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Does Faculty-Led Short-Term Study Abroad Improve Students' Global Competence? Findings From a Systematic Review and Evidence Gap Map

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Abstract

As a high-impact pedagogical practice, study abroad is frequently utilized as an internationalization strategy to build post-secondary students' global competence, but the impact of faculty-led short-term study abroad may vary widely across outcomes of interest. An understanding of student learning outcomes is especially needed now as COVID-19 begins to shift from pandemic to endemic and universities restart international initiatives. This systematic review synthesized and mapped evidence on global competence outcomes of short-term study abroad for undergraduate and graduate students. Studies (n=92) reported a total of 215 outcomes representing the three global competence domains of knowledge (41.4% of all outcomes), attitudes (38.1%), and skills (20.5%). Data sources used to assess global competence outcomes included self-administered surveys (40.1% of assessments), student journals (24.9%), and qualitative interviews (13.6%). While findings from this sample of studies offer evidence of positive impact of short-term study abroad on students'

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global competence, the substantive and methodological evidence gaps identified can help to build conceptual clarity and guide design of future assessment approaches.

Abstract in Spanish

Como práctica pedagógica de alto impacto, estudiar en el extranjero se utiliza con frecuencia como una estrategia de internacionalización para desarrollar la competencia global de los estudiantes postsecundarios, pero el impacto de los estudios a corto plazo dirigidos por profesores en el extranjero puede variar ampliamente según los resultados de interés. La comprensión de los resultados de aprendizaje de los estudiantes es especialmente necesaria hoy en día que COVID-19 comienza a cambiar de pandemia a endémica y las universidades reinician las iniciativas internacionales. Esta revisión sistemática sintetizó y mapeó la evidencia sobre los resultados de competencia global de los estudios a corto plazo en el extranjero para estudiantes de pregrado y posgrado. Los estudios (n = 92) informaron un total de 215 resultados que representan los tres dominios de competencia global de conocimiento (41,4% de todos los resultados), actitudes (38,1%) y habilidades (20,5%). Las fuentes de datos utilizadas para evaluar los resultados de competencia global incluyeron encuestas autoadministradas (40,1% de las evaluaciones), revistas estudiantiles (24,9%) y entrevistas cualitativas (13,6%). Mientras los hallazgos de esta muestra de estudios ofrecen evidencia del impacto positivo de los estudios a corto plazo en el extranjero en la competencia global de los estudiantes, las brechas de evidencia sustantiva y metodológica identificadas pueden ayudar a construir claridad conceptual y guiar el diseño de futuros enfoques de evaluación.

Keywords:

Global competence, faculty-led, short-term study abroad, systematic review

Introduction

Institutions of higher education in the United States are increasingly focused on internationalization strategies to enhance students' global competence and prepare graduates for the "immense complexities of today's global issues" (Jansa & Anderson, 2021, p. 7). Global education is now recognized as an important component of the education experience that provides lasting impact and future benefits for participants. Global competence as a concept informs the ways in which we encourage and train people to interact with, and open themselves to, other cultures, and to build the relationship capital that makes global relationships possible (Hunter et al., 2006; Organization for

Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD], 2018). Graduates must be globally aware and competent to function effectively in a global environment (Hunter, 2004; National Association of Colleges and Employers [NACE], 2021), but understanding what that means is more complex, as is identifying a graduate who possesses those qualities. Given that employer demand for globally competent workers is high (Battelle for Kids, 2019; Mansilla & Jackson, 2011; Trilling & Fadel, 2009), a focus on students' global competence and the development of "global selves" is key for achieving campus internationalization efforts (Jansa & Anderson, 2021; United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2015).

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. However, higher education institutions were faced with unprecedented disruption to and abrupt discontinuation of education abroad programs in March 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic. In response, many institutions pivoted to "internationalization at home" strategies such as virtual exchanges and programs focusing on interactions with local immigrant and refugee populations (Jansa & Anderson, 2021; Liu & Shirley, 2021; Rogers, 2020) to maintain viable global education opportunities in the curriculum. Now, as COVID-19 begins to shift from pandemic to endemic, administrators and instructors are faced with the question of when and how to resume traditional education abroad initiatives. This collective pause in higher education abroad programming, however, has presented a prime opportunity to examine the impact of such programs on students' global competence and to contribute to answering a broader question, which is: *should* these programs resume?

Despite their widespread use across U.S. higher education institutions in recent decades, the extent to which short-term abroad programs provide the type of transformative learning necessary to enhance global learning outcomes to meet the needs of the evolving global economy remains underexplored in the research literature. To address this gap, we conducted a systematic review of faculty-led short-term education abroad and its impact on students' global competence using Hunter's (2004) Model of Global Competence as our conceptual and analytic framework. Additionally, we mapped learning

outcomes onto the data sources used to assess study abroad impacts to create a picture of the current state of evidence.

Conceptualizing Global Competence in Higher Education

The construct of global competence has been conceptualized in several ways; however, its core components have consistently encompassed knowledge, skills, and attitudes. For example, the global learning VALUE rubric from the American Association of Colleges and Universities' (2014) identifies six key components including global self-awareness, perspective taking, cultural diversity, personal and social responsibility, global systems, and knowledge application. The American Council on Education (n.d.) articulated a three-part framework to assess international learning, outlining a series of nine learning outcomes (three for each KSA category) indicating that would demonstrate that a graduating student had attained global competence. The Knowledge category, for example, encompassed an understanding of one's own culture, of other cultures, and understanding of "global issues, processes, trends, and systems" (p. 2). Similarly, Reimers (2009) articulated a "tri-dimensional nature of global competency" that also centered on knowledge, skills, and attitudes.

Globally competent individuals demonstrate open-mindedness as well as awareness of their limited understanding of other cultures with authentic efforts toward learning and valuing knowledge derived from indigenous experiences and ways of knowing (Auld & Morris, 2019; Deardorff, 2006; Reysen & Katzarska-Miller, 2018; Westheimer & Kahne, 2004; Zhou & Green, 2021). This implies that globally competent people understand the limits of their own knowledge and strive to develop capacity for cross-cultural communication. Minimally, it requires that students develop a sense of global consciousness that enables them to understand their role and responsibility in contributing to a more just society for all humans across the globe (Auld & Morris, 2019; Braskamp et al., 2008; Chickering & Braskamp, 2009). Educational experiences designed to cultivate global competency should challenge students' beliefs about the world and their place in it and expose them to history and norms outside of their comfort zone (Braskamp, 2010; Zhou & Green, 2021).

