HOW CULTURE AFFECTS A STUDENT'S DECISION TO STUDY ABROAD

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ABSTRACT

This study focused on how culture moderates the relationship between student's beliefs about studying abroad and their willingness to pay for a study abroad program. Specifically, I examined the difference between the Chilean and American cultures, and how the different aspects of the two cultures affected a student's beliefs about studying abroad. Based on Hofstede's (1980) dimensional analysis of cultures, which ranks countries on a scale from 0-100 for each different dimension, and an existing article by Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012), which created an overarching framework for predicting a student's intention to study abroad, six hypotheses were advanced based on the presumption that each of the beliefs bear a positive correlation to a student's willingness to pay, and that willingness to pay, along with desire and affordability, bear a positive relationship to a student's intent to study abroad. All six hypotheses were supported, strengthening the validity of Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's model. Implications for university programs are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

In 2013, The Institute of International Education (IIE) documented a rise in U.S. students studying abroad by 3.4% in 2011/2012 from 2010/2011. The number of U.S. students studying abroad has more than tripled in the past twenty years, from 71,000 students in 1991/1992 to 283,332 students in 2011/2012(IIE, 2013). The number of students studying abroad is increasing annually showing that there is a growing interest. One of the reasons that an increasing number of students are studying abroad is because cultural experience is becoming more important to different stakeholders in the community such as universities, employers, and students themselves.

Currently, universities are increasingly stressing that students gain international experience. Over the last decade, U.S. business education has made a transition to include many international courses in the curriculum (Kwok & Arpan, 2002). Business schools are also continuing to internationalize their objectives, organization, and faculty (Kwok & Arpan, 2002). For example, in 2006, Goucher University in Baltimore, Maryland started requiring students to study abroad in order to graduate. The university decided to do this as a way of adding international context to a student's learning and as a way to differentiate the university (Loveland 2006). Results of a study done by Kedia & Daniel (2003) show that universities need to have more international business programs, such as study abroad programs, because one of the most important international skills sought by firms today is an understanding of cross-cultural differences (Kedia & Daniel, 2003). As businesses continue to expand internationally, especially with the projected growth of international operations (Kedia & Daniel, 2003), they will need people who can speak different languages or understand cultural differences. Even if a person has no interest in

working internationally, it is becoming more difficult to remain isolated. Not only are U.S. companies moving facilities to international locations, entering foreign markets, and working with foreign suppliers, but many foreign companies are entering the U.S. Thus, the U.S.'s position in the global marketplace rests on the ability of the American people to not only to appreciate other languages and cultures, but also to know how to interact with them on a social, political, and economic level (Durbin, 2006). If the U.S. wants to be a world leader in the twenty-first century, students need to be educated on cultures and social realties outside of the United States (Durbin, 2006). Thus, for American students, having a study abroad or intercultural experience is something that will set them apart from their peers in the job market.

The benefits for students resulting from study abroad programs such as short-term programs are varied and widely documented. Students benefit from personal growth, intercultural development, academic commitment, career development, and there are also social benefits (Curran 2007; Cusick 2009; Dwyer & Peters, 2012; Maringe & Carter 2007; Relya, Cocchiara & Studdard, 2008; Toncar, Reid, & Anderson, 2006).

Studies have been conducted on the importance of understanding students' intentions, in relation to marketing study abroad programs. Predicting intentions is important to the effective design and marketing of study abroad programs (Brakus, Schmitt, & Zarantonello, 2009; Morgan & Rego, 2009; Rego, Billet, & Morgan 2009). However, this does not capture economic trends. The effect that the cost of studying abroad has on a student's decision to study abroad has been assumed to be the major deciding factor in a student's decision-making process. However, cost is not the only

criterion in a student's decision to study abroad (Fischer 2009). Even when the economy was in a recession, students were still studying abroad.

Studies by Goel, de Jong and Schunsenberg (2010) and Presley, Damron-Martinez, and Zhang (2010) support the theory of planned behavior is a good theoretical basis for identifying a model that predicts a student's intention to study abroad. Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) use the theory of planned behavior to predict a student's intention to study abroad, "why a student would study abroad." The study used the theory of planned behavior to determine the different beliefs that a student used to base their intentions on. The study used job prospects, family expectations, and administrative support as the different beliefs, with willingness to pay, desire, and affordability as the mediating variables between the beliefs and intentions. The results of the study were that all of mediating variables had a strong relationship with intentions to participate in a study abroad program and that all three beliefs were significant factors in the perceived cost-benefit relationship of participating in a study abroad program.

While studies have been conducted on students from different cultures intentions to study abroad, there is a gap in the research about how culture specifically affects a student's decision to study abroad. There are studies that look at culture, but they only look at one culture and they do not do a direct comparison of two cultures. For example, a study was done on Kuwait students' willingness to study abroad, which found that Kuwait students were more willing to study abroad in urban locations with Anglo-European heritage, and they prefer long-term study abroad programs to short-term programs (Hackney, et. al, 2013).

My primary objective is to use Hofstede's analysis to understand how different cultures weight behavioral, control, and normative beliefs that students have about studying abroad. I will replicate a study done by Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) and will add a two country study, the U.S. and Chile, where I will explore the implications of Hofstede's model. I will test my hypotheses by collecting data from TCU students (representing the U.S. culture) and Universidad Mayor students (representing Chilean culture).

