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Contextualizing the Impact of Faculty-Led Short-Term Study Abroad on Students' Global Competence: Characteristics of Effective Programs

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Abstract

Short-term faculty-led study abroad programs are high-impact pedagogical practices designed to enhance students' global competency. However, there is a gap in our understanding regarding the specific educational components of short-term faculty-led study abroad programs that promote global competency. This systematic review examined nearly two decades of research on such programs (n=86) to assess the educational components associated with increases in students' global competencies using Steinberg's (2017) educational components as a framework. Results indicated that the educational components included in global competency-building education abroad courses varied substantially across programs and global regions. The components most strongly supporting enhanced global competency were pre/post program sessions and meeting with experts in the host country. Overall, the study findings offer educators and administrators insights into best practices for designing, implementing, and evaluating short-term study abroad courses designed to enhance global competence among undergraduate and graduate students.

Keywords: Global competence, education, short-term study abroad, systematic Review

Introduction

Higher education institutions in the United States are increasingly expected to demonstrate innovative pedagogical approaches to enhance students' global competence and prepare graduates to succeed in a complex and globally interconnected world (Hunter, 2004; Jansa & Anderson, 2021; Strange & Gibson, 2017). Building global competence involves preparing students to interact with and open themselves to other cultures and build the relationship capital that makes global relationships possible (Hunter et al., 2006). Institutional focus on students' global competence and the development of "global selves" is key for achieving campus internationalization efforts (Jansa & Anderson, 2021) as well as meeting employers' needs for globally competent workers (Battelle for Kids, n.d; Farrugia & Sanger, 2017; Trilling & Fadel, 2009).

As a high-impact pedagogical practice (Kuh, 2008), study abroad courses have consistently been a popular strategy for institutions to both build global competency among students and address broader internationalization goals. Educators have long held that education abroad experiences can provide the stimulation, challenges, and opportunities required for substantive and meaningful interpersonal and intercultural learning to occur (Bell et al., 2021; Vogt, 1976). In fact, a recent systematic review examining the impact of short-term, faculty-led study abroad experiences found that overall, these programs improve global competence in undergraduate and graduate students.

Yet, despite their widespread use across U.S. higher education institutions in recent decades, key gaps remain in our understanding of short-term study abroad program impacts. Consensus does not exist regarding which educational components yield the greatest benefits for student learning. Although short-term experiences of eight weeks or less in duration now represent 65% of all U.S. students studying abroad (Institute of International Education, 2020), these programs have been under-evaluated compared to their traditional semester or year-long counterparts. While the range of elements constituting any single international program makes it difficult to generalize about program types (Engle & Engle, 2003), a better understanding of the components that produce the greatest impact on student growth is needed (Chieffo & Griffiths, 2004).

Many institutions are reevaluating international initiatives and mechanisms for achieving global competence for students in response to the COVID-19 pandemic's unprecedented disruptions to education abroad and widespread decreases in enrollment and revenue (Fischer, 2021; Jansa & Anderson, 2021). Reevaluation presents a prime opportunity to examine the impact of short-term study abroad more closely to clarify which elements make programs successful. To inform these discussions, we conducted a systematic review of faculty-led short-term education abroad programs that enhanced global competence among student participants to identify key components of successful programs.

This paper reviews the literature on the educational components of short-term study abroad programs. Next, we report the results of our systematic review identifying which educational components were included among short-term education abroad programs that were predictive of improved global competence. Finally, we discuss

the patterns that emerged from the review and offer recommendations for global educators seeking to provide impactful short-term study abroad programs to enhance undergraduate and graduate students' global competence.

Educational Components of Short-Term Study Abroad Programs

The research literature on short-term study abroad has focused almost entirely on the academic outcomes (Pedersen, 2010), the satisfaction of student participants (Engle & Engle, 2003; McLeod & Wainright, 2009), and the motivation of students (Barbuto et al., 2015). While programs have traditionally been categorized into broad types (e.g., "faculty led," "island," or "experiential"), the specific educational components of the courses themselves have received less attention (Vande Berg et al., 2015). In fact, Vande Berg and colleagues (2015) argued that although the vast majority of research on study abroad has operated as if the distinctions between the elements of one course and another were irrelevant, different course components will undoubtedly yield differences in student learning.

Although no uniform guideline or "gold standard" exists regarding which educational elements of short-term study abroad programs yield the greatest benefits for students, the literature points to potentially impactful course components. For example, Kang (2018) highlighted the importance of applied educational practices, such as involving expert panels, discussions, reflections, and cultural inquisition. Others have emphasized transformative learning practices which promote learning in contexts and locations through unconditional regard, inclusivity, student reflection, and emotional change (Kumi-Yeboah & James, 2012). Educational components grounded in reflective pedagogy are recommended to help study abroad students expand their worldviews to incorporate newly learned or experienced schema (King, 2004) and use these shifts in perspective to gain a deeper understanding of what it means to be a global citizen (Stoner et al., 2014). Finally, the literature focused on study abroad as a high-impact practice has emphasized the importance of educational components that offer students opportunities to apply theory to practice, discuss ideas with experts in the field, and analyze ideas through experience (e.g., Kilgo et al., 2015).

Engle and Engle (2003) developed a formal system to classify education abroad programs with five levels reflecting an increasing degree of cultural immersion that

could promote the development of students' cross-cultural competence. A key limitation of this classification system is its use of travel abroad duration as a primary determinant of meaningful cultural engagement and exchange, suggesting that meaningful cultural interaction or experiential learning are not possible when students are abroad for less than one full semester. Nevertheless, the system suggested several components of strong education abroad programs, including homestays or other collective housing while abroad, required participation in cultural integration activities such as service learning or internships, curricular and extracurricular activities conducted in the host country's language, and orientation and other guided reflection opportunities before, during, and after travel (Engle & Engle, 2003).

Steinberg (2017), drawing on 40 years of experience in education abroad, identified seven components of short-term study abroad experiences that provide the greatest impact on student learning. While these educational elements are not novel, Steinberg's work provides a useful organizational framework from which to explore the components utilized in short-term study abroad courses and explore the extent to which each contributes to the development of global competence for participating students. These seven educational elements are presented below, alongside supporting literature, and were used as the conceptual framework for our analysis.