A formal theoretical model of global competence was developed by Hunter (2004) through extensive interaction with diverse stakeholders including international educators and industry managers. Global competence

was broadly defined as "having an open mind while actively seeking to understand cultural norms and expectations of others, leveraging this gained knowledge to interact, communicate, and work effectively outside one's environment" (pp. 130-131). Similar to other conceptualizations, Hunter's model posits knowledge, attitudes, and skills as the three dimensions of global competence. Unique to this model, however, was the identification of an encompassing series of dimension components and articulation of its contribution to either an internal or external state of readiness. The framework proposed by Hunter (2004) stipulates five components of knowledge, seven attitudinal components, and six skills components as depicted in Table (1).

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 on 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**		

TABLE (1): HUNTER'S (2004) MODEL OF GLOBAL COMPETENCE (EMPHASIS BY THE AUTHORS)

Education Abroad as a Strategy to Build Global Competency

Education abroad represents one approach to challenge college students' perspectives and inspire them to think outside their own cultural boundaries (Clifford & Montgomery, 2014; Horey et al., 2018) while advancing global

competence and knowledge of global matters (Gundersen, 2014; Ogden & Streitwieser, 2016). Education abroad can influence students' attitudes, interpersonal communication, and academic learning, as well as expose them to rapidly changing situations that require flexibility and adaptability (Deruy, 2016; Haas, 2018; Paige et al., 2004). As a "high impact" pedagogical practice (Kuh, 2008), education abroad can produce the type of transformational learning that fosters personal growth, intercultural development, and career attainment (Deardorff, 2009; Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Farrugia & Sanger, 2017; Kohli Bagwe & Haskollar, 2020).

While the traditional concept of education abroad has been semester or year-long international experiences, short-term programs of eight weeks or less in duration have accounted for the majority of the growth (103%) in education abroad experiences over the last fifteen years (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2020, 2021). While the Institute is not specific on the structure of these programs, the significant increase is likely attributed to faculty innovation and development of short-term faculty-led programs, which also supports institutional goals while providing cross-campus engagement in internationalization efforts (IIE, 2020, 2021).

Evaluations of education abroad experiences have also largely focused on the benefits of longer immersions (Deardorff, 2009; Dwyer & Peters, 2004; Farrugia & Sanger, 2017), yet research suggests that short-term programs are also transformative and may improve students' global competencies in a variety of contexts (Andha et al., 2020; Dwyer, 2004; Krishnan & Jin, 2022; Lewis & Niesenbaum, 2005; Richards & Doorenbos, 2016). For example, Dwyer and Peters' (2004) longitudinal study on the impact of diverse education abroad programs on five areas of learning compared full year abroad experiences with shorter term programs. Findings indicated that while full-year programs offered the most sustainable and significant impact, short-term programs provided greater impact than semester-long programs, leading the author to attribute these short-term gains to these programs' careful planning and intentional design to provide high-impact student experiences within a shorter time frame. Similarly, Vande Berg et al. (2009) suggest that on-site support during study aboard programs could increase student learning outcomes regardless of the duration of the program.

Global competency provides a meaningful lens through which to evaluate the impact of short-term study abroad because it requires engagement beyond superficial exposure to a foreign country or culture—arguably, one of the greatest challenges of programs affording less time in the target country. The inclusion of activities designed to provide deeper engagement with global issues and foreign cultures—such as research opportunities, service-learning and community engagement activities, and cultural mentorship from local community members—may support building global competencies even in these shorter time contexts. For example, experiential education and direct involvement with the host partners (e.g., working outside their comfort zone, reflecting on their own place in the world, and questioning their unintended participation in promoting the status quo) provide students with the experiences needed to develop global competencies (Wade et al., 2001). Experiential learning experiences can help students to transform their understanding of human difference and commonality, identifying structures of injustice and inequality, promoting awareness to recognize systems of oppression and power, and addressing social justice issues from the perspective of international partners (Jacoby, 2015). To foster meaningful impact on students' global learning, short-term education abroad programs must avoid the traps of academic voyeurism and surface examinations of an international context to facilitate deeper engagement between students and local communities abroad (Fisher & Grettenberger, 2015). Previous research has noted several ways to foster deeper engagement such as on-site mentoring, spending time with host nationals and critical reflection (Vande Berg et al., 2004; Vande Berg et al., 2009; Whatley et al., 2021).

Despite the potential of these popular programs, however, the extent to which short-term study abroad impacts global competencies, and in which domains, remains underexplored in the literature. This systematic review aimed to address this gap by synthesizing and mapping the research evidence. The following research questions guided the study: (1) What is the impact of participation in short-term study abroad on undergraduate and graduate students' global competence knowledge, skills, and attitudes? and (2) What is the state of evidence in this area?

Methods

Systematic reviews have been used for decades in health science research and are growing within educational fields (Kosman et al., 2021; Tijsma et al., 2020; Zawacki-Richter et al., 2020). The standards for systematic reviews are clearly defined and internationally accepted in order to provide evidence-based data synthesis for research-driven decision making, setting them apart from literature reviews (Aromataris & Pearson, 2014). Rigorous best practice for systematic reviews requires multiple reviewers for data coding, while transparently recognizing limitations of subjectivity.

This systematic review identified and synthesized evidence on global competence outcomes of participation in faculty-led short-term study abroad. Our process and reporting for this study followed guidelines established in the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (Moher et al., 2009) and PRISMA-S extension for search reporting (Rethlefsen et al., 2019).