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES

Theory of Planned Behavior

The theory of planned behavior is a widely accepted theory that suggests that beliefs and attitudes influence our intentions, which in turn influences our behavior. Figure 1 shows that intentions are influenced by three different types of beliefs and attitudes: behavioral, normative, and control.

Behavioral beliefs and attitudes have to do with an individuals' perception of the degree to which his/her behavior will influence a desired outcome (Azjen 1991). Normative beliefs and subjective norms describe how the judgment of significant others influence a person's perception of a certain behavior (Azjen 1991). Azjen (1991) defined significant others as those whose opinion is valued by the person including family, teachers, spouses, or superiors. Finally, control beliefs describe a person's perception of the difficulty or ease of executing the behavior, including factors that can help or hinder the execution of the behavior. Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) defined these beliefs in the context of study abroad: behavioral beliefs refer to job prospects; normative beliefs refer to family expectations; and control beliefs refer to administrative support.

In their study, Goel, de Jong and Schunsenberg (2012) used the theory of planned behavior to predict study abroad intentions among U.S. business students. The theory of planned behavior states that there is a direct relationship between beliefs and intentions; however, later studies have suggested that the connection is mediated (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) use various studies, as well as their own, to show that in the context of study abroad the different mediators are (1) willingness to pay (Loomis, Bell, Cooney & Asmus, 2009; Luzar & Cossé, 1998; Werner, Schnaider-Beeri, Aharon, & Davidson, 2002), (2) desire (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), and (3) affordability (Nabi & Holden, 2008).

Replicating Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012), I will use the constructs of future job prospects (behavioral belief), family expectations (normative belief), and administrative support (cognitive belief) mediated by willingness to pay, desire, and affordability to predict a student's intention to study abroad. However, I believe that the relationship between the constructs and the mediators will be weighted differently for Chilean students than for American students. I will explain this next using Hofstede's Analysis of the different countries.

Hofstede's Dimensions of National Culture

Hofstede's model classifies six dimensions of national culture: power distance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, uncertainty avoidance, long term/short term orientation, and indulgence/restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Hofstede's research began when he sent out questionnaires to 76 different countries between 1967 and 1973. Each country was given a score for each dimension on a scale from 0-100 and has a position on the scale relative to each other. While the results

of Hofstede's original work were published some decades ago, Hofstede continues to perform research, and update his dimensions as well as add new ones. Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been widely used to help predict how culture will affect consumer behavior and studies have found that some dimensions have a more significant affect on the outcomes than others. For example, Lanier and Kirchner (2013) used Hofstede's dimensions in a study to predict consumer spend in the international beverage market and found that 63% of the variability in volume consumed was predicted by the indulgence versus restraint dimension. For the study I am conducting, I will only be looking at three of the dimensions to help explain the differences between Chilean culture and American culture: power distance, individualism vs. collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance. I am only using these three because they are the ones that will affect an individual's beliefs that impact study abroad intentions, as identified by Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012). Figure 2 shows the country scores for Chile and the U.S.

Power Distance

Power distance is defined as 'the extent to which less powerful members of a society accept the fact that power is distributed unequally'. In a culture with large power distance everybody has his or her right place in society. Proper respect must be shown to elders and authority figures, and the status a person has in his or her society gives them power. In cultures with a low PDI, people are taught to be independent and to question authority. While respect is still shown to elders and authority figures, it is socially acceptable for younger persons to contradict older persons.

Individualism Vs. Collectivism

Societies are defined as individualistic or collectivistic based by how a person is identified. In a collectivist society, a person's identity is defined by a group, in particular the family, who will support them in exchange for loyalty. Family, in collectivist cultures, is defined as not just the nuclear family but the extended family and very close friends. Individualistic culture identity is defined in the person and his or her accomplishments. Family, in individualist cultures, is defined as only the nuclear family.

Uncertainty Avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is the extent to which people feel threatened by uncertainty or ambiguity and try to avoid it. In cultures with a high UAI there is a formal structure and a formal set of rules for life and work. In cultures with low UAI social rules and structure are more fluid and are suspect to change. Therefore, people in high UAI cultures feel most comfortable when the rules are outlined; while people in low UAI cultures feel more comfortable when there are fewer rules and they are able to "explore" the situation.

Predicting Study Abroad Intentions

Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, (2012) posit willingness to pay as the mediator between the three beliefs and intentions to study abroad. Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012), "define an individual's cognitive factor of willingness to pay as the extent to which he or she is prepared to expend resources towards study abroad programs, given the availability of resources." Therefore, a student may not have the ability to pay, but would pay for a study abroad program if he or she had the ability because he or she

perceives a study abroad program would help achieve certain objectives (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). Therefore, it can be assumed that if students are willing to pay for a study abroad program that they see the benefits outweighing the costs and are therefore more likely to participate in a study abroad program (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). Therefore, I hypothesize for both cultures that:

Hypothesis 1: Students' willingness to pay for study abroad programs will be positively related to their intention to study abroad.