Study abroad experiences embedded in a home university course. To enhance students' experiences abroad and maximize learning outcomes, short-term study abroad programs should include educational content delivered before, during, and after travel abroad (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012). Embedding the short-term study abroad experience within a broader course based at a student's home university is one way to accomplish this, offering opportunities to both prepare students for the experience abroad and assist them in processing the experience after they return. Pre-trip sessions can be particularly important (Deardorff, 2011) as they can be used to deliver country-specific subject matter, explore theoretical perspectives to help students frame the upcoming experience, and provide students with opportunities to examine and communicate their changing perspectives and personal growth and understand their own positions more clearly. Post-travel educational sessions afford the opportunity for debriefing and re-entry discussions with students to help process the experience abroad and new perspectives gained,

as well as present powerful opportunities for intercultural training (Behrnd & Porzelt, 2012).

Service-learning projects abroad. Pairing short-term study abroad with service-learning projects driven by local partners in the host country is a key strategy for achieving deeper, equitable engagement with communities abroad while expanding students' understanding of global issues (Fisher & Grettenberger, 2015). Experiential education that directly involves host country partners can offer critical learning experiences needed for the development of global citizenship, such as students working outside their comfort zone, reflecting on their own place in the world, and questioning their unintended participation in promoting the status quo (Wade et al., 2001). While these projects can take on many different forms ranging from concrete experiences to reflective observation to active experimentation (Strange & Gibson, 2017), when paired with study abroad, the result can be a significant impact on students' ability to understand globally complex problems (Kiely, 2004) and help them to achieve a broader worldview (Tarrant, 2010). Importantly, service-learning and other experiential learning projects abroad can facilitate students' understanding of human difference and commonality, help them to identify structures of injustice and inequality, and learn how to address social justice issues from the perspective of international partners (Fisher & Grettenberger, 2015; Jacoby, 2015).

Homestay or other significant interaction with locals. Short-term study abroad programs can be strengthened by incorporating opportunities for meaningful interaction between students and citizens in the host country abroad (Fisher & Grettenberger, 2015). In fact, focused and reflective interactions with the host culture that provide opportunities to develop a deep commitment to community stakeholders can be among the most valuable components of a study abroad experience (Engle & Engle, 2003). Homestays are a popular strategy for achieving this goal, providing a vehicle through which students can learn about the lives of their hosts and share their experiences with classmates (Steinberg, 2017). Cultural encounters abroad that are structured and authentic, whether in the form of homestays or other intensive community-engaged activities, can enhance and build on classroom learning and afford students an opportunity to apply that learning in real life and in accordance with local cultural norms (Engle & Engle, 2003). Research suggests that more time spent with host families or host country nationals

and less time spent with American nationals while abroad is associated with gains in intercultural sensitivity for U.S. students (Vande Berg et al., 2009). These interactions offer subjective cultural learning that emphasizes that assumptions, values, and patterns of thinking and behaving are learned, shared, and maintained by groups of interacting people (Engle & Engle, 2003).

Meetings with experts in the host country. Short-term programs can take advantage of visits to local institutions and meeting with industry experts or elected officials. Visits to companies abroad and discussions with industry experts can create networking opportunities for students and provide a "behind the curtain" view of organizations students would not normally have access to. These experiences, as well as meetings with public officials, provide students with opportunities to apply classroom content to real-world experiences and can support the development of professional competencies such as analytical problem solving, planning, organizing, communication, teamwork, and global understanding (Mezirow, 1997). Moreover, interacting with political structures and organizations abroad can help students build new frames of reference that center on cultural pluralism rather than ethnocentrism. These interactions promote a perspective transformation that enables students to become more inclusive, as well as critically reflective and integrative of their experiences (Berwick & Whalley, 2000).

Interaction with student peers abroad. Education abroad influences students' attitudes and interpersonal communication as well as exposes them to rapidly changing situations that require flexibility and adaptability (Strange & Gibson, 2017). Intentional educational interactions between study abroad students and students in the host country can be a vital tool for facilitating cross-cultural learning that includes opportunities for students to navigate uncomfortable situations such as language barriers and gain insight into these peers' lives and cultures. Such cross-cultural interactions with peers help students learn to adapt and work through the discomfort to grow beyond the psychological parameters of their own culture and develop a more complex view of themselves and the world around them (Engle & Engle, 2003).

Programs that involve a research project abroad. Engaging students in research projects can provide a high-impact learning tool (Ruth et al., 2019) that facilitates unique student interactions with local people, institutions, and the physical and built

environment in a relatively short period (Steinberg, 2017). Research suggests that when included as part of a short-term study abroad experience, research project participation improves undergraduate students' academic performance, interest in academic study, basic research skills, and interest in pursuing graduate school (Ruth et al., 2019). Global competence-related gains include an expanded worldview, greater understanding of community, increased self-confidence, and heightened interpersonal and intercultural communication (Ruth et al., 2019). Particularly relevant for short-term study abroad courses, student research projects abroad can foster deeper engagement with the host community and build enduring connections to cultural contexts in the host country that continue long after the research is complete (Barkin, 2016).

Co-teaching by host country faculty. Incorporating team teaching with host country faculty members into a short-term study abroad course can provide an entrée into local perspectives and cultures for students and faculty alike. In addition to delivering course content, host country faculty may serve as cultural mentors and contribute to intercultural pedagogy, both of which have been identified as important components of intercultural learning and the development of global competencies (Pedersen, 2010; Vande Berg et al., 2009). When placed in unfamiliar social and cultural situations abroad, students are prompted to reassess values and beliefs in the face of new experiences and understandings (McKeown, 2009). Having local host country faculty in a co-teaching role can provide an important resource to help guide students through the process toward an expanded worldview. The current study aimed to address the knowledge gaps in our understanding of short-term study abroad program impacts by synthesizing research on such programs, their educational components, and their impact on students' global competence. This paper explores specific course elements and patterns of utilization across study abroad courses that reported global competence gains for students.

Methods

This systematic review identified and synthesized evidence on participants and educational components of faculty-led short-term study abroad courses that improved students' global competence. Our process and reporting followed guidelines established in the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and

Meta-Analyses (PRISMA; Moher et al., 2009) and PRISMA-S extension for search reporting (Rethlefsen et al., 2019).

