1980

Components of model international educational services programs: a Delphic probe

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Iowa State University PH.D. 1980

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Components of model international educational services programs: a Delphic probe

by

Linda M. Fystrom

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department: Professional Studies in Education
Major: Education (Higher Education)

Approved:

Signature was redacted for privacy.

In Charge of Major Work

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Major Department

Signature was redacted for privacy.

For the Graduate College

Iowa State University
Ames, Iowa

1980

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Appreciation is extended to the members of my Program of Studies Committee for their thoughtful encouragement: Dr. L. Glenn Smith, Dr. Roger L. Lawrence, Dr. George A. Kizer, and Dr. Marvin A. Anderson. My deepest appreciation and gratitude are extended to my Major Professor, Dr. William A. Hunter, for his patience, insight, and wisdom. I wish to acknowledge Ms. Pat Arndorfer for her careful typing of the major portion of the dissertation, and to extend gratitude to John S. Abbott for his exacting proofreading. To John and my children, Eileen, Heather, and Michael, my love and gratitude for their patience and sacrifices. The Iowa State University Committee on the Use of Human Subjects in Research reviewed this project and concluded that the rights and welfare of the human subjects were adequately protected, that risks were outweighed by the potential benefits and expected value of the knowledge sought, that confidentiality of data was assured and that informed consent was obtained by appropriate procedures.

Walk together, talk together,
O ye peoples of the earth;
Then and only then, shall
Yea have peace. (Sanskrit)

INTRODUCTION

Historical Context

International educational exchange has a lengthy and illustrious heritage. The early European and Far Eastern universities attracted students from many nations. Padua, Oxford, Cambridge, Bagdad, Al-Basrah, and the ecclesiastical centers of the Middle Ages drew students from across international borders in the pursuit of learning (Cubberley, 1922). The universality of knowledge provided the context and encouragement for these sojourning students, despite the persistence of such significant barriers as international hostilities and provincialism of perceptions. The movement of students and scholars across national boundaries has continued into the present era, and has shown steady growth, both in terms of nations represented in this flow and in terms of absolute numbers of participants.

Several factors unique to the current age have provided significant impetus to the growth of international educational exchange and to the rise of scholarly research designed to improve the quality of that exchange. Primary among these factors is an increased public awareness of interdependence and the global nature of problems of the twentieth century, connected with growth against fixed limits. On a more personally pragmatic level, increased numbers of individuals are pursuing careers with an international dimension, whether in multinational cor-

porations, international agencies and organizations, or in national service agencies such as the United States Peace Corps. Additionally, the growth of professional and scholarly associations in a variety of disciplines has emphasized the universal character of knowledge and the futility of defining any basic discipline in terms of national boundaries.

The volume of participants and the frequency of occurrence does not automatically ensure the quality of the sojourn experience, however. On a universal scale, relatively little is known about the overall impact, accomplishment of objectives, or satisfaction of participants in such exchanges. In the United States, with over half the world's colleges and universities and the largest absolute numbers of participants in educational exchanges, much research has been produced on questions in these areas over the last quarter century. Even with this considerable investigative activity, relatively little generalized data are available concerning the question of quality of institutional programs for facilitating international educational exchanges. It is to this need that the present study is addressed.

The historical and ideological context for international educational exchange in the United States reflects the ambivalence towards foreigners deeply rooted in the culture. American education is international in origin and has "for three hundred years benefited from the flow of people, ideas and scholarship from the rest of the world" (Butts, 1963, p. 2). Despite this, negative stereotyping, especially with regard to Asians and Africans, is pervasive even among young children in

the United States (Buergenthal & Torney, 1976, p.122). Although the American colonies, and later the states, imitated the European practice of sending sons of merchants and clergy abroad for higher education, that custom was not universally supported. For example, Birdsey Grant Northrop in 1873 characterized these cosmopolitans as "an unhappy, useless, and sterile breed...[an] hybrid class, neither Europeans nor Americans, ill adapted to practical duties in either hemisphere, out of adjustment with our society, and out of sympathy with our simple American life" (Fraser, 1968, p. 204).

That fearful perspective is informative in considering the impact of an educational sojourn in the United States upon a student from a developing area. An institution accepting such students incurs an obligation to minimize this maladaptive trauma and to maximize the educational benefit of the sojourn.

Institutions of higher education in the United States accepted relatively few foreign students prior to 1900. Although the first foreign student to study in the United States came to Yale from Venezuela in 1784, in general, American colleges did not make a recruitment effort prior to 1900, nor was the encouragement of foreign scholars a part of the national agenda at that time. With the Good Neighbor Policy of the 1930s , however, the number of international students arriving increased rapidly, and massive foreign aid further increased this quantitative growth following both world wars. Whereas the few early exchange students had largely come through missionary encouragement and sometimes support, after World War II private foundations and the

national governments became the primary agencies of encouragement. The broad and varied social and economic development programs launched in many technologically underdeveloped nations required training personnel abroad. Restrictions written into funding programs and the technological pre-eminence of the United States were factors motivating a large proportion of these students to select institutions in the United States for their training. Their experience and current role is catalogued by Spaulding.