When making the decision to study abroad, students evaluate the benefits and costs associated with participating in the program. Some students may perceive that studying abroad will help them accomplish certain goals they may have. For example, students may choose to study abroad because they believes that it will help them obtain a job after they graduate. Therefore, it can be reasonably assumed that there is a positive relationship between willingness to pay and intention to study abroad if the student believes that the program will give them an advantage in obtaining a job later. Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2A: Students' behavioral beliefs of future job prospects related to study abroad programs will be positively related to their willingness to pay for study abroad programs.

In a collectivist society a person is hired based on their "in-group" or who they know and/or are related to; while individualistic cultures would call this nepotism, this is extremely normal for collectivist societies and the relationship between employee and manager is very emotional (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Job performance in collectivist cultures does not determine the dismissal of an employee, but rather the job or task an employee is assigned (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). For example, Masuda et al. (2011) showed that in Chile, employees and companies in a collectivist

society view their relationship as long term, and part time jobs are not very common. Therefore, job prospects are not expected to be weighted heavily in a Chilean student's decision to study abroad because of the job security that he or she has within his or her family. However, the U.S. scores the highest for individualism meaning that individual accomplishments are highly rewarded (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). From an early age children are encouraged to take on small jobs to earn wages so that they can buy things themselves; examples are a paper route, chores, etc. (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Additionally, the responsibility of finding a job is mainly the individual's responsibility, with little or no help from the family. Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 2B The relationship between students' behavioral beliefs of future job prospects related to study abroad programs and their willingness to pay for study abroad programs will be stronger for TCU students than for Universidad Mayor students.

Studies have shown that family expectations influence undergraduate students' decision to study abroad (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002; Pimpa, 2003; Presely et. al., 2010). Students will likely be encouraged by their parents to participate in a study abroad program either because the parents did not have the opportunity when they were students to study abroad or because they believe that by participating in a study abroad program their child will be set apart from other students (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). Therefore, if the families were more aware of the benefits of studying abroad the more likely they would be willing to pay for their child to participate. Thus:

Hypothesis 3A: Students' normative beliefs of family expectations of study abroad will be positively related to their willingness to pay for study abroad programs.

Children in collectivist cultures grow up as part of the extended family and form fewer strong personal opinions, because opinions are predetermined by the group,

including large decisions, for example whom a family member should marry (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Therefore, students in collectivist cultures will heavily weight the decision to study abroad on family expectations. If the parent says that the student is going to study abroad, then the student will study abroad, or vice versa. Children in an individualistic society grow up as part of the nuclear family and are encouraged to express their own opinions as well as make decisions, both large and small, in a very independent manner (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Thus, students in an individualistic society will put less weight on their family's expectations because the expectation is that they will make decisions for themselves.

Additionally, the amount of power distance in a society affects the way that people interact with authority figures and how much control of a decision an individual has. In countries that have a high PDI, children are expected to obey their parents and independent behavior is not encouraged. Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). In countries that have a low PDI, children are encouraged to be independent from a young age; this includes encouraging the child to contradict the parents and think for themselves (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Additionally, PDI has been shown to have a significant positive relationship with conformity and family importance, while IDV has a significant negative relationship with family importance and conformity (Steel & Taras, 2010). Therefore, because Chile has a higher PDI and lower IDV, a student's family is going to be more involved in his or her decision to study abroad and the student would be less likely to make a decision that goes against what his or her family wants. Conversely, because the U.S. has lower PDI and higher IDV, a student has more control over the

decision and would be more likely to make a decision that goes against what his or her family wants, compared to a Chilean student. Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 3B: The relationship between students' normative beliefs of family expectations of study abroad and their willingness to pay for study abroad programs will be stronger for Universidad Mayor students than for TCU students.

Lastly, Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) hypothesize that administrative support will positively affect willingness to pay. For example, an experienced international business office staff decreases the perceived cost, as measured by time and effort, of study abroad programs (Srikatanyoo & Gnoth, 2005). Examples of administrative factors would be how well the staff has designed the program, including how helpful the staff is through the process as well as how knowledgeable the professor leading the trip is. This would help reduce the perceived cost for a study abroad program making a student more willing to pay for the study abroad program.

Hypothesis 4A: Student's control beliefs of administrative support of study abroad programs will be positively related to their willingness to pay for study abroad programs.

The amount of uncertainty avoidance in a society affects the how comfortable a person is with the unknown. In countries that have high UAI, people are more comfortable with very structured environments, assignments that have explicit instructions, clearly defined goals, and having only one correct answer. In countries with higher UAI scores, children are taught that the world is a dangerous place and to avoid unknown situations because "what is different is dangerous" (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Parents and students would be more comfortable with an administrative staff that has structured the program, with very defined and distinct options leaving little room for customization, and therefore, uncertainty. Countries with low UAI prefer academic situations to be less structured with assignments being vague and they enjoy

having more than one answer to a question (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). For example, in the U.S., study abroad programs at some universities are outsourced to third party companies. Students are the ones responsible for contacting these companies, choosing where they want to study abroad, and talking to their advisors to ensure that the classes they will take abroad will transfer back to the university as credited hours. Thus, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 4B: The relationship between students' control beliefs of administrative support of study abroad programs and their willingness to pay for study abroad programs will be stronger for Universidad Mayor students than for TCU students.