Systematic Search Strategy

We developed comprehensive search strategies to retrieve English-language empirical studies reporting global competence outcomes of faculty-led short-term study abroad. Database searches were performed via EBSCOHost on June 30, 2020, in two databases selected for their coverage of the literature relating to higher education: ERIC and Education Source. A Scopus search was also performed based on its broad coverage of disciplines. Customized search strategies were used for each individual database, including both official thesaurus terms where available and uncontrolled text terms. Truncation, lemmatization, and phrase searching were employed as available. Primary synonyms for study abroad were: Study abroad; Education abroad; Learning abroad; Study away; Stay abroad; Study tour; Foreign study; Student travel; International education; Education* tour; Global education (complete search strategy for each database is available from the authors). The search queries returned 3,166 records which were downloaded into EndNote X9 citation management software for deletion of duplicates. After deduplication, 2,846 articles were uploaded to Rayyan QCRI and Endnote for screening. The full search and screening process is depicted in Figure 1.
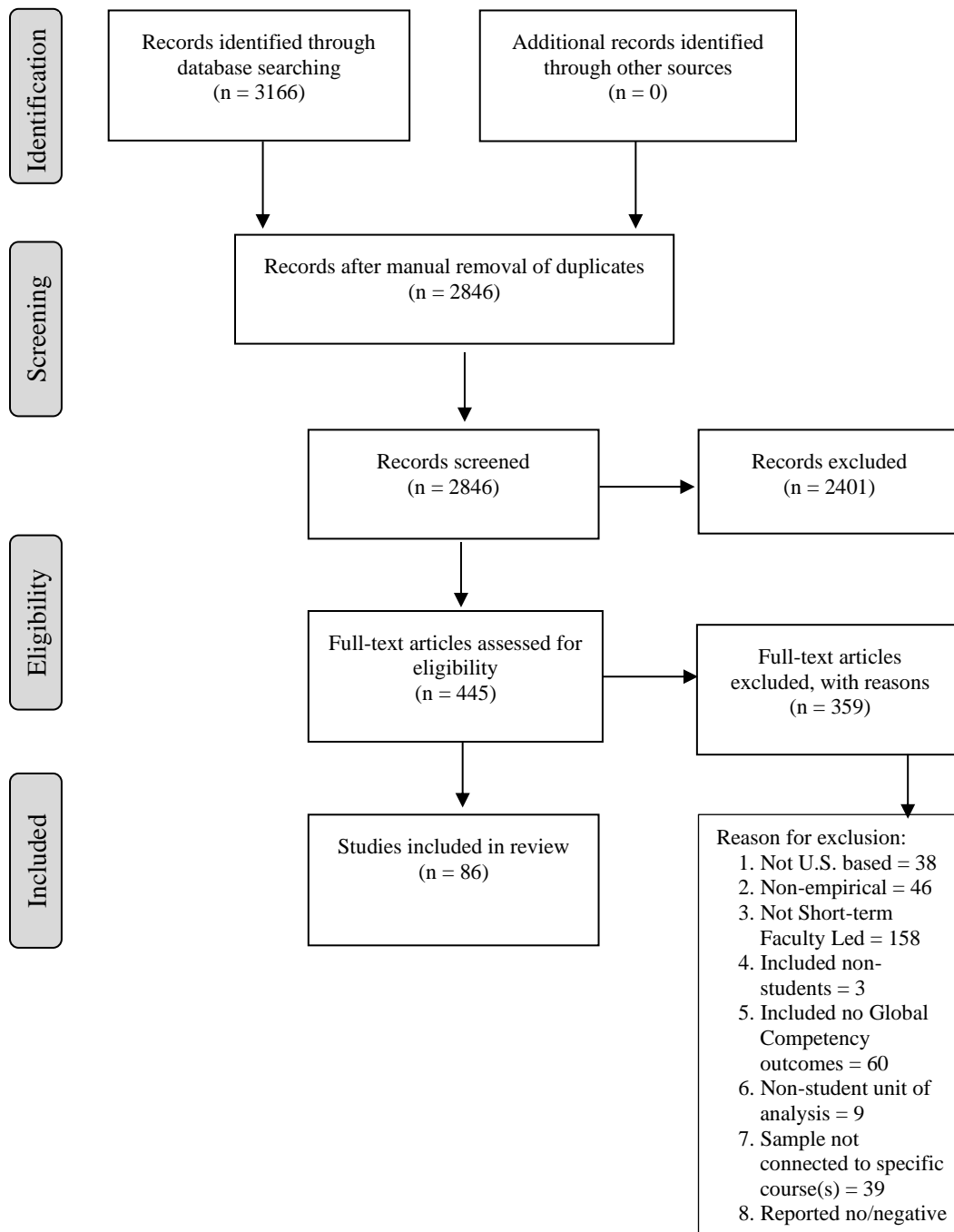
Figure 1. PRISMA Diagram

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

We restricted searches to peer-reviewed empirical articles published in English. Given the impact of September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks in the U.S. on international travel, and the resurgence of efforts to strengthen education abroad efforts afterward (IIE, 2020; Lutterman-Aguilar & Gingerich, 2002), the search was limited to studies published after January 1, 2002. To control for the effect of different educational systems and sociocultural differences among student populations, studies were limited to those with a home institution in the United States.

Additional criteria for inclusion were (a) faculty-led, (b) credit-bearing (undergraduate or graduate level), (c) short-term (i.e., travel abroad for eight weeks or less) study abroad courses that (d) included assessment of at least one global competence learning outcome as specified by Hunter's (2004) model (see Table 1). All empirical studies (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods) were included if the unit of analysis was students (i.e., case studies analyzing a program were excluded). Studies based on a single course and multiple courses were eligible for inclusion, but multi-course studies were excluded if samples were not connected to a course described in the article (e.g., a retrospective study of any students with short-term study abroad experience during the previous decade).

Table 1

Hunter's (2004) Model of Global Competence (emphasis by the authors)

ATTITUDES (Internal Readiness)	KNOWLEDGE (External Readiness)	SKILLS/EXPERIENCES (External Readiness)
1. Recognition that **one's own worldview is not universal**	1. Understanding **one's own cultural norms** & expectations	1. Ability to **identify cultural differences**
2. **Willingness to step outside of one's own culture** and experience life as "the other"	2. Understanding **cultural norms & expectations of others**	2. Ability to **live outside one's own culture**
3. **Willingness to take risks** in pursuit of cross-cultural learning and personal development	3. Knowledge of **world history**	3. Ability to **collaborate across cultures**

4. **Openness to new experiences**, including those that could be emotionally challenging	4. Knowledge of **current world events**	4. Successful participation in academic or work **projects with people from other cultures**
5. **Coping with different cultures** and attitudes	5. Understanding the concept of **globalization**	5. Ability to **assess intercultural performance** in social or professional settings
6. A **non-judgmental** reaction to cultural difference		6. Effective **participation in socially and professional settings globally**
7. **Celebrating diversity**		

Screening and Study Selection

A two-stage process was used to screen studies: two researchers independently reviewed titles and abstracts to determine if returned articles met the above-listed inclusion criteria, and studies either meeting all inclusion criteria or for which a determination could not be made from the abstract alone were retained (n=445). Next, full-text articles were obtained and reviewed independently by two different members of the research team.