> In the last 25 years, several million young men and women and hundreds of thousands of trained technicians and specialists from around the world received their advanced academic education or training in institutions of higher education located in countries other than their own. In a very real sense, they represent a significant segment of today's leadership and management in the world - in some countries the decisive segment. (Spaulding & Flack, 1976, p. 1)

The leadership role of these young persons in their own nations constitutes one of the implicit motivations for acceptance of these students in many technologically advanced countries. National governments are interested in influencing these future leaders to hold favorable attitudes toward their nations, and wish to encourage the formation of these attitudes during the educational sojourn. That desire, together with sincere altruism, an appreciation of the fruits of diverse perspectives in the pursuit of truth, and the financial benefits to be derived from the presence of sponsored or independent students form in varying proportions, the rationale for acceptance of international students in American colleges and universities.

These factors, together with the motivations of the students themselves and of their sponsoring agencies and home countries, partially

explain the continued influx to the United States. The increases in their numbers are well documented. By the 1972-73 academic year, some 146,000 students from 170 nations were enrolled at 1,508 institutions of higher education in the United States. That number increased to 216,000 in 1974-75, and 263,938 in 1978-79 (Institute of International Education, 1980). As of 1980, the rate of growth of the foreign student population in U.S. Colleges has slowed somewhat, reflecting increased budgetary proportions allocated for domestic concerns in United States college and university funding, but absolute numbers continue to increase. Predictions are for continued growth, as additional institutions recruit from this potential source of prospective enrollees as they face declines in their traditional population pool with demographic changes.

However, not all U.S. college and university administrators are equally prepared to recruit appropriate international students for their campuses, or to serve their needs during the course of study in the United States or upon their re-entry to the home country. Consequently, some international students find their academic life and future careers disrupted and frustrated, some unnecessary conflicts develop between town and gown, and some become involved in colleges which are forced to close despite last-ditch efforts to enroll massive numbers of international students for purely financial purposes.

While there is ample evidence that international educational exchange can serve the purposes of the student, the institution, the sponsoring agency, and both the host and home nations, that circumstance does not always prevail. Where languages and culture differ,

substantial barriers to communication may exist. When these barriers are not recognized or when resources for overcoming them are absent, "foreign students' visits are often productive of misunderstanding and even ill will" (Kiell, 1951, p. 191). International students may feel like marginal persons whose frames of reference are temporarily out of focus. The tasks an international student faces are formidable, such as "communicating, learning the cultural maze, gaining acceptance, balancing loyalties, maintaining personal integrity and self-esteem, and achieving academic goals" (Smith, 1955, p. 233).

The simultaneous impact of these stresses may create conditions conducive to psychological maladjustment or distress in quite normal, highly motivated students. The energy required to maintain stability in the face of these demands may be detrimental to other ego functions such as learning, organizing, coping, and active understanding...(NAFSA, Guidelines: Academic and Personal Advising, 1975).

There is widespread agreement that the primary purpose of the international student's sojourn is the attainment of educational goals. Evaluation of these sojourns has often been presented in terms of success ratios, the proportion of foreign students attaining degrees or accomplishing other educational goals. Viewed in these terms, the sojourns are more often than not, successful. Hull's report is typical:

> The overall finding of the investigation is that foreign students at mid-academic year generally reported that they were satisfied with their sojourn, although they were more pleased with academic than non-academic aspects of their experience. While generally satisfied, however, it also seemed clear that foreign students felt themselves to be apart from Americans and U.S. society, rather than integrated into it in any sense. (Hull, 1978, p. 184)

It is in the non-academic aspects of the foreign student's sojourn that institutions have recognized an unmet need. The typical institutional response to these non-academic needs has been in the form of appointment of at least one part-time administrator to function as a general problem-solver for international students. The growth of that organizational response has been rapid, leading to considerable unevenness in quality of services.

While international students' needs have required an administrative response within colleges and universities, their American classmates have been participating in international education as well, and experiencing many similar difficulties.

Since 1923, when the University of Delaware established the first study abroad program, thousands of American students representing hundreds of colleges and universities have traveled abroad for periods of study (Frey, 1976). Their experiences have varied greatly in quality and to some extent, all of these students have faced adjustment problems similar to those experienced by international students in this country.

Statement of the Problem

In contrast to European universities, American institutions of higher education have recognized and assumed responsibility for the adjustment problems faced by their students, including those involved in international educational exchange. These sojourning students have unique adjustment problems which must be resolved in order for them to concentrate their energies on the accomplishment of academic goals. These difficulties are in addition to the development tasks faced by all

students, and institutions have struggled to fund and provide services to assist students in these circumstances.

At most colleges and universities in the United States, the function of assisting students with development and adjustment tasks falls within the scope of the student affairs staff responsibilities. Where numbers of participants in international educational exchange are large enough, a specialized office usually called the Foreign Student Advisor is instituted to meet some of their needs. With the proliferation of responsibilities attendant upon still larger numbers of participants, this office becomes diversified. Specific roles are created pertaining to assistance with Immigration and Naturalization Services regulations, financial matters, admissions, orientation, English language skill building, advising and counseling, U.S. student studies abroad, and any other functions appropriate to the particular institutional context. It has been the experience of many institutions that roles and functions of this office have developed in a fragmented, problem-responsive manner.