Desire can also influence a student's intention to study abroad. Desire has been included in some theory of planned behavior models as a predictor of intentions (Perugini & Bagozzi, 2001), but appears to have been tested only by Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, (2012) who found that there was a strong relationship between desire and intention to participate. Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, (2012), "define an individual's affective state of desire to participate as his or her predisposition towards study abroad programs." Students may perceive study abroad programs as being beneficial and affordable, but some students may be averse to traveling, or may not enjoy going where there the culture is different from their own (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). In contrast, other students may really want to travel and see different cultures (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). Therefore, some students have a greater desire to participate in study abroad programs than others, and this would affect a student's intention to participate (Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, 2012). Therefore, I hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 5: Students' desire to participate in study abroad programs will be positively related to their intention to study abroad.

Finally, affordability can also be a meditating variable to an individual's intentions. The theory of planned behavior can also include economic factors when predicting intentions (Nabi & Holden, 2008). Economic factors most likely apply in regards to studying abroad because of the extra cost that a student acquires when participating in a study abroad program. Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel, (2012) define affordability "as an economic consideration of the financial capacity of an individual to participate in a study abroad program." Willingness to pay and affordability are different in that willingness to pay measures if students would pay if they had the necessary resources, while affordability measures if the students actually have the necessary resources. Tuition alone is expensive and the cost of studying abroad is an additional cost to the regular tuition. Therefore, I will assume that students take economic factors into account when making the decision to participate in a study abroad program. Economic factors are important because, while students' desire to study abroad may be high if they do not have the financial means to participate then their intention will be low. Therefore I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6: Students' perceptions of affordability of study abroad programs will be positively related to their intention to study abroad.

In summary, I am replicating the study of intentions to study abroad conducted by Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) and employing Hofstede's dimensions of national culture (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010) to predict the differences between Chilean and American students for each belief that affects willingness and intention to study abroad. Students are more likely to participate in a study abroad program if they are willing to pay for it. Students are more likely to pay for a study abroad program the more desire they have to participate in the program, and the more the students perceive that the

program is affordable. Willingness to pay for Chilean students is hypothesized to have the strongest relationship with family expectations (normative belief), followed by administrative support (control belief), and future job prospects (subjective belief). Willingness to pay for American students is hypothesized to have the strongest relationship with future job prospects, followed by administrative support, and family expectations.

RESEARCH METHODS

Sample

A survey developed by Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) was administered to undergraduate business students at Texas Christian University enrolled in the marketing management course. It was also administered to business students at Universidad Mayor in Santiago and Temuco Chile. Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained for the data collection. I am using an undergraduate student sample because it was the same type of sample that Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel (2012) used.

Procedure

I collected data in two groups—a group of American students and a group of Chilean students—through a Web-based survey software package. I surveyed business students enrolled in marketing management in the spring of 2014. Students were informed of the survey in class as part of their class participation credit. There were 311 TCU students who participated in the study, but only 309 of the responses were completed and usable. Per IRB guidelines, the identities of the students were kept

separate from the responses by providing a link at the end of the survey that led to a separate survey to enter their names for participation credit. I was only able to collect nine responses from the Chilean students. Therefore, the data collected from Universidad Mayor was insufficient and hypotheses 2B, 3B,and 4B were not tested

The sample of 311 students is 57% female. The average age of a student in the sample is 20.47 years, and only 11% of the students had studied abroad prior to taking this survey.

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

In order to evaluate each construct, the internal consistency of each group of survey questions to each construct was first tested using scale analysis and measured via Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Cronbach's alpha is commonly used as a measure of internal reliability and higher values of alpha are more desirable, specifically those close to or above 0.70. Results of the scale analysis, reported in Table 1, indicate that all of the measures used exceed the .70 threshold. The hypothesized relationships between constructs, comprised of continuous variables, were then evaluated based on a series of multiple regression models.

To evaluate the results of the study, regression analysis was done in order to measure the extent to which the data supported or failed to support the hypotheses. The regression model analyzes the relationships between dependent variables and independent variables. The output of the regression will help to create a model that will create coefficients for each independent variable that will predict the value of the dependent variable. The model then applies itself to the original data and gauges how accurately it would have predicted those values. The results of that analysis determine

how good the model will be at predicting the dependent variable in the future. Regression analysis is appropriate for this data because we are looking at how well family expectations, job prospects, and administrative support predict a student's willingness to pay for a study abroad program. I also use regression analysis to look at how well willingness to pay, desire, and affordability predict a student's intention to study abroad. The hypotheses model is shown in Figure 3 and the results of the regression analysis are reported in Table 2. As expected, willingness to pay influences a student's intent to study abroad ($b=.183$, $p<.01$), thus supporting H1. Also as expected, job prospects ($b=.392$, $p<.01$), family expectations ($b=.265$, $p<.01$), and administrative support ($b=.117$, $p<.01$) influence a student's willingness to pay for a study abroad program, thus supporting H2A, H3A, and H4A. The strongest relationship is between job prospects and willingness to pay, and the weakest relationship is between administrative support and willingness to pay. This result is different from Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012) finding that the weakest relationship was between family expectations and willingness to pay. This indicates that for TCU students, family expectations play a larger role in their willingness to pay for a study abroad program.