Systematic Search Strategy

Comprehensive search strategies were developed to retrieve English-language empirical studies reporting outcomes of faculty-led short-term study abroad for undergraduate or graduate students' global competencies. Database searches were performed in two databases selected for their coverage of the literature relating to higher education, ERIC, and Education Source, both via EBSCOHost. We additionally search Scopus, selected for its broad coverage of disciplines. Search strategies were customized to each individual database and included 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 to EndNote X9 citation management software for identification of duplicates. After deduplication, 2,846 articles were loaded into Rayyan QCRI and Endnote for screening. Figure (1) summarizes the flow of information through the search and screening process.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Searches were restricted to peer-reviewed empirical articles published in English. Recognizing the impact of the attacks of September 11, 2001, in the U.S. on international travel and the renewed efforts to build education abroad efforts afterward (IIE, 2020; Lutterman-Aguilar & Gingerich, 2002), the search was limited to studies published after January 1, 2002. Studies were limited to those with home institutions in the United States to control for the effect of potentially vast differences in educational systems and sociocultural factors between countries, although we understand that some variability inherently exists among U.S. institutions, as well.

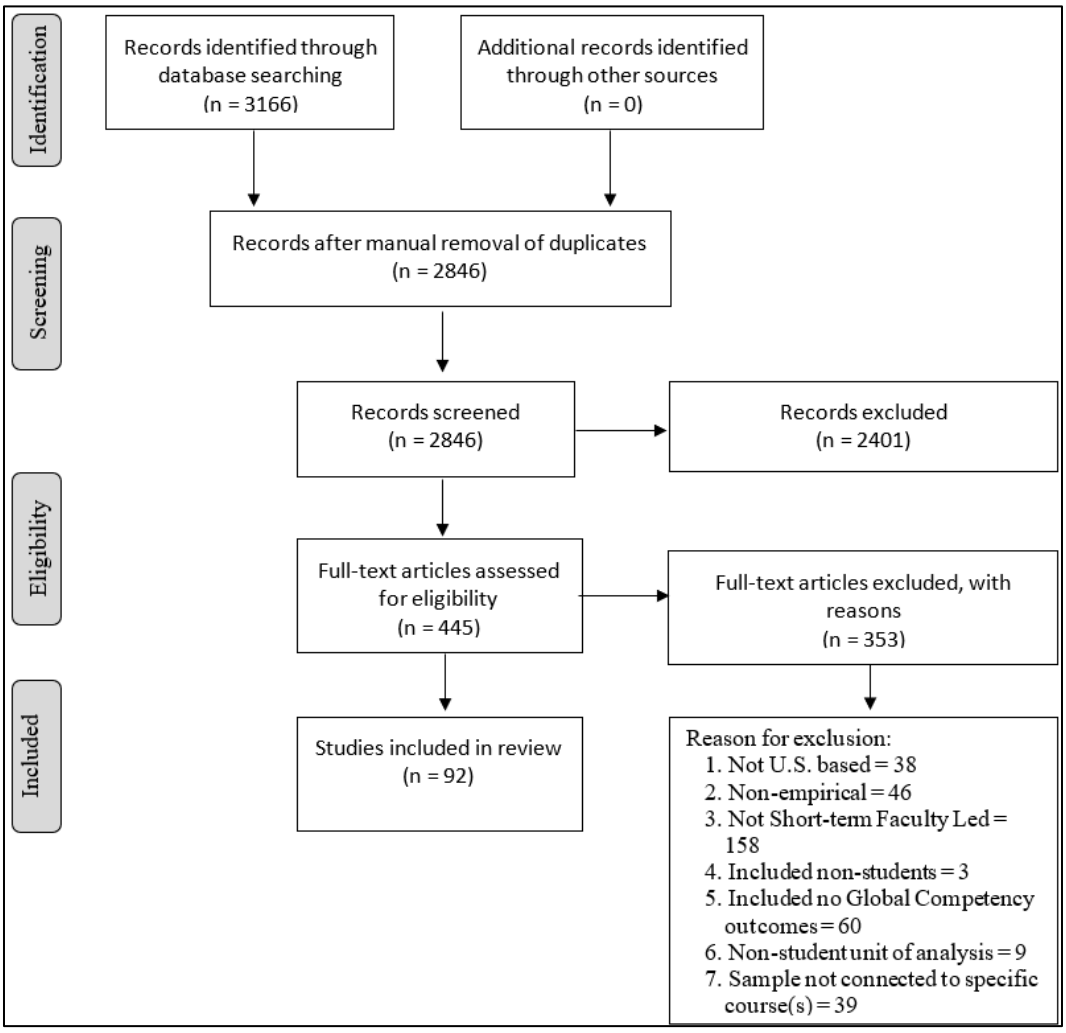

FIGURE (1): PRISMA DIAGRAM

Additional selection criteria were (a) faculty-led, (b) credit-bearing (undergraduate or graduate), (c) short-term (i.e., travel for eight weeks or less) study abroad courses that (d) included assessment of at least one global competence learning outcome related to Hunter's model. All types of empirical studies (quantitative, qualitative, mixed methods) were included, but studies were excluded if the unit of analysis was not students (i.e., case studies of a program). Articles reporting data from both single courses and multiple courses were eligible for inclusion, but multi-course studies were retained only if the courses the sample was drawn from were described in the article (e.g., a retrospective study of all students participating in study abroad university wide during the previous 10 years was excluded).

Screening and Study Selection

Studies were screened in a two-stage process. First, two research team members independently reviewed the title and abstract for each study to determine if returned articles met the above-listed inclusion criteria. Studies that met all criteria for inclusion and those for which a determination could not be made from the abstract alone were retained (n=445). Full-text articles were then obtained and reviewed independently by two different research team members.

Following individual screening, a third researcher reviewed results to identify inter-rater disagreements then discrepancies were resolved through discussion by the initial screeners who re-consulted the study for further review. After full article review, the remaining studies were examined to ensure they were independent from each other with unique samples. These procedures resulted in a final sample of 92 independent studies.

Coding of Studies

Two authors independently extracted information from each article: reference details, course characteristics (destination country, trip length, sample size), global competence outcome(s), and data source used to assess each outcome. Study abroad course disciplines were categorized using the U.S. Department of Education's Classification of Instructional Programs Codes (National Center for Education Statistics, 2010). Studies were coded as either "single course single country," "single course multiple countries," or "multi-course multi-country." Destination countries were coded into global regions

using Open Doors (2020) classifications. To achieve a comparable duration frame across studies, those reporting study abroad trip length was reported in the form of days were converted to number of weeks (e.g., 9 days was coded as 1.29 weeks) in order to achieve a comparable duration frame across studies.