Spaulding and Flack (1976) in their comprehensive review of research in the field of international educational services, found support for their working hypotheses setting forth serious conceptual weaknesses in the field. They found that the duties and services of the foreign student adviser, where one exists, are vaguely defined. Additionally, relatively few foreign student advisers had received professional training for this position. Matters of vital importance for the adjustment of international students, such as housing, financial aid, spouse employment, and remedial English language training, often were outside the

administrative authority of the foreign student adviser. They found an overall decline in financial aid in recent years, and a lack of coordination among sponsoring agencies and academic institutions. Communication difficulties characterized most aspects of international educational exchange, according to their review of the literature. In their summary they indicated that the fundamental difficulty is that "few institutions have articulated a rationale for the presence of foreign students which would serve as a basis for policy making in such areas as selection, admission, curriculum-planning, and non-academic services" (Spaulding and Flack, 1976, p. 318). They found, possibly as a direct result of this lack of clear institutional policy, services provided for foreign students in the United States to be "inadequate on the average since they depend largely upon the initiatives of individual universities and communities" (Spaulding and Flack, 1976, p. 315).

The emerging profession of Foreign Student Advisors recognized a need for assistance in developing competencies and securing organizationally legitimate delivery structures for their services. In response to that need, the National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (now the National Association of Foreign Student Affairs, or NAFSA) was founded in 1948. Then, as now, NAFSA sought to compile information and to give direction and assistance to its members. The publications, workshops and monographs prepared under its auspices have consistently encouraged the highest standards of professionalism among practitioners in the field of international educational exchange. Its 1979 publica-

tion, Standards and Responsibilities in International Educational Interchange, provides guiding principles for the establishment and development of international educational services programs on American campuses.

While NAFSA's consultation services are free to any requesting institution, the overall thrust of its publications is directed at the larger institutions. Furthermore, the standards and responsibilities which it recommends are more inspirational than measurable in nature. The organization has proven to be of substantial assistance in the development of high-quality international educational services, but significant theoretical and practical weaknesses remain in the field.

Among these weaknesses is the general lack of evaluation research. In the absence of clear institutional policies around which to organize goals and objectives, individual international educational services programs face considerable difficulty in meeting the demands for accountability current in this era of tight budgets. Without unifying measurable objectives in the guidelines published by the national professional association, individual institutions and foreign student advisors are required to develop locally responsive goals. The situation is conducive to fragmentation in the field, and impedes the development of excellence in the delivery of services.

Independent individual researchers have addressed the issue of model program development. Kelman "recommends research which would evaluate exchange programs to ascertain whether they have achieved their goals and offer insights into ways of enhancing effectiveness

of future programs" (in Spaulding and Flack, 1976, p. 150). Robert Kaplan has presented recommendations for a model program appropriate to a large university system, using the experiences of Florida State University as a frame of reference (Kaplan, ca., 1973). Houle and Nelson (1956) refer to over 60 self-assessments stimulated by the 1951 Carnegie Endowment for International Peace handbook, and provided with impetus through a series of regional conferences. While these local and regional efforts provide useful approaches to the development of a paradigm, no nationally based set of criteria for excellence has yet appeared in the literature other than NAFSA's own recommendations.

Objectives and Assumptions

It is to this need that the present study addresses itself. A national panel of experts provide, through a consensus-building methodology, a set of criteria which they judge to be necessary for the development of excellence in international educational services. Further, the research addresses the dearth of information on professional development of administrators in the field by compiling the panel's judgment as to the critical qualities and characteristics for a chief administrator in an international educational services program. Finally, the panel's judgment is obtained as to the best such programs currently in existence at American colleges and universities. These programs, identified as excellent, are then compared with the expected criteria for both the program components and the chief administrator's characteristics to ascertain the degree of fit with the model.

The result of this comparison is considered to be an identifica-

tion of the criteria for excellence in international educational services programs. These criteria constitute a set of objectives administrators can strive to meet as they initiate and develop such programs on their own campuses.

To summarize, the general purposes of the research are to develop a methodology for evaluating international educational services programs through the compilation of a set of standards excellent programs should meet, to identify several of the most highly regarded programs in the panel's judgment, using the criteria encompassed in the methodology as developed, and to identify the administrative components of these excellent programs.

Given the emphasis on the significance of goals in the literature, it is expected that excellent programs will be found on campuses with clear institutional commitment to the goals of international educational exchange. In the literature there is also a recognition of the problems inherent in the typical lack of professional training in the background of many foreign student advisers. Therefore, it is expected that excellent programs will be found on campuses where the chief administrator of the office providing international educational services will have considerable prior administrative experience (over 5 years), experience abroad, and some form of counseling training. Beyond these hypotheses, the study represents an initial attempt to compile information useful to administrators in the establishment and improvement of international educational services programs. It is expected that the comparison of existing high quality programs with the judgments of

experts regarding their components will reveal the essential elements which, if present in both the structure of the program and the history and character of the chief administrator, will produce a program of high quality.