In analyzing the data, the control variables gender had a strong impact on a student's willingness to pay with females significantly more willing to pay than males; Therefore, post hoc exploratory analysis was performed to compare the means for job prospects, family expectations, and administrative support to test whether students' opinions of the constructs are different based on gender. The post hoc comparison of means revealed that gender does indeed impact students' opinions. Males weight job prospects ($f=16.106$), and family expectations ($f=18.774$) more heavily than females

when deciding if they are willing to pay for a study abroad program or not. The results of this comparison of means are shown in Table 4. This suggests that when the TCU study abroad office is marketing their programs to students for males they need to emphasize how the program will help them with their future careers, and to get the family more involved in the decision making process.

As expected, desire (b=.635, p<.01) and perceived affordability of the program (.146, p<.01) influenced a student's intent to study abroad, thus supporting H5 and H6. The results of the regression analysis are in Table 2. These hypotheses, along with H1, support Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012) overarching model. However, this model showed that for TCU students, the desire to study abroad is a more significant indicator of their intent to study aboard than their willingness to pay or perceived affordability. I speculate that this result can perhaps be attributed to the overall wealth of the student population. The analysis also showed that the control variable age had a significant impact on a student's intent to study abroad. Therefore, post hoc we created a new regression model to test whether students' willingness to pay, desire, or perceived affordability of the program is influenced by age. The regression model showed that age did not influence willingness to pay (b=.072, p<.01), or desire (b=.081, p<.01), but did influence the perceived affordability of the program (b=.149, p<.01). This means that the older the student, the more affordable they perceive study abroad programs to be. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 7.

DISCUSSION

My paper has three main contributions. First, my findings further support that Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012)'s model can be used by researchers and study abroad professionals to enhance existing study abroad programs, and implement new programs. Secondly, my study shows that while Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012)'s study is supported, the weights that different groups of students place on each belief are not uniform and differ from group to group. Finally, my analysis shows that the indirect factors age and gender affect affordability and willingness to pay respectively. Since, business schools are trying to get more students to study abroad this information will be invaluable to their study abroad offices who can use the information to enhance their marketing strategies, as well as the overall design of the programs to influence students' intentions to study abroad.

While my findings did support Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012)'s overall model, there was a difference in the way students weighted each belief in my study and the way that the students weighted each belief in the original study. This indicates that different groups of students weight the importance of job prospects, family expectations, and administrative support differently. My results also showed that the indirect factor of gender played a role in the way that the students weighted the different antecedents. I also speculated that culture would also be a factor that affected the different weights. Further research should investigate the extent to which gender and culture affect how students weight each antecedent of willingness to pay. Another interesting difference is that TCU students weight desire as the most important factor when deciding whether or not to study abroad. This finding is different from

Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012)'s study where affordability had the strongest relationship with intent to study abroad. This could be explained by the fact that TCU students have more disposable income than the average college student. Most of their parents are a part of the upper middle-upper class and thus, are more able and willing to pay for study abroad programs. Thus, because TCU students are not as concerned with how they are going to pay for a study abroad program, the major factor that contributes to a TCU student's intent to study abroad is desire. Additionally, the post hoc analysis showed that the older a student is the more likely they are to perceive the study abroad program as affordable.

Universities can use this model to gather information about their students and adapt their marketing strategies and overall program design to fit the specific needs of the students at their university. For example, my findings indicated that TCU students weight job prospects as the most important factor in their decision to pay for a study abroad program. Currently, the only Neeley School program with an opportunity for an internship is the semester study abroad program in London. Drawing on the results of this research, the study abroad office could set up opportunities for internships or work experience in the Florence and Seville programs as well. Furthermore, the results of the post hoc analysis show that gender affects the way students at TCU weight the different constructs; specifically, males weight family expectations more than females. This information can be used by the TCU study abroad office to market study abroad programs to the parents of males, as much as they market to the male students themselves.

This information is also valuable to professors, who serve as study abroad program leaders, to understand what international skills employers value as well as what the family expectations are and incorporate those components into the study abroad program. This information can be used not only for marketing the program, but also for the overall design of the course, such as which companies and cultural sites should be planned in the program.

This information is also useful for marketing study abroad programs; For example, study abroad programs can focus on the affordability of study abroad programs when marketing to younger students. They can do this by showing the benefits of studying abroad in relation to the costs. One way of doing this would be to break down the costs of the study abroad program. For example, say a 12 day trip to Peru costs $1750 in program fees (not including tuition), the study abroad office should feature the cultural visits such as the taking a boat up the Amazon River and staying a nature reserve lodge where students will learn about ecotourism, see the Andes mountains, explore Macchu Pichu, and visit modern and traditional marketplaces where students will be able to see how retail knowledge is put into practice. Then study abroad office needs to emphasize what other costs are included in the program fee, such as hotel, entrance to the cultural sites, some meals, health insurance, and so on, and explaining how the benefits of the trip out weight the costs.