We used Hunter's (2004) model as the framework to extract and code outcomes by global competence domain (i.e., knowledge, attitudes, or skills), category (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). Classification of each global competence related outcome into domains and categories ranged from straightforward (e.g., deductive studies using established assessment measures) to more interpretive (e.g., in instances when a significant variation in terminology was observed such as for inductive research using in vivo themes to report study abroad outcomes). For example, outcomes classified as "non-judgmental attitude" (category A6 in Hunter's model) were described in language ranging from "cultural sensitivity" and "intergroup empathy" to "growing competence and appreciation" by study authors, but contextual descriptions provided in the articles supported the underlying construct of non-judgment of other cultures. In all cases, classification followed the inter-rater agreement processes noted above.

Finally, data sources used to assess each outcome were classified into five groups: (a) survey, (b) qualitative interview (individual or group), (c) instructor observation, (d) student journals, (e) student creative works, and (f) academic paper or similar course assignment. Any discrepancies in the interpretation or coding of information presented in the underlying articles were discussed by the two reviewers and then all authors if needed until consensus was reached.

Mapping Global Competence Evidence and Gaps

A matrix framework modeled on Evidence Gap Map (EGM) methodology (Snilstveit et al., 2016) was employed to synthesize and visually depict the state of evidence on the impact of faculty-led short-term study abroad on students' global competence. EGMs are designed to highlight both the best available evidence on a topic and any corresponding gaps in knowledge (Virendrakumar et al., 2016). The visual structure of EGMs effectively consolidates what is known and unknown about effects in a particular thematic area, making them a useful

tool for advancing research (Snilstveit et al., 2016). Although typical use plots interventions against outcomes using systematic review data, any type of research evidence can be mapped (Virendrakumar et al., 2016). Given that all studies in our systematic review utilized some version of the same intervention (i.e., short-term faculty-led study abroad), our adaptation of this approach involved mapping outcomes against the data sources used to assess those outcomes to synthesize *what* is known about the impact of short-term study abroad on students' global competencies and *how* we know it.

Results

The final study sample (n=92) 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 (79.4%), single course, multiple destinations (12.0%), and multiple courses, multiple destinations (8.7%). 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 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) below lists the details of each study, including authors, sample size, assessment strategy, global competence outcome(s), and direction of change for each outcome (a reference list of all 92 included studies is available from the authors).

TABLE (2): CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDIES INCLUDED IN REVIEW (N=92)

Author(s)	Sample Size	Global Competence Categories Reported	Data Source(s)[a]	Direction of Effect[b]
Alexis et al. (2017)	21	K5. Globalization	Q	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	Q	+
Allen et al. (2019)	16	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	C	+
		A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	C	+
		A4. Openness to new experiences	C	+
Anderson et al. (2006)	16	A6. Non-judgmental	S	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	S	+

Anderson-Sathe & Geisler (2017)	13	A7. Celebrating diversity	QJC	+
		A1. One's own worldview is not universal	J	+
		S1. Identify cultural differences	J	+
Assaf et al. (2019)	7	A5. Coping with different cultures	JQ	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JQ	+
Bai et al. (2016)	8	A4. Openness to new experiences	Q	+
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	JQ	+
Bell et al. (2016)	150	K4. Current World Events	S	+
		K5. Globalization	S	+
Black & Duhon (2006)	26	A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	S	+
		A4. Openness to new experiences	S	+
		A5. Coping with different cultures	S	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	S	+
Bloom & Miranda (2015)	12	A6. Non-judgmental	SJ	—
Bott-Knutson et al. (2019)	96	A4. Openness to new experiences	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
Brooks (2005)	15	A6. Non-judgmental	S	+
Bunch et al. (2018)	4	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JQ	+
Byker & Putman (2019)	21	A6. Non-judgmental	SJ	+
		K5. Globalization	SJ	+
Cade (2015)	13	A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	Q	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	Q	+
		K5. Globalization	Q	+
Caldwell & Purtzer (2015)	41	S3. Collaborate across cultures	Q	+
		A1. One's own worldview is not universal	S	+
		A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	S	+
Chaponniere & Hall (2020)	55	A5. Coping with different cultures	J	+
Claussen et al. (2019)	9	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	J	+
		A6. Non-judgmental	J	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
		S4. Projects with people from other cultures	J	+
		S6. Participation in	J	+

		social/professional settings globally		
Conner & Roberts (2015)	15	S2. Live outside one's own culture	SJ	+
Conroy, & Taggart (2016)	21	A6. Non-judgmental K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S SJ	+ +
Cotten & Thompson (2017)	12	A5. Coping with different cultures K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	P S	+ +
Curtin et al. (2015)	11	A3. Willingness to take risks K5. Globalization	S S	+ +
Czerwionka et al. (2015)	36	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	Q	+
Dantas (2007)	6	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SQJI	+
Dass-Brailsford & Serrano (2010)	12	A1. One's own worldview is not universal K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others S2. Live outside one's own culture	QP QP QP	+ + +
Davies et al. (2015)	16	A1. One's own worldview is not universal K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others S3. Collaborate across cultures	Q Q S	+ + +
Demetry & Vaz (2017)	21	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others S1. Identify cultural differences A6. Non-judgmental	Q Q SQ	— + +
Dietz & Baker (2019)	8	A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SJ SJ	+ +
Earnest et al. (2016)	25	A4. Openness to new experiences A5. Coping with different cultures	S S	— +
Fitzgerald et al. (2018)	10	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	—
Foster et al. (2014)	18	A3. Willingness to take risks K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others S3. Collaborate across cultures	S S S	+ + +