Definition of Terms

In a speech at the 1978 NAFSA conference in Ames, Iowa, Olin Robison confessed that in his opinion no one has a definition of international education with which he or she is entirely comfortable. Earlier attempts at definitions have been somewhat evasive. Comenius, the great Moravian educator, said that all higher education should be truly universal, free from national bias, and thus international. Swanson took the more limiting approach of defining international education as strictly the province of the comparative educator, those "engaged in the accumulation of knowledge about educational systems around the world" (Swanson, 1969, p. 1).

For the purposes of this investigation, a working definition of international education will fall somewhere between these ideas of Comenius and Swanson. International education will refer to the movement of persons, skills and ideas from one nation to another, and to those concepts in education which have deliberately been defined in such a way as to transcend narrow national interests.

The immediate object of interest, international educational services, will refer to any and all structured attempts to facilitate this movement of persons, skills, and ideas. Most frequently on U.S.

campuses, this refers to the presence of an administrative staff member, or several such persons, who provide services including but not limited to advising and counseling, assistance with INS regulations, admissions and orientation, financial aid and information, study abroad programs, and the provision of information designed to inform the university as a whole and the surrounding larger community regarding the benefits to be derived from international educational exchange.

An underlying value assumption present throughout the course of the investigation should be made explicit. It is assumed that international educational exchange is, on balance, a positive phenomenon, the benefits of which far outweigh the considerable difficulties facing those who would participate in or facilitate such exchanges. A more thorough discussion of this point is provided in the review of the literature, as the philosophical and ideological context of international educational exchange is examined.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In preparation for the present research, a systematic review of pertinent literature was conducted. Materials from the social sciences and from the field of education were examined in order to reconstruct the philosophical and historical context for the current state of international educational exchange. In this examination, the prevailing assumptions regarding the limiting effects of nationalism and the broadening effects of educational exchanges merit special attention. The debate surrounding the perceived impact and effectiveness of an educational experience in another land is a lively and continuing one, and an attempt has been made here to present evidence from both sides of the attitude change issue, while drawing conclusions as to which appears to be the stronger argument.

Following the review of the presumed purposes and goals of international educational exchange, attention is turned to the question of facilitating such exchanges. Although numerous private and governmental agencies are active in the field, this review has been largely restricted to the development and current status of structures and roles designed to facilitate international educational exchange on United States college and university campuses. Although the multiplicity of agencies involved in these exchanges produces immense communication difficulties and areas of overlapping or unclear interest and authority, cooperation is also evident whenever a mutuality of purpose is discerned. For this reason, notice has been taken of the role of non-college or university sources of assistance where these sources impact upon the

campus.

For this portion of the review, the work of Spaulding and Flack (1976) has been particularly helpful, for they present a comprehensive overview of research in the area of higher education's contributions to international educational exchange.

The final area incorporated in the review of literature pertains to the evaluation of international educational services on U.S. campuses, and to the development of a methodology appropriate for such an evaluation. Materials from the field of administrative evaluation have provided direction here, and in the decision to employ the Delphi technique, the work of Linstone and Turoff (1975) has been of significant assistance. Sources in the field of psychology were found to be most valuable in the consideration of alternative methodologies, as were materials from the emerging field of futurist studies.

International Educational Exchange

History and purposes

It is a misleading understatement of the case to say that universities have always included international students. In fact, international students were the first universities. For example, at Bologna, the oldest of the Italian universities, the intellectual and political renaissance of the twelth century provided fertile ground for the coming together of special groups of scholars around a recognized teacher for the common pursuit of learning. Burton Clark gives a graphic description of the difficulties facing a student body of such diverse origins:

> Most of the students in the first clusters that were to

> become the University of Bologna were eccliastics and sons of nobles, mature young men of means who came to the city of Bologna from throughout Europe primarily to study law with private teachers of growing fame. There, as aliens lacking the civil rights of Bolognese, these students struggled to create an intentional community - to obtain, through concerted action, temporary citizenship, protection against landlords and other adversaries in the town, resources to hire teachers, and a united front that could hold the instructors accountable. (Clark, 1977, p. 8)

While enlightening vignettes such as these can be gleaned from the literature, as Scanlon and Shields have stated, there does not appear to be anywhere available a single comprehensive history of international education (Problems and Prospects in International Education, 1968). A compilation of references from several sources does, however, give a flavor of these international exchanges, as well as the impression of a long history of cross-cultural scholarly activity.

Centers of ecclesiastical learning drew scholars from throughout Europe all through the Middle Ages, while Arab cultural and scholarly centers like Baghdad and Al-Basrah drew scholars from the West.

Erasmus in the fifteenth century wrote perhaps the first comparative education text, in his letters evaluating his educational experiences in England and in Italy (Allen, 1918).

In the next century, other traveling scholars contributed to the recorded literature comparing educational systems in various countries (Hodgen, 1964). By the eighteenth century, travel of young gentlemen for educational purposes became common practice among the upper classes, and an opportunity available to the occasional impoverished scholar as well.

Fraser and Brickman (1968) attest to the spread of this practice

to the United States, and to the nature of the information and advice available to the traveling scholar as well. They include a letter written in 1791 by one John Mason to his son studying in England. The young man is carefully instructed to avoid in his conversation any reference to the late unpleasantness between that country and the new United States. That concern toward political attitude and adjustment is very much a contemporary issue for international students and their advisors as well.