While I was not able to collect data from the Chilean students I will discuss the implications assuming the hypotheses would have been supported. Universidad Mayor study abroad program should combine family expectations and administrative support to increase a student's willingness to pay. They can do this by changing the overall design

of the program, making sure the programs they offer are very structured, leaving little uncertainty, making not only the student feel safe, but making the parents feel that their child will be safe as well. Also, when they market their study abroad programs they can emphasize the structure and the overall safety of the program as well as market to the parents, involving them in the decision making process. Another way to market study abroad programs is to combine family expectations and job prospects. While the students may already have job security with the family business, showing parents and students the benefits of how studying abroad can enhance job skills, such as the ability to speak English, would help parents understand how studying abroad can improve their child's position within the company and help them stand out amongst their peers.

There are many other ways to creatively and innovatively combine the different factors to influence a student's intention to study abroad. With this knowledge, study abroad faculty can create and/or enhance study abroad programs so that more students are willing to participate and so that students receive the most benefits from the program.

I acknowledge that there are several limitations to my study. Foremost, I was not able to collect sufficient data from Chile. It would be interesting to see how the Chilean students actually weight job prospects, family expectations, and administrative support when deciding if they're willing to pay for a study abroad program. Additionally the data I did collect is a limited sample, the students surveyed only came from one university. Therefore, my conclusions and recommendations can only be applied to the TCU student body. Another limitation is that there are no factors in the model that are antecedents to desire and affordability. Researching these factors could be useful for universities, like TCU, where desire is the main factor influencing a student's decision. Marketing

programs would be able to influence a student's desire to study abroad. Finally, because a primary goal of this research was to replicate Schunsenberg, de Jong, and Goel's (2012) study, the model contained only three antecedents to willingness to pay. Future research should investigate other possible drivers such as the extent to which the study abroad program is expected to be fun or provide a new and unique experience.

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APPENDIX A

TABLE 1
Measures and Construct Reliability

Construct	Items
Intention to Participate α = 0.979[1]	I intend to study abroad. I plan to go on a study abroad program. It is my intention to go on a study abroad program. I aim to go on a study abroad program. I mean to go on a study abroad program. I am determined to go on a study abroad program.
Willingness to Pay α = 0.840	Even if I can afford to spend on a study abroad program, I will not / do so[2] I do not think study abroad programs are worth it[2] I would not pay for study abroad programs even if I could[2]
Job Prospects α = 0.908	Studying abroad will give me a competitive advantage in the job / market. Skills obtained through study abroad will allow me to advance in my / career at a greater pace. A study abroad program will help me achieve my professional goals / quicker.
Family Expectations α = 0.919	My family encourages me to go on study abroad programs. My family thinks that a study abroad program is valuable for my / personal development. My family thinks that a study abroad program is valuable for my / professional development.
Administrative support α = 0.871	The university's study abroad office appears to care for my safety / while I am abroad. The faculty on the study abroad programs seem to have the knowledge / to lead me on the program. The university's study abroad office and staff have a good / reputation. The university's study abroad staff seems helpful in providing / necessary information. The university's study abroad staff seems adept in dealing with / problems. The university's professors seem qualified at leading study abroad / programs. The university seems to have the required expertise for study / abroad programs.
Desire α = 0.969	I would like to participate in a study abroad program. I wish to go on a study abroad program. I desire to go on a study abroad program. I aspire to go on a study abroad program. I am eager to go on a study abroad program.

TABLE 1 Cont.
Measures Construct Reliability

Construct	Items
Desire α = 0.969	Study abroad programs are attractive to me.
Affordability α = 0.926	Participating in a study abroad program is within my financial / means. I can afford to participate in a study abroad program. Study abroad programs are too expensive for me[2].

[1] Denotes coefficient alpha (internal consistency) of reflective measures (Fornell and Larker 1981)
[2] Reverse-coded

TABLE 2
Test of Hypothesized Relationships: Beta Coefficients, P-Value, and T-Values[a],

Antecedents	Willingness to Pay
Job Prospects	.392, .000 (6.874)
Family Expectations	.265, .000 (4.585)
Administrative Support	.117, .009 (2.637)
Control Variable: Age	-.008, .844 (-.197)
Control Variable: Gender	-.199, .000, (-4.759)
Control Variable: Study Abroad	-.066, .113 (-1.590)
Construct R^2	0.505

[a]T-values reported in parentheses

TABLE 3
Test of Hypothesized Relationships: Beta Coefficients, P-Value, and T-Values'

Antecedents	Intent to Study Abroad
Willingness to Pay	.183, .001 (3.377)
Desire	.635, .000 (11.708)
Affordability	.146, .000 (4.964)
Control Variable: Age	.91, .002 (3.162)
Control Variable: Gender	-.022, .481, (-.705)
Control Variable: Study Abroad	-.099, .001 (3.434)
Construct R^2	0.753

[a]T-values reported in parentheses

TABLE 4

One-Way Anova

		Mean	SD	SE	Between Groups
Job	Males	3.202	1.479	0.128	F=16.106
	Females	2.554	1.337	0.101	Sig.= .000
Family Expectations	Males	3.369	1.578	0.137	F=18.774
	Females	2.609	1.476	0.111	Sig.= .000
Administrative Support	Males	2.357	0.76	0.066	F= .338
	Females	2.298	0.947	0.071	Sig.=.561

TABLE 5

Test of Hypothesized Relationships: Beta Coefficients, P-Value, and T-Values[a]

