups was significant (Table 9). While this was a secondary analysis, it is reasonable to conclude from the significant growth that the strategies utilized throughout the semester, which included the SAGS, may have contributed to student growth.

Discussion of findings. The present study relied upon the 2004 study by Kitsantas as a model. One purpose of Kitsantas' (2004) study was to "examine the role

of goals on the development of students' cross-cultural skills and enrichment of global understanding" (p. 443). This was accomplished by utilizing pretest measures: Personal Data Questionnaire, Study Abroad Goals Scale, and the Cross-Intercultural Adaptability Inventory (Kelley & Meyers, 1995). Kitsantas' posttest measures were the Cross-Intercultural Adaptability Inventory and the Global Perspective Survey (Hanvey, 1982). Her findings supported the hypothesis "that students' goals to study abroad would predict their cross-cultural skills" (Kitsantas, 2004, p. 447), with subscale one, Cross Cultural Competence, as the most significant predictive goal for growth in cross-cultural skills. The present study utilized the Study Abroad Goals Scale (pre-semester) and the Intercultural Development Inventory (pre- and post-semester) in hopes of similar findings, but actual results proved less conclusive than those of Kitsantas (2004).

Given the significant growth in intercultural competence in each of the participant groups, it is worthwhile to ponder why the 2004 study by Kitsantas discovered a stronger correlation than the present study between goals and growth in the development of cross-cultural skills. The results of this study, while minimal, are still results. Many unknowns remain to discover regarding the relationship of student goals and student growth during a semester of study abroad.

Implications for Practice

It is not unreasonable to suggest, even from this research, that student goals for study abroad can serve as a factor for change in intercultural competence. When analyzing the difference of goals on the SAGS and change on the IDI between freshmen and upperclassman, the results showed a statistically significant difference on subscale one and subscale three. These results most closely align with those of Kitsantas. Overall,

it is important to remember that "goals also direct individuals' attention to relevant task features, behaviors to be performed, and potential outcomes, and can affect how they process information" (Schunk, 2012, p. 152). Helping students process information in and about a new culture is important, regardless of whether or not goals make a significant impact on growth in intercultural competence.

An overarching implication for all professionals involved with students who study abroad during college is that the praxis of setting goals—whether individual or participatory—helps to create a framework for the student throughout the entire study abroad cycle. This implication should be approached in several ways by on-site personnel and cultural mentors.

First, on-site personnel need to learn and understand each student's goals and assist students in accomplishing their goals through self-evaluation. Students may not prioritize self-evaluation on goal progress, and cultural mentors can help by encouraging regular assessment of goal progress, which then increases motivation (Schunk, 2012). Schunk (2012) recommended that students compare their current performance with past performance, note the progress, and make the necessary changes or improvements. Regular self-evaluation of goals can also help students better prioritize their goals and focus on more meaningful goals while eliminating less meaningful ones.

Second, students should be encouraged to view the entire goal-setting process as a transferrable skill for future cross-cultural experiences at home and abroad, in the dorm and in the workplace, and as a life-long skill. Wherever the location, it is critical to help students "learn to shift cultural perspective and to adapt their behavior to other cultural

contexts—knowledge that will allow them to interact more effectively and appropriately with others throughout their lives" (Vande Berg et al., 2012, p. 18).

Third, the concept of student goals for study abroad ought to be introduced during pre-departure preparation to allow adequate time for thought and discussion. Students should have designated time in the schedule to reflect on their specific goals regularly throughout the entire study abroad experience. Students should be challenged to evaluate their goal progress during this time. Finally, through guided reflection, students should have the opportunity to debrief their goal progress at the conclusion of their study abroad experience and again during a post-trip reflection time.

Implications for Future Research

Many exciting opportunities for future research emerge from probing deeper questions. Currently, the literature reflects a small number of studies on student goals for study abroad and growth in intercultural competence. Future research on this topic could proceed in multiple directions. First, additional data analyses stemming from the current study could provide more insight. Such further research might include, but is not limited to, analyzing the correlation between the Study Abroad Goals (SAGS) subscales one and two and between subscales one and three for each of the participant groups. Second, a mixed methods study, in conjunction with the current study, would add another level of understanding by considering students' self-set goals along with their SAGS goals and the change in their intercultural competence as measured by the IDI. Another future research possibility might be to refine the Study Abroad Goals Scale (with permission) into a more precise instrument that might deliver more variability in the student responses.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is the small sample size. A larger sample size may have contributed to more variability on the SAGS. Second is the one-location study abroad setting as opposed to a study of multiple locations. Third, the scope of the data is limited, as it is obtained from a small, faith-based, private institution of higher education only. No other types of institutions were included. Another limitation is the SAGS instrument itself, about which Kitsantas (2004) stated, "More research is needed to establish the psychometric properties of the SAGS" (p. 448).