A third researcher identified any screening disagreements, then discrepancies were resolved through discussion by the initial screeners, who re-consulted the study for further review. Upon completing full article reviews, the remaining studies were examined to ensure they were independent of each other with unique samples. We retained studies that reported positive effects for students on at least one global competence outcome. These procedures resulted in a final sample of 86 independent studies.

Coding of Studies

Two authors independently reviewed each article to extract the following information: reference details, course characteristics (destination country, trip length, sample size), student demographics, global competence outcome(s), and educational components used in each course. We categorized course disciplines using the U.S. Department of Education's Classification of Instructional Programs Codes (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010) and coded destination

countries into global regions using Open Doors classifications (Open Doors, 2020). In instances where study abroad trip duration was reported in the form of days, we converted this to a number of weeks (e.g., 9 days was coded as 1.29 weeks) to achieve a comparable duration frame across studies. We used Hunter's (2004) model as the guiding framework to extract and code outcomes by global competence domain (i.e., knowledge, attitudes, or skills), category/component (e.g., knowledge of one's own culture, knowledge of other cultures), and direction of effect (i.e., positive change, no change, or negative change).

Data on the demographic characteristics of students in each study were extracted, including age, sex/gender, race/ethnicity, disability status, sexual orientation, and gender identity. When information was available in a given study (i.e., using standard numeric reporting methods), raw numbers, means, and ranges were extracted to the extent provided by the authors. In cases where studies did not report characteristics numerically but gave some qualitative indication of the sample's composition (e.g., "the sample was predominantly Caucasian"), these qualitative comments were recorded.

We used Steinberg's (2017) recommended approaches for short-term study abroad course design as the framework to extract and code seven-course components: (1) travel-embedded course; (2) service-learning; (3) human dimension to learning; (4) interaction with topical experts in the host country; (5) interaction with peers abroad; (6) research projects; and (7) teaching by host country faculty. The first criteria, *travel abroad embedded within a home university course*, was operationalized as study abroad courses with class sessions before and after the travel experience. Studies that described a service-learning project done by study abroad students in the host country were coded as including *service-learning*. As suggested by Steinberg (2017), studies were classified as *providing a human dimension to classroom learning* if they included a homestay experience or some other experience that involved significant and sustained interaction with locals in the host country (e.g., a day-long community project with local involvement). Courses that incorporated meetings between study abroad students and individuals in the host country with political, industry, or other expertise related to the primary course subject(s) were coded as interacting with *topical experts*. Studies were classified as having *discussions with local peers* if study abroad students engaged with university students of any level (undergraduate or graduate) in the host country

and as *involving research* if students conducted any kind of research project while abroad. Finally, programs that reported some element of the abroad portion of the course as being taught by university faculty from the host country, such as lectures or facilitation of service-learning projects, were coded as involving *team-teaching with host country faculty*. For each study included in the review, the number of course components was totaled for numeric reporting and depicted visually in a spectrum display.

Results

The final study sample (n=86) included studies published between 2004 and 2020, the majority of which were from the last decade (*Mdn*=2016). Three types of faculty-led study abroad experiences were represented: single course, single destination (79.1%), single course, multiple destinations (12.8%), and multiple courses, multiple destinations (8.1%). Among courses involving travel to a single global region (n=87), the majority were to either Latin America and the Caribbean (33.3%) or Europe (28.7%), followed by Asia (19.5%), Sub-Saharan Africa (13.8%), Oceania (2.3%), and the Middle East/North Africa (2.3%).

Sample sizes ranged from 4 to 651 (*Mdn.* = 17), encompassing undergraduate only (50.0%), graduate-only (12.0%), or both (30.4%), while 7.6% of studies did not report student education level. Table 2 lists the details of each study, including author(s), discipline, study abroad destination region, study sample size, characteristics of student participants, course components, and global competence outcome(s) (a full reference list of all included studies is available upon request from the authors).

Table 2

Characteristics of Studies Included in the Review (n=86)

#	Author(s)	Discipline	Study Abroad Region	Sample Size	Course Elements	Reported Student Gains by Global Competence Category [c]
1	Alexis, Casco, Martin & Zhang (2017)	STEM	AS	21	EX/SP/R	K5. Globalization S2. Live outside one's own culture
2	Allen, Lofgren & Brady (2019)	Agriculture Science	EU	16	T	A1. One's worldview is not universal A2. Willing to step outside the culture A4. Openness to new experiences
3	Anderson, Lawton, Rexeisen & Hubbard (2006)	Business Admin.	EU	16	PP/LO/EX/T	A6. Non-judgmental S2. Live outside one's own culture
4	Anderson-Sathe & Geisler (2017)	Holistic Health Studies	AS	13	PP/T	A1. One's worldview is not universal A7. Celebrating diversity S1. Identify cultural differences
5	Assaf, Lussier, Furness & Hoff (2019)	Education	AF	7	PP/SL	A5. Coping with different cultures K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
6	Bai, Larimer & Riner (2016)	Social Work	AS	8	PP/EX/SP	A4. Openness to new experiences S3. Collaborate across cultures
7	Bell, Gibson, Tarrant, Perry & Stoner(2016)	Inter-disciplinary	OC	150	R	K4. Current World Events K5. Globalization
8	Black & Duhon (2006)	British Studies	EU	26	EX	A2. Willing to step outside the culture A4. Openness to new experiences A5. Coping with different cultures S2. Live outside one's own culture
9	Bott-Knutson, Clay, Gonda, Walker & Thaler (2019)	Agriculture	AS	96	PP/EX/SP	A4. Openness to new experiences K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S3. Collaborate across cultures
10	Brooks (2005)	Political Science	EU	15	EX/T/R	A6. Non-judgmental
11	Bunch, Rampold, Cater & Blackburn (2018)	Agriculture	LAC	4	SP/T	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
12	Byker & Putman (2019)	Education	AF	21	PP/T	A6. Non-judgmental K5. Globalization
13	Cade (2015)	Multi-disciplinary	AF	13	PP/SL	A2. Willing to step outside the culture K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization

14	Caldwell & Purtzer (2015)	Public Health	LAC	41	LO/SL	A1. One's worldview is not universal A2. Willing to step outside the culture S3. Collaborate across cultures
15	Chaponniere & Hall (2020)	Nursing	AF	55	PP/EX/T	A5. Coping with different cultures
16	Claussen, Radhakrishnan, Haney, Kimani, Wairimu, Kimutai & DeBoer (2019)	Engineering	AF	9	SL	A1. One's worldview is not universal A6. Non-judgmental K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S4. Intercultural projects S6. Intercultural social/prof settings
17	Conner & Roberts (2015)	Agriculture & Life Sci.	AF	15	PP/LO/SP /R	S2. Live outside one's own culture
18	Conroy & Taggart (2016)	Nursing	AS	21	PP/EX/SP /T	A6. Non-judgmental K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
19	Cotten & Thompson (2017)	Social Work	LAC	12	PP/LO/E X/SP/SL	A5. Coping with different cultures K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
20	Curtin, Martins & Schwartz-Barcott (2015)	Nursing	LAC	11	PP/LO/E X/SP/T/S L	A3. Willingness to take risks K5. Globalization
21	Czerwionka, Artamonova & Barbosa (2015)	Foreign Languages & Cultures	EU	36	LO/SP/T	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
22	Dantas (2007)	Education	LAC	6	PP/SP	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
23	Dass-Brailsford & Serrano (2010)	Psychology	AF	12	LO/EX	A1. One's worldview is not universal K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S2. Live outside one's own culture
24	Davies, Lewis, Anderson & Bernstein (2015)	Psychology	LAC	16	PP	A1. One's worldview is not universal K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S3. Collaborate across cultures
25	Demetry & Vaz (2017)	STEM	AS	21	PP/LO/SP /SL	A6. Non-judgmental K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S1. Identify cultural differences
26	Dietz & Baker (2019)	Counseling	LAC	8	PP/SP	A2. Willing to step outside the culture K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
27	Earnest, Rosenbusch, Wallace-Williams & Keim (2016)	Psychology	LAC	25	PP	A4. Openness to new experiences A5. Coping with different cultures
28	Foster, Rice, Foster & Barrick (2014)	Agricultural Education	AS	18	PP	A3. Willingness to take risks K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S3. Collaborate across cultures

29	Gains-Hanks & Graynam-Simpson (2009)	Human Dev. & Family Studies	AF	12	T/SL	A2. Willing to step outside the culture S6. Intercultural social/prof settings
30	Gibson, Benjamin, Otto & Adams (2012)	Agriculture	LAC	32	PP/LO/EX/R	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K4. Current World Events
31	Gondra & Czerwionka (2018)	Foreign Languages	EU	26	LO/T	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
32	Grant (2019)	Agriculture	AS	11	PP	S3. Collaborate across cultures
33	Grant, York & Karcher (2019)	Agriculture	EU	19	PP/EX	S3. Collaborate across cultures
34	Harris, Kumaran, Harris, Moen & Visconti (2019)	Family, Youth & Comm. Sciences	M	48	PP/T/SL	S3. Collaborate across cultures
35	Harrison & Palmer (2019)	Inter-disciplinary	AS	76	PP/EX	A2. Willing to step outside the culture S6. Intercultural social/prof settings
36	Howard, Perrotte, Lee & Frisone (2017)	Communication	EU	26	PP	S6. Intercultural social/prof settings
37	Iqbal (2019)	Business	AS	92	PP/EX	S3. Collaborate across cultures
38	Ismail, Morgan & Hayes (2006)	Food Science	AS	23	PP/EX/SP	A7. Celebrating diversity
39	Kako & Klingbeil (2019)	Nursing	AF	21	PP/LO/EX/SP	S3. Collaborate across cultures
40	Kanarowski & Johnston (2014)	Education	LAC	8	PP/LO	S3. Collaborate across cultures
41	Krishnan, Richards & Simpson (2016)	Audiology	AF	12	PP/EX/SP	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S3. Collaborate across cultures
42	Le & Raven (2015)	Business	AS	30	PP/EX/SP/T/ SL	A1. One's worldview is not universal A7. Celebrating diversity K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
43	Le, Raven & Chen (2013)	Business	AS	17	SL	K1. One's own cultural norms
44	Lee & Negrelli, 2018	n/r	AS	17	PP/SL	K1. One's own cultural norms
45	Lewis & Nissenbaum (2005)	n/r	LAC	32	PP/LO/SL/R	K5. Globalization
46	Lindsey (2005)	Social Work	EU	29	EX/SP	A1. One's worldview is not universal A2. Willing to step outside the culture A4. Openness to new experiences A5. Coping with different cultures K5. Globalization

47	Lumkes, Hallett & Vallade (2012)	Agriculture	AS	13	PP	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization
48	Lyons, Buddie & Purcell (2018)	Leadership Develop-ment	LAC	36	PP/LO/SP /T/ SL/R	A1. One's worldview is not universal
49	Marchant, Germak & Bedzin (2018)	Social Work	LAC	11	PP/SP/SL	S3. Collaborate across cultures S4. Intercultural projects
50	Marx & Pray (2011)	Education	LAC	10	PP/LO/T	A5. Coping with different cultures A6. Non-judgmental
51	Mason & Their (2018)	Non-profit Manage-ment	AS	10	EX	A1. One's worldview is not universal A4. Openness to new experiences A6. Non-judgmental A7. Celebrating diversity K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization S3. Collaborate across cultures
52	Mason, Brunner, Ballen & Lovette (2018)	Biology	LAC	38	PP	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K3. World history
53	McMullen & Penn (2011)	n/r	AF	N/R	PP/SP/SL/ R	A7. Celebrating diversity K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization
54	Medina-Lopez & Portillo (2004)	n/r	LAC	18	--	A1. One's worldview is not universal K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations A6. Non-judgmental
55	Mizrahi, Kaufman & Huss (2017)	Social Work	AF	44	PP/SP/T	A1. One's worldview is not universal S4. Intercultural projects
56	Moreno-Lopez, Ramos-Sellman, Miranda-Aldaco & Quinto (2017)	Foreign Languages	M	29	PP/LO/T	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
57	Motley & Sturgill (2013)	Communi-cation	LAC	29	PP/SL	A6. Non-judgmental
58	Niendorf & Alberts (2017)	Business	EU	20	PP/EX/SP	A4. Openness to new experiences A6. Non-judgmental S3. Collaborate across cultures
59	Nordmeyer, Teig & Bedera (2017)	Sociology	EU	19	PP/EX/T	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K4. Current World Events