Antecedents	Willingness to Pay
Age	.072, .208 (1.263)

[a]T-values reported in parentheses

TABLE 6

Test of Hypothesized Relationships: Beta Coefficients, P-Value, and T-Values[a]

Antecedents	Desire
Age	.081, .154 (1.428)

[a]T-values reported in parentheses

TABLE 7

Test of Hypothesized Relationships: Beta Coefficients, P-Value, and T-Values[a]

Antecedents	Affordability
Age	.149, .009 (2.638)

[a]T-values reported in parentheses

APPENDIX B

Figure 1:Theory of Planned Behavior (Azjen 1985, 1991)

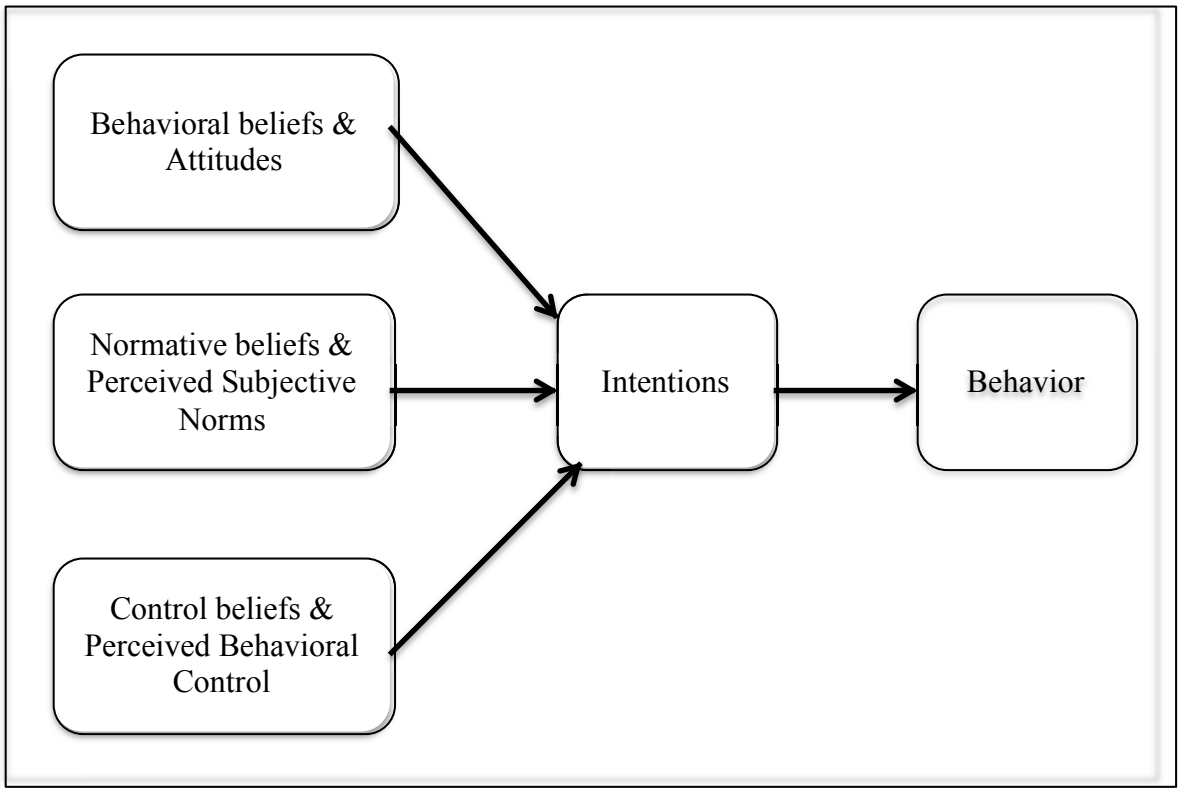

Figure 2: Hofstede's Cultural Diminesons Scores for Chile and the U.S.