Gains-Hanks & Graynam-Simpson (2009)	12	A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	S	+
		S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally	S	+
Gibson et al. (2012)	32	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SJ	+
		K4. Current World Events	SJ	+
Gondra & Czerwionka (2018)	26	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
Grant (2019)	11	S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
Grant et al. (2019)	19	S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
Harris et al. (2019)	48	S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
Harrison & Palmer (2019)	76	A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	P	+
		S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally	P	+
Hatipoglu et al. (2014)	15	S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally	S	—
Howard et al. (2017)	26	S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally	S	+
Iqbal (2019)	92	S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
Ismail et al. (2006)	23	A7. Celebrating diversity	S	+
Kako & Klingbeil (2019)	21	S3. Collaborate across cultures	J	+
Kanarowski & Johnston (2014)	8	S3. Collaborate across cultures	JQ	+
Krishnan et al. (2016)	12	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JPI	+
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
Le & Raven (2015)	30	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	J	+
		A7. Celebrating diversity	J	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
Le et al. (2013)	17	K1. one's own cultural norms	J	+
Lee & Negrelli (2018)	17	K1. one's own cultural norms	S	+
Lewis & Niesenbaum (2005)	32	K5. Globalization	S	+

Lindsey (2005)	29	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	JP	+
		A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	JP	+
		A4. Openness to new experiences	JP	+
		A4. Openness to new experiences	JP	+
		A5. Coping with different cultures	JP	+
		K5. Globalization	JP	+
Lumkes et al. (2012)	13	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	—
		K5. Globalization	S	+
Lyons et al. (2018)	36	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	SP	+
Marchant et al. (2018)	11	S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
		S4. Projects with people from other cultures	S	+
Marx & Pray (2011)	10	A5. Coping with different cultures	SIJ	+
		A6. Non-judgmental	SIJ	+
Mason & Their (2018)	10	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	J	+
		A4. Openness to new experiences	J	+
		A6. Non-judgmental	J	+
		A7. Celebrating diversity	J	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
		K5. Globalization	J	+
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	J	+
Mason et al. (2018)	38	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		K3. World history	S	+
McMullen & Penn (2011)	N/R	A7. Celebrating diversity	PI	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	PI	+
		K5. Globalization	PI	+
Medina-Lopez & Portillo (2004)	18	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	S	—
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SQ	—
		A6. Non-judgmental	SQ	+
Mizrahi et al. (2017)	44	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	SC	+
		A1. One's own worldview is not universal	SC	+
		S4. Projects with people from other cultures	SC	+

Moreno-Lopez et al. (2017)	29	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
Motley & Sturgill (2013)	29	A6. Non-judgmental	QJC	+
Nagengast (2017)	37	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	SP	—
Nero (2018)	17	A5. Coping with different cultures	S	—
Niendorf & Alberts (2017)	20	A4. Openness to new experiences	S	—
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	—
		A6. Non-judgmental	S	+
Nordmeyer et al. (2017)	19	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	P	+
		K4. Current World Events	P	+
Olson & Lalley (2012)	101	A6. Non-judgmental	S	+
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	+
		S4. Projects with people from other cultures	S	+
Parker & Dautoff (2007)	13	K1. one's own cultural norms	SJ	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SJ	+
		K5. Globalization	SJ	+
Pedersen (2009)	13	A6. Non-judgmental	S	+
Peppas (2005)	70	A7. Celebrating diversity	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		K5. Globalization	S	+
Philips et al. (2017)	62	A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	P	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	P	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	P	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	P	+
Phillion et al. (2009)	54	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JQ	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JQ	+
		K4. Current World Events	JQ	+
Prins & Webster (2010)	7	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	QIC	+
		K5. Globalization	QIC	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	QIC	+
Prohn et al. (2016)	9	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	J	+

Prosek & Michel (2016)	13	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	Q	+
		K5. Globalization	Q	+
Ripple (2010)	16	K5. Globalization	SJ	+
		K5. Globalization	SJ	+
Rodriguez (2011)	6	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
Rosch & Haber-Curran (2013)	10	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	P	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	P	+
Rustambekov & Mohan (2017)	88	A3. Willingness to take risks	S	+
		A5. Coping with different cultures	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally	S	+
Schenker (2019)	42	A4. Openness to new experiences	S	—
		A7. Celebrating diversity	S	—
		K3. World history	S	—
		K4. Current World Events	S	—
		S3. Collaborate across cultures	S	—
		A1. One's own worldview is not universal	S	+
		A3. Willingness to take risks	S	+
		S1. Identify cultural differences	S	+
Scott et al. (2019)	12	S1. Identify cultural differences	S	—
		A1. One's own worldview is not universal	S	—
Sharma et al. (2011)	49	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	QIJP	+
		A4. Openness to new experiences	QIJP	+
		A5. Coping with different cultures	QIJP	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	QIJP	+
Shoffner (2019)	15	S2. Live outside one's own culture	SQJ	+
Smith & Moreno-Lopez (2012)	13	S1. Identify cultural differences	P	+
Smith & Yang (2017)	28	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	—
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	—
		K5. Globalization	S	—
		K2. Cultural norms and	S	+

		expectations of others K3. World history	S	+
Smith et al. (2014)	17	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	SP	+
		K1. one's own cultural norms	SP	+
		K1. one's own cultural norms	SP	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SP	+
		K3. World history	SP	+
		K5. Globalization	SP	+
Smith-Augustine et al. (2014)	5	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	J	+
		A6. Non-judgmental	J	+
		K1. one's own cultural norms	J	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
Tarrant et al. (2014)	651	K5. Globalization	S	+
Taylor & Shore (2019)	16	A5. Coping with different cultures	SP	+
		S2. Live outside one's own culture	SP	+
Vatalaro et al. (2015)	5	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	SJ	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SJ	+
Wall-Bassett et al. (2018)	8	A1. One's own worldview is not universal	J	+
		A3. Willingness to take risks	J	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	J	+
Wood & Peters (2014)	42	S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally	S	—
		A3. Willingness to take risks	S	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	S	+
		A5. Coping with different cultures	SJ	+
Wu & Martin (2018)	10	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JP	+
		K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	JP	+
Zhang et al. (2019)	15	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SQJ	+
		A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture	SQJ	+

	K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others	SQJ	+

[a] Data sources: S = survey, Q = qualitative interview, I = instructor observation, P = academic paper, J = student journals, C = student creative works

[b] "+" indicates improvement following study abroad participation, "—" indicates no improvement or decline following participation

Outcome Assessment Type

Five primary data sources were used to assess students' global competence outcomes across the studies reviewed. Self-administered surveys were most common, used in 40.1% of all outcome assessments, followed by student travel journals (24.9%). Instructors utilized some form of qualitative inquiry to assess 13.6% of outcomes; these were typically one-on-one or focus group interviews but occasionally included class activities that had been audio recorded and analyzed thematically. For example, Phillion et al. (2009) audio recorded classroom discussions and mealtime group discussions while abroad then transcribed an analyzed these narratives. Traditional academic papers or similar written course assignments were utilized in 13.3% of cases. Less frequently utilized were instructor observations of students while abroad (4.5%) and students' creative works (3.6%) which included blog posts, drawings, photos and photo narratives, and discussion board comments.