60	Olson & Lalley (2012)	Business & Engineering	M	101	PP/EX/SP	A6. Non-judgmental S3. Collaborate across cultures S4. Intercultural projects
61	Parker & Dautoff (2007)	Business	LAC	13	PP/LO/EX/SP/SL	K1. one's own cultural norms K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization
62	Pedersen (2009)	Psychology	EU	13	--	A6. Non-judgmental
63	Peppas (2005)	Business	EU	70	PP/EX	A7. Celebrating diversity K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization
64	Philips, Bloom, Gainey & Chiocca (2017)	Nursing	AF	62	--	A2. Willing to step outside the culture K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S2. Live outside one's own culture
65	Phillion, Malewski, Sharma & Wang (2009)	Education	LAC	54	PP/LO	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K4. Current World Events
66	Prins & Webster (2010)	Sociology	LAC	7	LO/SL	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization S2. Live outside one's own culture
67	Prehn, Kelley & Westling (2016)	n/r	EU	9	--	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S2. Live outside one's own culture
68	Prosek & Michel (2016)	Counseling	EU	13	PP/EX	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K5. Globalization
69	Ripple (2010)	Philosophy	LAC	16	PP	K5. Globalization
70	Rodriguez (2011)	Education	LAC	6	PP	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
71	Rosch & Haber-Curran (2013)	Agriculture	EU	10	EX	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S2. Live outside one's own culture
72	Rustambekov & Mohan (2017)	Business	AS	88	PP/EX	A3. Willingness to take risks A5. Coping with different cultures K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S6. Intercultural social/prof settings

73	Schenker (2019)	Foreign Languages	EU	42	PP/LO/T	A1. One's worldview is not universal A3. Willingness to take risks A4. Openness to new experiences A7. Celebrating diversity K3. World history K4. Current World Events S1. Identify cultural differences S3. Collaborate across cultures
74	Sharma, Phillion & Malewski (2011)	Education	LAC	49	PP/LO	A1. One's worldview is not universal A4. Openness to new experiences A5. Coping with different cultures K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
75	Shoffner (2019)	Education	EU	15	PP	S2. Live outside one's own culture
76	Smith & Moreno-Lopez (2012)	Education & Foreign Languages	LAC	13	PP/LO/T/SL	S1. Identify cultural differences
77	Smith & Yang (2017)	Inter-disciplinary	AF	28	T	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K3. World history K5. Globalization
78	Smith, McAuliffe & Rippard (2014)	Counseling	EU	17	EX/T	A1. One's worldview is not universal K1. One's own cultural norms K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations K3. World history K5. Globalization
79	Smith-Augustine, Dowden, Wiggins & Hall (2014)	Counseling	LAC	5	PP/LO/EX/SL	A1. One's worldview is not universal A6. Non-judgmental K1. one's own cultural norms K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
80	Tarrant, Lyons, Stoner, et al. (2014)	Recreation/Tourism	OC	651	T/SL/R	K5. Globalization
81	Taylor & Shore (2019)	Psychology	EU	16	PP/R	A5. Coping with different cultures S2. Live outside one's own culture
82	Vatalaro, Szente & Levin (2015)	Education	EU	5	--	A1. One's worldview is not universal K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
83	Wall-Bassett, Hegde, Craft & Oberlin (2018)	Interdisciplinary	LAC	8	LO/SL	A1. One's worldview is not universal A3. Willingness to take risks K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations
84	Wood & Peters (2014)	Business	M	42	EX	A3. Willingness to take risks A5. Coping with different cultures K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations S6. Intercultural social/prof settings
85	Wu & Martin (2018)	Business	LAC	10	PP/LO/SL	K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations

86	Zhang, Szente & Levin (2019)	Education	EU	15	EX/T	A2. Willing to step outside the culture K2. Others' cultural norms/expectations

Note:

a AF = Africa, AS = Asia, EU = Europe, LAC = Latin America & Caribbean, OC = Oceana, M = multi-region course

b PP = Pre/post-trip sessions, LO = Significant local interactions (e.g., homestay), EX = Meetings with political or industry experts, SP = Time with student peers in host country, T = Co-teaching by host country faculty, SL = Service-learning project abroad, R = Research project abroad

c Hunter (2004)

Educational Components of Short-Term Study Abroad Courses

Of the seven recommended course elements that were assessed in this review, studies most frequently incorporated either one or two of these ($\bar{x} = 1.9$). A small minority of studies utilized either five (1.2%) or six (1.2%) of the elements, while no studies incorporated all seven. Ten studies (11.6%) reported short-term study abroad courses that did not incorporate any of the recommended course elements. The most frequently reported course component was pre-trip and post-trip class sessions, representing the incorporation of the study abroad trip within a broader academic course context (67.4% of studies; see Table 3). However, only 27.9% of studies incorporated both of these, while the other 39.5% included either pre-trip orientation sessions or post-trip reflection sessions but not both. Over a third of the courses (38.4%) included interactions between study abroad students and topical experts in the host country. Approximately one-fourth of studies included a homestay or other significant interaction with locals (29.1%), some co-teaching by host country faculty (29.1%), a service-learning project abroad (27.9%), or interaction between study abroad students and their university peers in the host country (27.9%). The least utilized course element was the research project abroad, reported in 11.6% of all studies reviewed.

Table 3

Educational Components Utilized Across All Studies (n=86)

Course Components[1]	N	%
Abroad trip incorporated into the broader campus-based course	58	67.4
Both pre-trip & post-trip session(s)	24	27.9
Either pre-or post-trip session(s)	34	39.5
None	28	32.6
Meetings with experts in the host country	33	38.4
Co-teaching by host country faculty	25	29.1
Homestay or other significant interaction with locals	25	29.1
Service-learning project abroad	24	27.9
Interaction with student peers abroad	24	27.9
Research project abroad	10	11.6

[1] Steinberg, M. (2017)