The political dimension is fundamental to any discussion of international education on several grounds. First, by definition, international educational exchange involves movement of persons, skills, or ideas across national (politically determined) boundaries. Secondly, a major thrust maintaining these exchanges has been governmental expectations for gain by so doing. That gain might come from a variety of places: the import of ideas and skills; the influence exerted on scholars who are potential leaders in their own nations; the opportunity to display to advantage the technological and cultural achievements of the host country; tapping foreign nationals' expertise (the brain drain); or even from the indirect gains that accrue from building an image of altruism in supporting development in other nations. Thirdly, international educational exchange is unavoidably political in that when differences among nations arise, the presence of "enemy" students in the host country serves as a focal point for rational discussion of the issues, or more frequently perhaps, that presence serves as a target for jingoistic vengeance.

Fraser (1969) speaks of a more subtle political infusion into the field of educational exchange. He points out that national goals are reflected in national educational systems, and condition the students passing through these systems. That conditioning may produce confusion and misunderstanding when the student finds himself or herself in another, foreign, educational system expressive of distinct goals. Internationalists have for several decades lobbied for the development of "international" curricula in order to prevent such misunderstandings and to prepare citizens for the world, rather than just for a small segment of that world. An international curriculum would avoid, according to this viewpoint, "those prejudices and pieces of misinformation that separate peoples...(The student) would be taught that the obligations of good citizenship transcend immediate environment and nationality" (Malinowski & Zorn, 1973, p. 25).

Such an objective is but a single, lofty illustration of the internationalists' perspective. An understanding of more breadth can be achieved by examination of the eight basic goals of international education listed by Smart (1971): permeation of new ideas; synthesis of value system and world culture; national development; development of national political power; mutual understanding and cooperation; basic preparation for life in a global context; development of a creative attitude toward diversity; and discovery of truth. Such a formidable list of challenges perhaps can best serve as guidelines for those educational endeavours which are designed within an explicitly international organizational framework, such as that provided by UNESCO.

Since internationalists, no matter how inspirational their goals, have not yet gained ascendency in matters of educational design in this or any other nation, the practical direction an investigation must take is to consider the political context of educational exchange in terms of any given nation's policies and interests. Hull (1978) addresses this point, as well as that of the broader international perspective, in his listing of the potential pluses of international educational exchange: the advancement of individuals' careers; the gains accruing to countries and universities to which they return; the fostering of contact between peoples; and the improvement of international relations.

This final point is closely related to the focus of those who consider international educational exchange to be an instrument of foreign policy. Frankel (1966) has termed educational and cultural relations the neglected aspect of foreign affairs, and recommends upgrading of these relations particularly through the device of administrative reforms. In like vein, Coombs (1964) refers to educational exchange as the fourth dimension of foreign policy, as important as the economic, political, and military aspects. To increase the effectiveness of this dimension, he recommends a more vigorous and imaginative administration of educational exchange, with greater political and financial support in recognition of its importance in foreign policy. A curious sidelight to such a development would be the power shift discernible with the assumption of a more significant role in foreign policy by educators. One facet of that development is illus-

trated by Melvin when he predicts that "education for international service proposes to make not the magnate, or the military, or the missionary, but teachers the artificers of world community" (1970, p. 144).

In the 1967 report from the Conference on World Education of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, a general discussion held on the problems of creating an education with world perspective meaningful for Americans is summarized. The recommendations growing from that discussion emphasize the necessity of direct cross-cultural educational experiences for students and teachers as a means to reform education in the desired direction. The broad and innovative recommendations are here included, although any implications for foreign policy are either untreated or unreported in the conference report. The Association recommends:

1. The use of the entire United States and its variety of cultures and communities as a laboratory for cultural experiences;
2. A radical expansion of the kind (one participant) advocated - the availability of foreign experience to American student-teachers and teacher-scholars;
3. A fusion of the separate disciplines into new forms of studies, as against the conventional idea of international relations courses taught as political science;
4. An infusion of new content from non-Western cultures into the entire curriculum of the humanities and social sciences;
5. The inclusion of foreign students, teachers and scholars, both those already in the country and others especially invited, in the mainstream of American school and college teaching; and
6. As a controlling concept for all this, the idea of world education should be translated into a series of centers for the study and solution of educational problems, on American campuses and abroad, to which student-teachers and teacher-educators from everywhere in the world would come for mutual education.

(Conference on World Education, 1967, p. 22)

It was assumed that such a list of recommendations, if followed, would internationalize American education, and the implication is that there would be a substantial effect upon international relations as an international by-product. That implication rests on a popular assumption, that contact among persons of diverse cultural and/or national backgrounds will lead to mutual understanding. This assumption, sometimes referred to as the association hypothesis, underlies much of the rationale for expensive efforts in international education, and yet the issue is by no means a settled one. The history of the American South, or of South Africa, and even of certain unfortunate families, casts doubt upon the easy assumption that contact, even repeated or sustained contact, leads to interpersonal or interracial liking or understanding. Nevertheless, that assumption is the justification and the starting point for enormous investments of resources in educational exchange. Fortunately, research reported in the literature of social psychology contributes much to an understanding of this issue.