Students' global competence gains were assessed using a single data source in a majority (66.5%) of cases. Slightly more than one-fourth of outcomes were evaluated using two data sources (27.0%), with a small minority of instructors drawing on three (4.2%) or four (2.3%) distinct sources of information about students' study abroad experiences.

Global Competence Outcomes

A total of 215 global competence outcomes were reported across the 92 studies. As depicted in Table (3), knowledge was most frequently assessed, representing 41.4% of all outcomes reported, followed by attitudes (38.1%) and skills (20.5%).

Among studies assessing changes in knowledge following short-term study abroad, the overwhelming majority (61.8%) evaluated students' understanding of other cultural norms and expectations or their understanding of globalization (21.4%). A sharp decline was observed for the remaining knowledge outcomes, including knowledge of students' own cultural norms

(6.7%), understanding of current world events (5.6%), and knowledge of world history (4.5%).

Students' global competence attitudes were assessed more evenly across the seven categories. The most frequently assessed attitude outcome was students' awareness that their own world views were not universal (25.6%), followed by non-judgment towards other cultures (18.3%), coping with different cultures (14.6%), openness to new experiences (13.4%), and willingness to step outside of their own cultures (12.2%). Students' celebration of cultural diversity (8.5%) or willingness to take risks (7.3%) were rarely reported.

Two skills-based outcomes made up more than half of all skill gains reported: students' abilities to collaborate across cultures (38.6%) and living outside their own cultures (25.0%). Assessed less frequently were students' abilities to participate in social and professional settings (15.9%), identify cultural differences (11.4%), and complete projects with people from different cultures (9.1%). No studies evaluated students' abilities to assess intercultural performance.

Among the studies assessing global competence outcomes included in this systematic review, most outcomes (89.3%) were coded as having a positive direction of effect, meaning that a post-study abroad change indicated improvement on a given outcome. Of the total 215 global competence outcomes assessed, null or negative findings (i.e., no significant improvement or decline) were reported for only 23 (10.7%) of these. Given the inclusion of both deductive and inductive research and the diversity in data sources utilized, the studies in this review have limited comparability with regard to negative findings, however. Reporting of negative findings would be unlikely, for example, in studies that employed qualitative interviews to identify all the ways in which the short-term study abroad experiences impacted students. Table 2 provides information to help readers interpret these results.

Global Competence Categories	Total %	Category %
Knowledge	**41.4**	
K2. Cultural norms and expectations of others		61.8
K5. Globalization		21.4
K1. One's own cultural norms		6.7
K4. Current World Events		5.6
K3. World history		4.5

Attitudes	**38.1**	
A1. One's own worldview is not universal		25.6
A6. Non-judgmental		18.3
A5. Coping with different cultures		14.6
A4. Openness to new experiences		13.4
A2. Willingness to step outside of one's own culture		12.2
A7. Celebrating diversity		8.5
A3. Willingness to take risks		7.3
Skills	**20.5**	
S3. Collaborate across cultures		38.6
S2. Live outside one's own culture		25.0
S6. Participation in social/professional settings globally		15.9
S1. Identify cultural differences		11.4
S4. Projects with people from other cultures		9.1
S5. Assess intercultural performance in social/professional settings		0.0

TABLE (3): CATEGORIES OF GLOBAL COMPETENCE[1] OUTCOMES REPORTED ACROSS ALL STUDIES

[1](HUNTER, 2004)

Global Competence Evidence and Gaps

To create a visual depiction of the overall evidence base, we mapped assessment approaches (y-axis) against global competence domains and categories (x-axis) using Hunter's framework of internal and external readiness (see Figure 2). Each object on the map represents a group of studies assessing an outcome using a given assessment approach, with circles denoting positive outcomes (i.e., gains from study abroad participation) and triangles depicting outcomes with no improvement or decline over time. The size of each shape represents the number of studies utilizing a given outcome-by-assessment approach (larger sizes denote more studies). Studies are included in multiple cells when they assessed more than one global competence outcome or used more than one assessment method, or both. Thus, this evidence map provides a visual depiction of both the evidence on specific global competence outcomes associated with short-term study abroad and the methods used to generate this evidence (i.e., what we know and how we know it). Several patterns observed in the mapped data are discussed below.

Knowledge

The strongest evidence in this domain was observed on two outcomes: knowledge of other cultures, and globalization knowledge. Knowledge of other cultures was assessed much more frequently (70 total reports), demonstrating positive effects across all six assessment approaches with only one reported negative finding. Evidence in support of the impact of short-term study abroad on students' globalization knowledge was more modest but consistently positive across all six data sources.

The weakest evidence was observed for knowledge of world history and of one's own culture, with evidence of impact coming from only two (surveys, papers) or three sources (surveys, papers, journals) respectively. Methodologically, the largest gap was observed for students' creative works, used to assess global competence knowledge outcomes in one study.

Attitudes

Broadest empirical support was observed for three outcomes, each with 20 or more reports of positive impact across five or six data sources and minimal reports of non-significant or negative findings: non-universality of students' worldview, coping with different cultures, and non-judgmental toward other cultures. Two other attitudinal outcomes (Willingness to step outside of one's own culture; Openness to new experiences) demonstrated weaker but consistent evidence of impact based upon findings drawn from 5-6 data sources each. Surveys and student journals were used as primary assessment tools for this domain.

Very few studies (n=6) assessed students' willingness to take risks; those that did relied on data from surveys (n=5) or student journals (n=1). Across this domain, instructor observation and students' creative works were used the least (six times each) to assess study abroad impact.