Mapping Educational Components of Short-Term Study Abroad Courses

We utilized a spectrum display to visually report the overall utilization of the seven-course components across studies. Spectrum displays are useful for depicting individual cases alongside broader categories or themes in a way that is intuitively interpreted and fosters comparisons of relationships between cases and categories (Henderson & Segal, 2013; Slone, 2009). In Figure 2, the center of the spectrum display contains a black circle denoting the total number of studies in the analysis and categorization of studies according to the global region(s) that the study abroad course traveled to. Outside this nucleus, each concentric circle (or circular row) represents one of the seven recommended course components. The first six course components, each coded dichotomously, appear in the next series of circles with a dot indicating that the course element was reported in a given study (or a blank space if it was not). Because one-course component—travel abroad embedded in a broader academic course—was coded trichotomously (i.e., both pre-trip and post-trip sessions; either pre-trip or post-trip sessions but not both; no class sessions before or after travel reported), a solid dot was used to indicate that both pre-trip and post-trip sessions were reported, a hollow dot was used to denote either pre-trip or post-trip sessions but not both, and a blank space indicated no class sessions

before or after travel were reported. Finally, each bisecting/perpendicular row represents an individual study with study numbers (corresponding to studies listed in Table 2) noted along the outer edge of the diagram. Thus, the spectrum diagram presents a picture of the *overall utilization* of the seven-course components, patterns of utilization *between studies* and *between destination regions*, and combinations of course components that were utilized *within each study*.
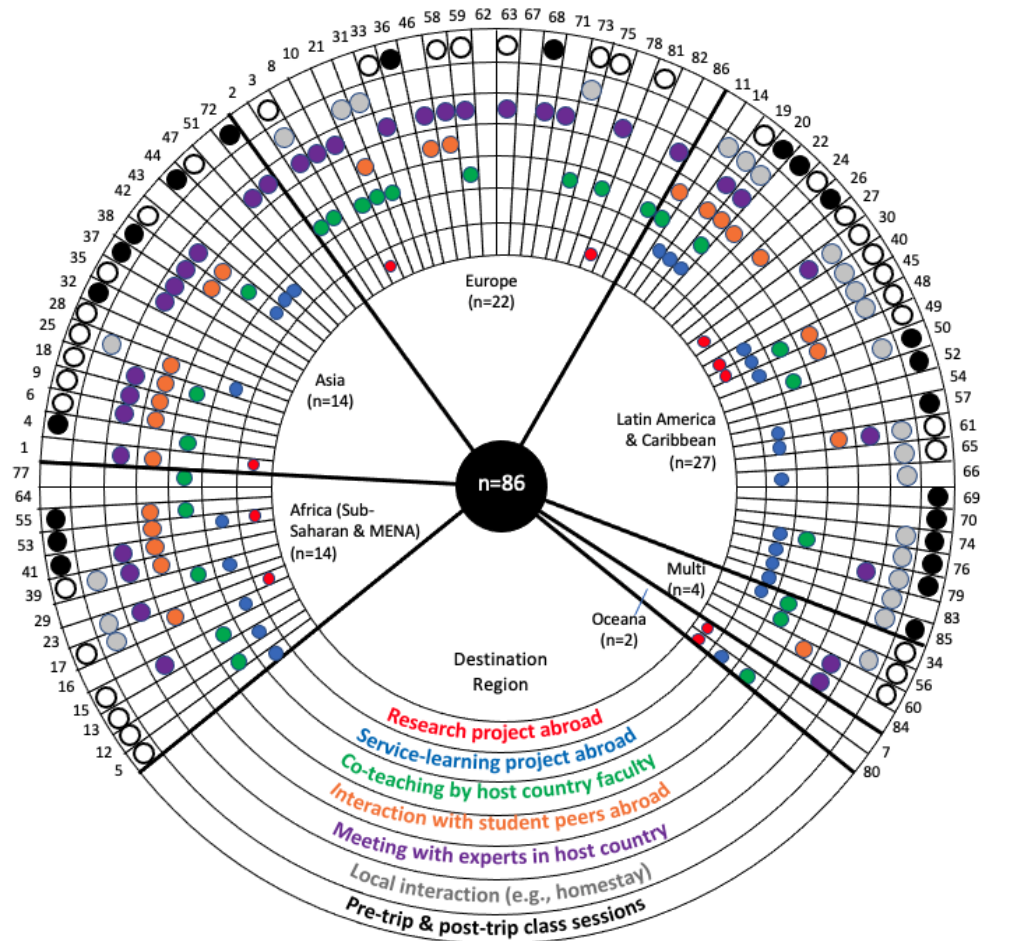

Figure 2. Spectrum display of course components by destination region.

Patterns of Course Component Utilization

Class sessions to orient students prior to travel abroad and class sessions to debrief or facilitate re-entry following travel abroad were utilized most frequently in courses traveling to Asia (82.4%) and Latin America and the Caribbean (81.5%, with 55% utilizing both pre-trip and post-trip sessions), followed closely by courses involving travel to multiple countries (75%) and Africa (64.3%). These class sessions were reported less frequently among courses involving travel to Europe (45.5%) and Oceana (0%).

Courses to Latin America and the Caribbean were most likely (59.3%) to report homestays or other activities in the host country that fostered significant interaction between students and local citizens. Comparatively, little of such experiences were utilized in short-term study abroad experiences involving multiple countries (25%), Africa (21.44%), or Europe (18.2%).

Meetings between study abroad students and individuals in the host country with expertise on the course topic(s) were most widely reported in courses to Asia (58.8%), Europe (54.5%), and multiple countries (50%). Just over one-fourth of courses involving travel to Africa reported utilizing local experts (28.6%), while this approach was used less frequently in Latin America and Caribbean-focused courses (18.5%) and not at all in courses to Oceana (0%).

The approach of connecting study abroad students to their university peers in the host country was infrequently used overall, with the highest usage among courses to Asia (41.2%) and Africa (35.7%). Only 13.6% of courses to Europe and no courses to Oceana reported this strategy in the short-term study abroad course reviewed.

Instruction while abroad by faculty in the host country was also relatively underutilized across the studies. Utilization rates ranged from a high of 50% across studies involving travel to Oceana and multiple countries to lows of 18.5% for Latin America and the Caribbean, and Asia (17.6%).

Roughly half of all courses to Oceana and Latin America, and the Caribbean (50% and 48.1%, respectively) reported the inclusion of a service-learning project in the

host country as part of short-term study abroad activities. Lower rates of service-learning inclusion were observed for studies reporting on courses to Africa (35.7%), multiple destinations (25%), and Asia (23.5%). None of the courses involving travel to Europe reported service-learning projects.

Finally, research projects were the least frequently reported course component across all studies. While both courses to Oceana (100%) utilized research projects in-country, rates were substantially lower for all other global regions, ranging from a high of 14.3% for Africa to 0% for multi-destination courses.

Notably, five (5.8%) of the studies reviewed 5 studies that did not report using any of the six engagement components we assessed. These included courses to Africa (n=1), Europe (n=3), Latin America, and the Caribbean (n=1).