Attitude Change

The first step in the investigation of attitude change is to admit vast areas of ignorance about the subject. "The process by which beliefs, values, and attitudes are formed and changed concerning the world outside our immediate environment is little understood" (Becker, 1973, p. 35). There are numerous studies which will give rise to some optimism on the score, but it is reasonable to mention at the outset that this area is very much in a state of development.

Furthermore, there are multitudes of critics who admit not only ignorance of the process, but contend that history gives very little reason to believe that progress away from a narrow national self-interest toward a broader worldview can be made. One of the more gently phrased statements of this sort comes from Scanlon and Shields: "the generally assumed view that exchange-of-persons activities increase international understanding is oversimplified and overly optimistic" (1968, p. 282).

Others are harsher in their pessimism. "The common experience of mankind, both in the past and present, is that 'village' mentality is the norm, metropolitan curiosity an exception, and cosmopolitan breadth a rarity" (Adam, 1948, p. 6). Brickman (1975) is nearly as harsh in his judgment, finding any surge of internationalism a temporary aberration in a world with a nearly exclusive nationalistic history. Parker finds the school system of any nation directly implicated in maintaining a narrowness of perspective. "Frankly, the educational systems of most of the world's nations are notoriously nationalistic and ethnocentric.... Education, as a handmaiden of nationalism has been a two-edged sword, frequently welding a people together but, all too often and unfortunately, encouraging some to feel superior and others to feel inferior" (Parker, 1971, pp. 61, 64). Ricken (1976) agrees, finding that most school systems are still preparing students for a 19th century industrial world, wherein the dominant frame of reference is that of national interest. Other researchers, (Buergenthal & Torney, 1976; Hensley et al, 1978) report that similar situations prevail, apparently, at all

educational levels and in all regions of the world, especially in America, which is somewhat geographically isolated.

> In the United States negative stereotyping still exists among children, particularly with respect to Asian and African countries, and countries where wars have recently taken place. In the United States students tend to possess less knowledge about international than about national matters and to be less motivated to participate in a discussion of international affairs outside of the classroom than are students of other countries. (Buergenthal & Torney, 1976, p. 122).

At the higher education level, and with students presumably motivated toward positive attitude change on the issue of international understanding, Hensley reports that only self-esteem of the participants changed significantly among all attutides measured. He concludes that "positive developments do not occur automatically in overseas educational programs" (Hensley et al, 1978, p. 27).

Given the apparent difficulties in promoting the development of attitudes favorable toward international understanding and cooperation, one might well wonder about the value of educational undertakings designed to foster such attitudes. Anna L. Rose Hawkes, in describing attempts at international education which have met with some success in New York State, reminds us that "the most formidable fact of life for all Americans in the second half of the twentieth century is our growing involvement with the rest of the world" (Hawkes, 1966, p. 5). President Kennedy, in speaking before the United Nations in 1963, echoed a similar note: "Winning the peace (cannot) consist only of dramatic victories. Peace is a daily, a weekly, a monthly process, gradually changing opinions, slowly eroding old barriers, quietly

building new structures" (quoted in Hawkes, 1966, p. 17).

The overall conclusion of theorists and practitioners alike is that this daily, weekly, monthly process of changing attitudes is not likely to happen automatically. If the educational structure of a nation is to facilitate this process, it must be done in a deliberate fashion. Elly's study of fostering international attitudes in New Zealand 14 year olds concluded that "schools make little contribution to international understanding unless teachers deliberately foster it" (reported in Buergenthal & Torney, 1976, p. 121). McBecker sees that "the need is to devise a system that educates all comers, rich and poor, foreign and domestic, to full humanity", and he reinforces the need for this positive approach by reviewing the lack of progress to date: "As long as the framework for international education is based on the notion that education, like military power, is but a means to achieve national ambitions, progress in building better cross-cultural and global relations among peoples and nations is likely to be incidental and haphazard" (in Henderson, 1973, p. 106). To encourage experimentation along positive lines, McBecker lists the increasing number of careers that require international roles; the Peace Corps, multinational firms, communication satellites, travel, diplomacy, international organizations, and the like.

Pierson adds to this motivation a broader list of factors, including personal prestige, knowledge, and skill; institutional motivations such as altruism and enlightment; the self-interest of nations, including the increased security likely to be gained through

mutual understanding; the need of many nations for technical expertise; and the universal need for adaptability in times of rapid change" (Education for a World Society, 1951). A more dated but still relevant motivating factor is added by Gray (1941), when he refers to the universal nature of knowledge, particularly evident in the promotion of science. In the midst of war, he still found reason to believe that scholarly inquiry continued to nourish "the spirit of tolerance, mutual respect, and collaboration in intellectual pursuits" (Gray, 1941, p. 106).

Delivery systems for attitude change

Given this formidable list of arguments in favor of continued efforts toward mutual understanding through international education, the question becomes one of devising effective delivery systems. Henderson (1968) calls for the training of terrestrial teachers, those who possess a double loyalty - to the world as well as to the needs of their own community. Adam suggests that the task must begin with an acceptance of the frequently referred to universal condition of parochialism

> A realistic approach to the task of acquainting large numbers of people with problems beyond their familiar environment would accept the provincialism of the human mind as a practical starting point. World affairs are after all the sum of myriads of local tensions and can be dealt with as sensibly, perhaps more sensibly, on the level of local consequences as on the heights of diplomatic maneuvering (Adam, 1948, p. 7).