Skills

The most inconsistent evidence was observed in this global competence domain. Student ability to collaborate across cultures was the most frequently assessed skill with 19 reports of positive impact but drawn from only three assessment sources, primarily surveys. By comparison, the second most frequently assessed skill, ability to live outside one's own culture, amassed roughly equivalent evidence (18 total reports of positive impact) from all six of

the data sources. Across the domain, surveys were the predominant assessment approach utilized followed by student journals and qualitative interviews.

Both substantive and methodological gaps were observed, with three skills outcomes demonstrating either very limited or inconsistent evidence (or both). Students' abilities to identify cultural differences and work on projects with people from other cultures were reported only five times each, and ability to effectively participate in cross-cultural social/professional settings was reported in six with one of these indicating negative or non-significant findings. No studies assessed students' abilities in cross-cultural assessment, and both instructor observation (n=1) and students' creative works (n=2) were underutilized in skills assessment

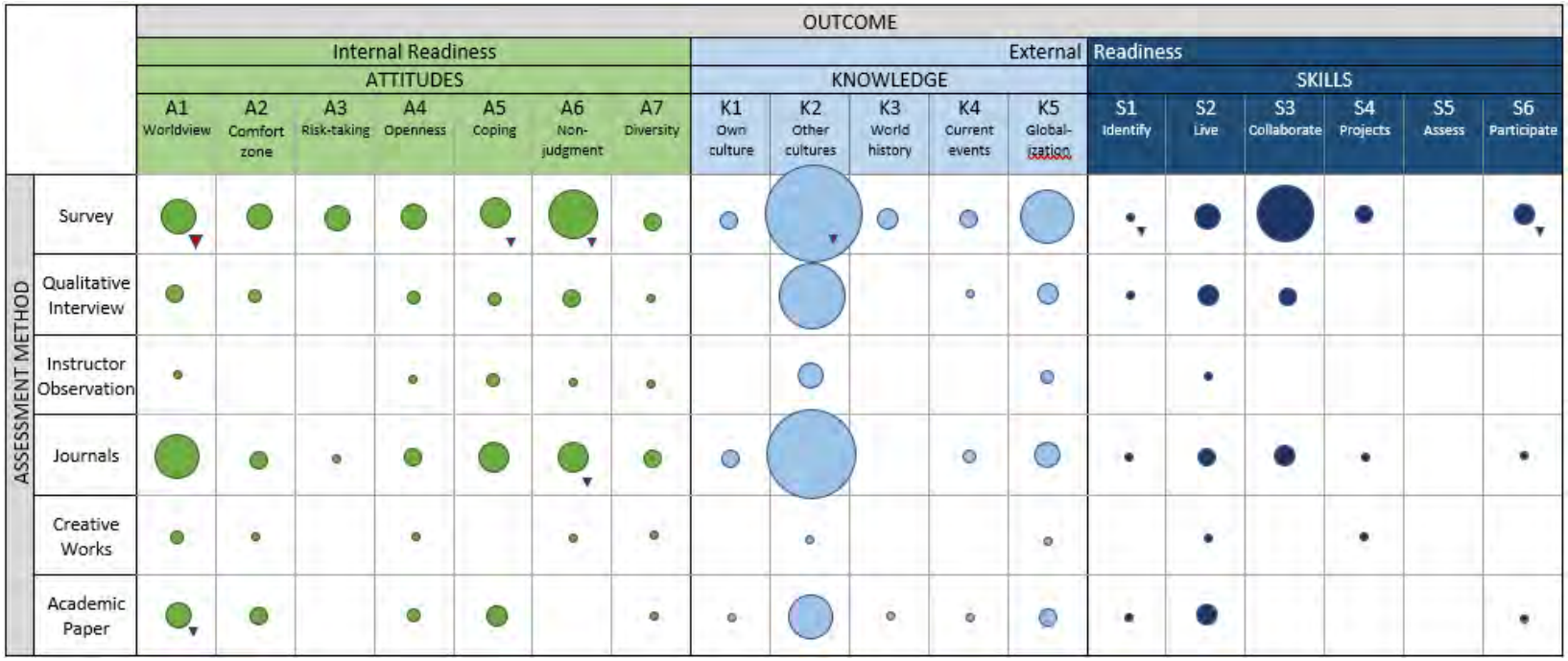

FIGURE (2): GLOBAL COMPETENCE[1] OUTCOMES EVIDENCE MAP

Note. Circles are used to indicate positive direction of effect; triangles indicate negative or non-significant effects. Size of each shape indicates magnitude of evidence, with the largest shape (circle in cell K2/survey) representing 21 studies and the smallest shape (triangle in cell K2/survey) representing 1 study.

[1](HUNTER, 2004)

Discussion

By using Hunter's (2004) framework to identify learning outcomes associated with global competence, we were able to apply a multi-dimensional approach to understanding the evidence supporting short-term study abroad as an internationalization tool. Several theoretical frameworks support the use of multi-dimensional learning outcomes in higher education including Bloom's Taxonomy and the Knowledge, Attitudes and Behavior (KAB) Approach (Anderson et al., 2000; Schrader & Lawless, 2004). Overwhelmingly, the observed learning outcomes were reported as positive, meaning that short-term study abroad experiences resulted in global competence gains (or perceived gains, in the case of self-administered surveys) for students overall. Evidence from these studies supports positive effects regardless of the global competence domain (i.e., knowledge, attitude, or skills) but with some variability in the strength of the evidence across learning areas.

Review findings demonstrated strongest support for students' acquisition of knowledge of other cultures during short-term study abroad, the educational strategies behind which varied by discipline and program engagement features. For example, Nordmeyer et al. (2017) found that students increased their knowledge about gender equality in Sweden and Norway by meeting with politicians and service providers. Also, Parker and Dautoff (2007) found that meeting with government and trade officials improved students' understanding of business practices in Nicaragua. Other educational strategies to enhance students' knowledge of other cultures included exposure to novel health care practices, farming techniques, and educational methods (Assaf et al., 2019; Bott-Knutson et al., 2019; Phillips et al., 2017). To a lesser extent, findings demonstrated that short-term study abroad enhanced understanding of globalization, or the interconnectedness of humanity across economics, politics, culture, socialization, and the environment. Phillips et al. (2017) found that nursing students were able to identify and articulate connections in social determinants of health between the United States and Ghana, and Cade (2015) showed that students could recognize effects of racism and oppression among people and institutions in the United States and Ghana after the study abroad experience. These examples support the assertion that as a pedagogical practice, short-term study abroad offers faculty both flexibility and breadth in the specific content of knowledge about other cultures and globalization that can

result in meaningful gains for students.