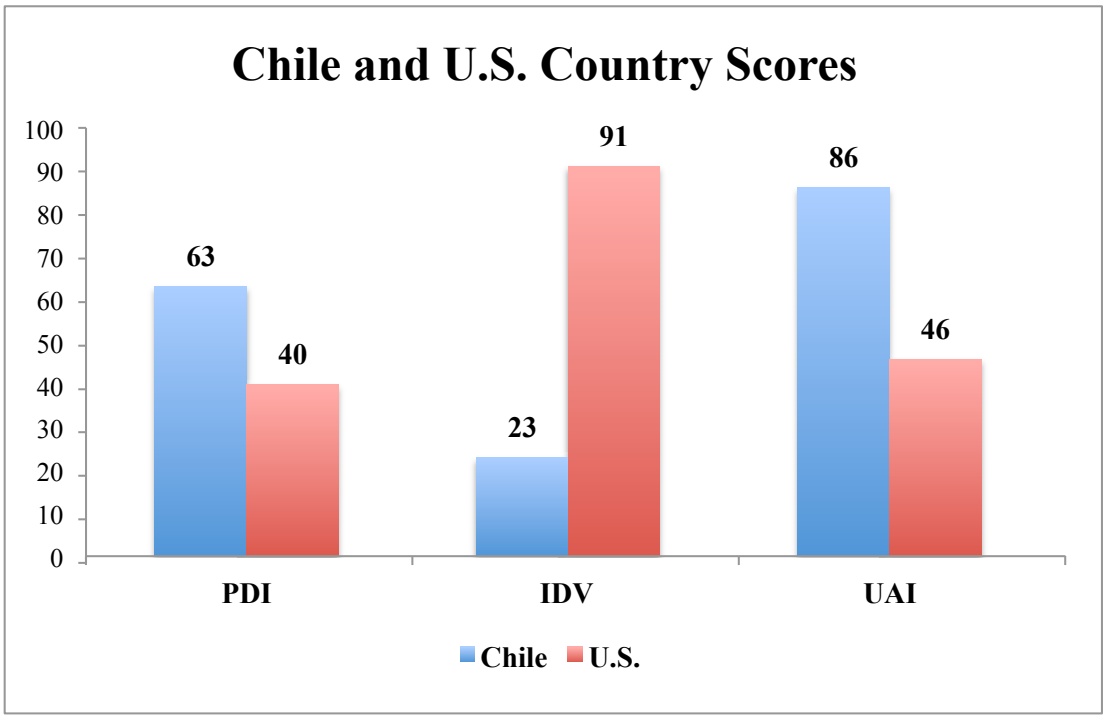
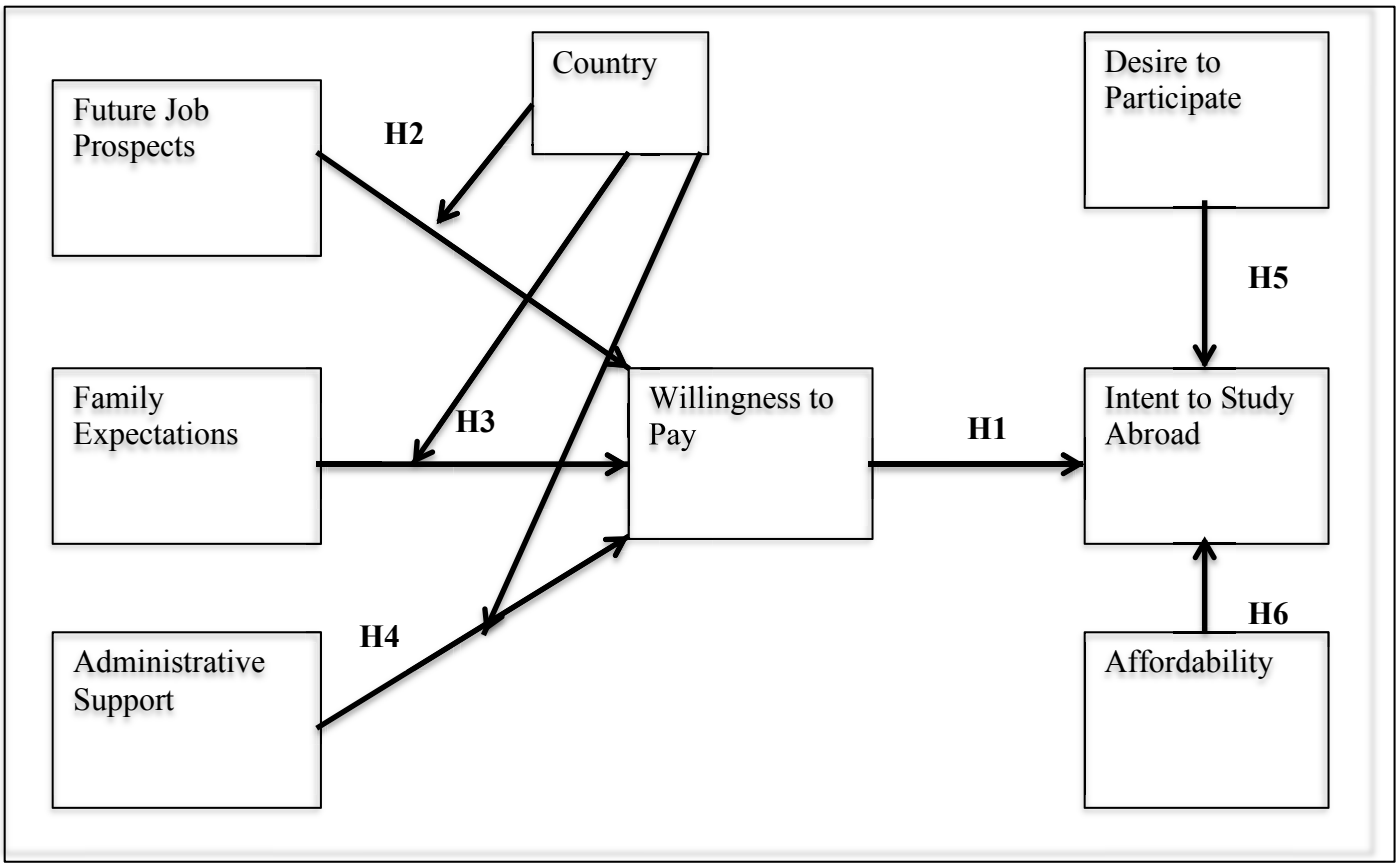
Figure 3: Hypotheses Model