Community-based approaches to raising awareness levels are also suggested by Becker (1973), and in more detail, by Zweig (1967),

whose argument is based on a philosophical position as to the fundamental mission of any educational establishment.

> The first task of education is not, as is generally assumed, to teach the subject matter of the arts and sciences. It is to raise the level of awareness and response to all ideas, events, people and objects. If there is a narrow range of possibility in the area of response - a uniformity of ideas, people, objects, events - then the level of awareness remains comparably low, the education itself becomes narrowing in its effects (Zweig, 1967, p. ix-x).

One of the more frequently found devices suggested for raising awareness to the international dimension is the establishment of schools which are international in structure, ownership, personnel, curriculum and in all other aspects. Leach (1969) offers a description to an ideal multi-level international boarding school, with provision for continuing alumni contact through conferences on the site. While most proposals for such deliberately international schools do not seek to cover this wide an age range, the idea of an international university is a popular one. Zweig (1967) reports that from the end of World War I, over a thousand proposals for world universities and international education centers had been made. His work presents a brief history and analysis of the rationale for the world university idea. As appealing as the idea of an international university has been, however, the substantial difficulties in implementation would indicate that at least for the present, the existing educational structures must be adapted to meet the need for the creation of a less nationalistic, xenophobic worldview.

Creating climates for attitude change

A number of authors have focused on the subject of creating climates conducive to attitude change. Those whose research was within an international or cross-cultural context were of most interest here. Attitude change in cross-cultural contact is a complex issue, and a number of authors have sought to identify the variables correlated with such change. Among those identified as important in the process are: personality factors, time, cognitive strain, reference groups, world mindedness, shared tasks, and reference groups. These and other variables have been manipulated by researchers in a variety of situations, drawing conclusions as to the conditions necessary for attitude change to occur in interpersonal, intercultural contexts.

Cognitive strain, in the form of role incongruence, has been demonstrated by Secord and Backman (1974), Palmore (1955), and Hofman and Zak (1969) to be an important principle in prejudice reduction. For example, in interaction with a person who occupies a role category incompatible with the attributed ethnic stereotype for that person, conflicting expectancies are aroused. Modifications of the inappropriate expectations reduces the cognitive strain. This reduction in prejudicial stereotypes is often limited to the specific role, however, and does not produce a generalized increase in tolerance or liking.

Pool et al (1956) found a generalized broadening occurring in businessmen who travel extensively, but attribute this expansion to the development of a new reference group, rather than to any substantial liberalization of attitude. The phenomenon thus could be expected to

be temporary and dependent upon the circumstance of travel, with repeated contact with new referents.

Those researchers who have investigated the time variable provide mixed reports as to the expected patterns of attitude change. Effects of maturation and history confound these longitudinal studies. In general, however, attitude change is more likely when the duration of the cross-cultural contact is more lengthy (Smith, 1955, 1957; Selltiz and Cook, 1962; Eide, 1970; Coelho, 1962). Brief sojourns may never raise the necessity of attitude change, for a traveler may maintain sufficient psychological distance from the new environment as to never be required to adapt to it.

Studies which have focused directly on attempts to inculcate a mind set referred to as world mindedness reiterate the complexity of the attitude change question, Iisager (1949) found about half of the participants in an international folk high school in Denmark to be positively influenced in the direction of world mindedness, but found the community life of the school to be the most important factor in producing this change, rather than factors related to curriculum. Sampson and Smith (1957) took great care to point out that world mindedness is not necessarily dependent upon experience in another culture, but could simply be a mind set of interest in another culture, or of world perspective. Riecken (1952) emphasizes the impact of peer pressure on the development of an attitude of world mindedness. A relatively brief experience in a Quaker work camp was found to produce significant attitudinal shifts, largely attributable to the impact of homogeneous peer group pressure.

Several authors have investigated the effects of social distance and of an atmosphere varying in level of coercion on the production of attitude change. Eide (1970) supports the notion that attitude change is more likely to happen when initial differences are moderate rather than extreme. She discusses attitude change in terms of social distance.

> Between the representatives of different groups, an impact is most likely where these groups are within a certain range of cultural distance. Beyond this range an impact is neither sought nor achieved...(Eide, 1970, p. 127).

Whereas a low or moderate amount of social distance may predispose individuals toward intercultural contact, that contact in turn affects social distance. Bardis (1956) found that foreign students, in general, had low social distance scores as compared with American students. He explains this by referring to the foreign students' history of intercultural experience. "International and interracial contacts, with the exception of a few cases characterized by unpleasant experience, have tended to reduce social distance" (Bardis, 1956, p. 113). The McGuigan study (1959) also found a significant decrease in ethnic distance, a parallel concept, resulting from intercultural experience. In a study identifying factors which determine whether United States students interact with foreign students, Goldsen, Suchman, and Williams (1956) found low social distance to be both cause and effect of cross-cultural social interaction. They found campus community participation, association-mindedness and spatial proximity to be positively correlated with cross-cultural interaction.