In contrast, we found weaker evidence that short-term study abroad improves students' understanding of their own culture, world history, or current world events—what Hunter (2004) described as the hidden knowledge informing the attitudes and values needed to be a globally competent individual. Examples of strategies associated with gains on these outcomes included acknowledging how U.S. federal policies supported accessibility for people with disabilities, observing that the history of human habitation on the Galapagos Island influenced the evolution of its animal life, and identifying effects of climate change on the Great Barrier Reef off the coast of Australia (Bell et al., 2016; Le et al., 2013; Mason et al., 2018). Given that the ability to identify and reflect on one's own culture, also known as cultural humility, is considered an essential cross-cultural skill in many professional contexts (Baraka et al., 2019; Murray-García & Tervalon, 2017; Tervalon & Murray-García, 1998), it is surprising that so few studies focused on student gains in this area.

Findings regarding global competence attitudes denote modest but consistent improvement overall. Students participating in short-term study abroad appeared to gain awareness of other worldviews, build willingness to step outside their comfort zones, become more open to other cultures, and to develop a mindset to cope with cultural differences, an accepting stance toward cultural differences, and a celebratory perspective toward cultural diversity. A notable exception to this trend was that very few studies assessed students' willingness to take risks within a new culture, and those that did relied overwhelmingly on surveys as the sole assessment strategy. For example, Rustambekov and Mohan (2017) used the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Earley & Ang, 2003), while Schenker (2019) used a survey based on Hunter's (2004) model. Finally, more studies reported no change or declines for attitudinal outcomes compared to other dimensions, which could be indicative of imprecise attitudinal measurement or attitudes can be more resistant to change compared to knowledge and skills.

The weakest overall evidence was in support of the impact of short-term study abroad on global competence skills. Students' abilities to identify cultural differences, complete projects with people from other cultures, or participate in cross-cultural social and professional settings were very rarely assessed, and no

studies reported on assessing cross-cultural performance. Given the global nature of the modern workplace and employer demand for cross-cultural assessment skills, it is important to determine to what extent short-term education abroad courses could support its acquisition (Ananiadoui & Claro, 2009; Battelle for Kids, 2019; NACE, 2021a, 2021b; Trilling & Fadel, 2009). The weak evidence across this domain may suggest a lack of available measurement tools. For example, a report by Michigan State University's Office of Study Abroad designed to facilitate quality assessment of study abroad outcomes by instructors promoted three prominent assessment measures, and while all three measures assessed various components of knowledge and/or attitudes, none assessed skills (Roy et al., 2014). It is also possible that some instructors may perceive the assessment of skills as a lower priority than the assessment of knowledge or attitudes, perhaps conceptualizing attitudinal and knowledge gains as necessary precursors for acquiring global competence skills. The infrequent use of instructor observations to assess skills across all three domains may support the latter, but research is needed to understand instructors' assessment choices and the barriers that may exist for assessing skills in these settings.

Methodologically, study findings highlighted a reliance on surveys as assessment tools across all three global competence domains, despite the fact that self-assessments are prone to overestimation of knowledge and skills as well as social desirability biases (Fowler, 2013). A key difference observed across domains was in the diversity of assessments used; while instructors drew on all six assessment methods to measure attitudinal outcomes, skills assessments were predominantly made using either surveys or journals. Remarkably few studies utilized instructor observation to assess global competence, despite the fact that all short-term study abroad courses were faculty-led and presumably offered a rich opportunity to observe application of students' knowledge, attitudes, and skills in cross-cultural settings (Bolen, 2007). Future research utilizing multimodal assessments to assess all three domains of global competence (i.e., knowledge, attitudes, *and* skills) is needed to offer a more comprehensive view of student global competence. Additionally, future studies should examine instructors' use of observational techniques for assessing global competence so we can better understand both useful methods for and barriers to this assessment approach.

Several limitations should be considered when interpreting these findings. First, study exclusion criteria may have omitted an important study or perspective. For example, including only studies published after January 2002 means findings do not represent an exhaustive synthesis of all existing evidence, and our focus on short-term experiences offers insight into only one type of education abroad programming. Similarly, only studies in which instructors had evaluated global competence outcomes were included, so study findings may not be generalizable to all faculty-led short-term study abroad programs. Second, this paper was written from a North American perspective and included only study abroad courses originating in the U.S., which limits generalizability of findings to dissimilar countries. Third, we did not evaluate study rigor or evidence quality, so studies with a range of designs and student outcomes assessed using validated scales as well as emergent instructor-designed tools were included. In order to synthesize all available evidence meeting study inclusion criteria, both deductive and inductive methods were included and weighted equally but represent different forms of evidence. Additionally, substantial variability was noted in the ways authors defined similar student outcomes, meaning that even with multiple reviewers it is possible that our coding could contain misinterpretations. Finally, it was outside the scope of this paper to examine the ways in which program design may have impacted these findings. However, we address programmatic contexts and educational components and their relationship with global competence outcomes in a follow-up study (see: Fisher, Hitchcock, Neyer, Moak, Moore & Marsalis, 2022).

Despite these limitations, this research represents the first systematic review to synthesize and map evidence on the impact of faculty-led short-term study abroad for undergraduate and graduate students' global competence. Study findings support the use of short-term study abroad programs to develop global competencies and offer a road map for higher education instructors and administrators to guide development and assessment of future courses. While these findings demonstrate that multi-dimensional assessment of global competence outcomes is feasible in short-term study abroad courses, the evidence gaps identified here draw attention to the need for development and standardization of global competence measurement tools that could be readily utilized by instructors across disciplines and contexts. This synthesis and evidence map builds conceptual clarity around global competence, enhances

educator efforts to design and plan future assessment approaches, and supports short-term study abroad as an impactful institutional internationalization strategy.

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