Broader Patterns

Taken together, several patterns emerge across these data. First, an inverse pattern can be observed between the utilization of in-country "experts" and the incorporation of activities designed to connect students to local citizens. The two global regions with the highest utilization of in-country experts among study abroad courses (i.e., Asia and Europe) also display the lowest rates of homestays and other activities with significant interaction between students and locals. Likewise, where the highest rate of local citizen-focused activities was reported (i.e., courses to Latin America and the Caribbean), meetings between students and in-country experts were rare.

Second, a similar relationship was observed between the course elements involving teaching by host country faculty and interactions with host country students. Study abroad courses emphasizing teaching by host country faculty—most common for Oceana, multi-country, and European courses—were unlikely to include interaction with host country students. Conversely, short-term study abroad courses reporting higher rates of student-to-student involvement (i.e., courses to Asia, Africa, and Latin America & the Caribbean) had the lowest rates of utilizing host country teaching.

Finally, substantial diversity was observed between studies, within course components, and across geographic regions of study. While we attempted to identify any patterns that would illuminate a "successful path" that short-term study abroad courses followed to result in gains for students' level of global competence, no such overarching patterns were observed in these data.

Discussion

Global competence reflects an open, flexible mindset grounded in knowledge of other cultures and communication and interpersonal skills that allow one to interact effectively within and across international settings (Hunter, 2004; Hunter et al., 2006). This study reviewed available evidence about short-term study abroad courses that have demonstrated increased student global competence.

In addition to supporting previous educational component recommendations for short-term study abroad programs (Steinberg, 2017), this review revealed several interesting patterns in how educational component usage varied based on course destination. As illustrated in Figure 2, the use of educational components to promote global competence varied by study and global region. Overwhelmingly, there is strong evidence to support the incorporation of pre-and post-trip educational sessions for students, which orient students to the country and culture before travel and debrief the experience after travel (Chenault & Kreisel, 2020). Evidence from this review shows that pre-trip and post-trip sessions were most frequently used for short-term study abroad courses to Asia and Latin America, while courses traveling to Europe and Oceana were the least likely to include these sessions. This variation is worth further study as the literature suggests that, generally, faculty members' instructional practices with study abroad are shaped by their disciplines, background, and prior experience with international travel, which may influence their perceptions about the need to include these types of discussion for countries that are similar in culture or language to the U.S (Niehaus et al., 2018; Niehaus & Wegener, 2019).

There is also strong evidence to support purposeful interactions (e.g., homestays, meeting with experts) between students and different types of individuals from the host country (Fisher & Grettenberger, 2015). More interesting is that the types of interactions vary across global regions. For example, meetings with experts in the

host country were more common in short-term study abroad courses in Europe and Asia, while interaction with local community members was more common in Latin America and the Caribbean. Similarly, co-teaching by host country faculty was more common in Europe and Asia, while interactions with student peers aboard were more common in Latin America and the Caribbean, Africa, and Asia. Reasons for these differences may be the result of cultural factors within the countries, preferences or ethnocentric bias by faculty members designing and leading the interactions, or logistical constraints.

Despite the high impact educational practice recommendation for including research projects (Kuh, 2008), this review found that short-term study abroad courses focused on enhancing global competence rarely used research projects as an educational component to develop global competence among student learners. Barkin (2014, 2016) contends that research projects are feasible with short-term aboard experiences, especially when the experience is embedded into a semester-long course or includes pre and post-trip sessions. The literature has noted several barriers to conducting research as part of short-term study abroad courses, such as time constraints and lack of students' language skills (Barkin, 2016; Ruth et al., 2019; Steinberg, 2017). However, Ruth and colleagues (2019) found that few studies are published about research experiences in short-term study abroad, and those that are published focus on research within the natural sciences such as geology and biology, which suggests a possible bias in the literature on the pedagogical benefits of short-term study abroad.

This study's evidence of how educational components are integrated into short-term study abroad courses of destination offers faculty evidence-informed examples for their own courses and opens the door to discussions on the need to establish best practices for short-term study abroad related to the development of global competence among college students. It also offers the potential that an increase in recommended components might increase the rates of development of global competence in short-term study abroad courses.

There are also limitations to the evidence included in this review. First, study exclusion criteria may have resulted in the omission of an important study or perspective. For example, the inclusion of studies published after January 2002 means findings do not represent an exhaustive synthesis of all existing evidence,

and our focus on short-term education abroad experience narrowed the scope of analysis to offer insight into only one component of education abroad programming. Second, the inclusion of only studies originating in the United States, as well as the North American vantage point of the authors, limits the generalizability of findings to dissimilar countries. Third, we did not assess the quality of evidence or rigor of included studies, and our synthesis was limited by the level of detail the instructors chose to report in each article. Finally, although we put in place rigorous processes for achieving inter-rater reliability between pairs of reviewers who extracted study data, it is possible that our coding contains misinterpretations.

Despite these limitations, the evidence found in this review offers the field of education abroad insights into best practices for the design, implementation, and evaluation of short-term study abroad courses. Given the ever-increasing globalization of human society, few professions are untouched by the need for workers who have the knowledge and skills to work with peers and clients from different cultures, and institutions of higher education need to ensure all students have access to meaningful learning opportunities, including short-term study abroad (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). Further, understanding what educational components have been employed in what global regions can help faculty members identify elements that may be more successful in a particular geographic location as well as to explore the use of new elements that have been underutilized. Ultimately, these findings can help instructors meet both course-specific and global competence learning objectives as well as identify new ways of incorporating the development of global competence among students. For example, research practices such as team science, a collaborative approach to scientific discovery, and community-based participatory research methods offer viable approaches to link global competence and research projects in other countries (Bennett & Gadlin, 2012; Fisher & Grettenberger, 2015). This might be a model that educators could incorporate into short-term study abroad courses to increase the usage of in-country research project course components.

Finally, this review points to the need to systematically assess parity and inequities among short-term study aboard courses, including student participation and educational practices. For example, are some educational components not being used in some courses because of perceived similarities or differences in culture

between the U.S. and the destination countries? As Doerr (2018) argues in her book *Transforming Study Abroad,* course design is often based on problematic assumptions about cultural immersion, such as that homestays offer the best experiences for learning about a culture despite evidence that the quality of homestays is quite variable. Faculty and administrators can use these review findings to explore whether and why certain educational activities may be underutilized in their study abroad courses to certain global regions and interrogate problematic assumptions such as who is considered an expert in the field or who needs our assistance. Given how hegemonic educational standards and academic imperialism can undermine even the most well-intentioned education abroad efforts, such discussions are vital for strengthening global competence and promoting cross-cultural understanding in higher education and beyond.

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