Conclusions

The SAGS is a beneficial tool for students preparing to study abroad in helping to identify and articulate goals for their study abroad experience. Cultural mentors and on-site staff may also find the SAGS helpful to understand their students' goals for studying abroad, to assist students with self-evaluation of goals, and to provide feedback. The present study was the first to explore the relationship between student goals as measured by the SAGS and growth in intercultural competence as measured by the IDI. It is important to continue exploring the relationship between goals and growth in intercultural competence.

Guided by two research questions, the primary purpose of this study was to determine if a relationship existed between student goals for their study abroad experience and the development of intercultural competence. This study confirms the existence of several relationships. First, simple negative correlations were discovered for SAGS subscale two, Subject Interest and Competence—for the combined participants as well as for the freshmen participants—and change on the IDI. Second, the study shows a

statistically significant difference between the freshmen and the upperclassmen participants on SAGS subscales one, Cross Cultural Competence. The study shows the same statistically significant difference between the freshmen and the upperclassmen participants on subscale three, Social Gathering. Third, the mean IDI scores from pre- to post-semester for the freshmen, upperclassmen, and combined participant groups demonstrated significant positive growth in intercultural competence. The significant positive growth can be attributed to a variety of pedagogies used throughout the semester abroad to promote students' intercultural competence development regardless of the correlations found between the SAGS and change as measured by the IDI.

For participants in the community of faith-based educators, the goal—even mandate—is to teach students to love God and love others. Those delivering and executing study abroad services are obligated to "cultivate world Christians" (Montgomery & Docter, 2010, p. 117) by teaching students how to love others through learning about others. Learning then increases understanding. An increase in understanding translates to greater intercultural competency. Greater intercultural competency can promote a genuine love for others.

This study was inspired by faith-based study abroad educators who have devoted their careers to helping students realize growth in intercultural competency. May this study in some way add to the research of those who, as previously quoted, "hope to form a generation of Christian believers whose faith exerts a major influence on their posture vis-à-vis the wider world, and whose global awareness and broadened perspectives will leaven their self-understanding as followers of Christ" (Morgan, 2010b, p. 234).

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Appendix A

The Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS)

The Study Abroad Goals Scale (SAGS)

Student Name: _____

Please fill in the response that most accurately reflects the importance of each reason listed in your decision to study abroad.

Not at All Important
Unimportant
Neutral
Important
Very Important

1. Desire to learn more about the subject areas covered in the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
2. Desire to possess personal strength in the subjects covered in the program	1	2	3	4	5
3. Desire to live in and make acquaintances from the host country of the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
4. Desire to enhance my understanding of the host country of the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
5. Desire to improve career prospects	1	2	3	4	5
6. Desire to interact with local people and learn more about the customs and traditions of the host country of the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
7. Desire to gain insight into the culture of the host country of the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
8. Desire to use/improve a foreign language	1	2	3	4	5
9. Desire to establish ties with family/ethnic heritage	1	2	3	4	5
10. Desire to be with other friends that were participating in the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
11. Desire to attend the study abroad program because it was recommended by previous participants	1	2	3	4	5
12. Desire to travel to countries near the host country of the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5
13. Desire to develop my own perspective of the host country of the study abroad program	1	2	3	4	5

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Appendix B

IDI® Assessment Sample Items

IDI® Assessment

Sample Items

This document provides various sample items available to detail the type of questions listed in the IDI Assessment.

Sometimes, you (an IDI Qualified Administrator) may be asked to allow someone who is not a QA to view the questions in the IDI Assessment. Because the IDI Assessment is a proprietary instrument, these items are not viewable by others. However, IDI, LLC has compiled example items for each of the Intercultural Development Orientations measured. This way, you and others can gain a good sense of the type of questions asked in the IDI.

Denial

- It is appropriate that people do not care what happens outside their country.
- People should avoid individuals from other cultures who behave differently.

Polarization - Defense

- Our culture's way of life should be a model for the rest of the world.

Polarization - Reversal

- People from our culture are less tolerant compare to people from other cultures.
- Family values are stronger in other cultures than in our cultures.

Minimization

- Our common humanity deserves more attention than culture difference.
- Human behavior worldwide should be governed by natural and universal ideas of right and wrong.

Acceptance

- I have observed many instances of misunderstanding due to cultural differences in gesturing or eye contact.
- I evaluate situations in my own culture based on my experiences and knowledge of other cultures.

Adaptation

- When I come in contact with people from a different culture, I find I change my behavior to adapt to theirs.