Although social distance and social acceptance are a matter of cultural definition, it seems reasonable to conclude that informal interactions such as campus community participation, where the individual exercises choice as to participation, imply social acceptance of others present. Cross-cultural contact, freely chosen, provides a fertile situation for acquisition of new knowledge about persons of other cultures in a situation of friendly interaction. The absence of coercive control over participation is an essential feature of any situation productive of attitude change. Coercion may produce behavioral conformity but is unlikely to positively affect attitudes (Rushlau, 1966, p. 44). Kelman (1962) emphasizes that both positive interaction and new knowledge are essential features of the situation also. "It is the joint occurrence of friendly behavior toward the other and genuinely new information about him that makes favorable attitude change possible" (Kelman, 1962, p. 86). Secord and Backman (1974) agree that this change in affect occurs by way of cognition, and re-emphasize that the goal for the individual is to reduce cognitive strain, or inconsistency. Selltiz and Cook (1955) corroborate this approach, stressing that the cognitive aspects of attitude are the most easily changed (p. 55).

Rushlau (1966) cautions that "it is clear that the individual has little direct control over the conditions which will produce change in the attitudes or opinions of another person" (p. 44). However, it is possible to specify the variables correlated with attitude change in interpersonal contact. Selltiz and Cook (1956) present a list

of the most crucial conditions necessary for a situation productive of attitude change. This list is based on their review of research on intergroup contact and attitude change within the United States.

> It appears that, when members of different ethnic groups find themselves together in situations which offer opportunity to get to know each other as individuals where they have equal status, where the individuals of the two groups have common interests and are similar in characteristics such as age or occupation, where the social norms are favorable to association between the two groups, and where the circumstances of the situation favor cooperation or at least do not introduce competition or conflict - given these conditions, it appears that personal association with members of an ethnic group other than one's own leads to favorable changes in attitude towards that group. (p. 33)

The authors point out that cross-cultural contacts may differ from those situations studied within the United States in the extent of preconceived notions, the influence of other aspects of the new experience, the number of dissimilarities, and the confounding variables of attitudes toward international political and economic situations. Eide (1970), however, feels that "there should be no reason for conceiving intercultural communication in other terms than those generally applied to the study of interaction" (p. 135). The depth of experiential differences among dominant Caucasians, Native Americans, American Blacks, Chicanos, and other groups lend support to Eide's viewpoint.

Requirements for attitude change

Contact and knowledge are two basic requirements for attitude change. It is useful to specify the nature of that attitude change insofar as possible, in order to more definitively describe the goals of intercultural communication in general, and of international education

in particular. Few authors directly treat this issue. Some specify the attitude change that takes place as a kind of mobility. There is some confusion as to whether intercultural mobility takes place as a kind of fusion, homogeneity, as in the concept of the melting pot (Eide, 1970, p. 135). There seems to be more benefit in describing this mobility as psychological, rather than physical, social or cultural. In Coehlo's definition (1962) of international understanding in terms of personal growth of exchange students, the mobility described becomes that of the ability to conceptualize in another's frame of reference, or to broaden one's own frame of reference considerably. This is the value orientation spoken of as world mindedness in Sampson and Smith's (1957) terms, a subjective perspective rather than a position on political affairs.

International Educational Services in the United States

It has been demonstrated that contact and knowledge are among the basic requirements for attitude change. It is presumed desirable to create a context for favorable attitude change to take place across cultural boundaries. The issue than becomes the identification of variables important to the creation of a context for the development of favorable attitude change. In particular, the problem is to develop a set of criteria for international educational services programs on U.S. college and university campuses, which can confidently be expected to create a climate favorable to the fostering of international understanding and good will, as well as to the encouragement of the free exchange of ideas in the pursuit of truth.

The responsibility for the creation of such a climate clearly rests upon the accepting institution.

> Every admission and/or assignment of a student to a course of education in a foreign country, and thus to an extended sojourn and exposure abroad, represents a major assumption of responsibility, a considerable investment in funds, and a significant opportunity to contribute both to the individual concerned and to articulated or implied broader common goals, national and international (Spaulding and Flack, 1976, p. 2).

The large number of institutions eager to accept this responsibility indicates considerable enthusiasm for international educational exchange on U.S. campuses. According to the Institute of International Education's Open Doors, (1980) in 1978/79, of 2,752 institutions responding to their questionnaire, 2,504 reported the presence of foreign students. The Committee on the Professional School and World Affairs gives a more impressionistic, but confirming, report:

> It would be remarkable today to visit a major institution of higher learning, no matter how remote from the eastern or western seaboards, and not encounter a number of visiting foreigners, both students and faculty...and a leavening yeast of Americans who had recently returned from some remote corner of the globe...American university personnel have taken on, however, casually...a world-encompassing role and responsibility (The Professional School and World Affairs, 1968, p. 12).

Several researchers have noted the casual, ad hoc nature of the assumption of responsibility for international education and related services. Higbee (1961) found that even where policy statements exist with regard to international education, other concerns often take priority. "Quite naturally, most presidents and academic officials give at least lip service to the broader aspects of institutional involvement in the mutual exchange of faculty, students and knowledge. Yet other objec-

tives have often acted as a brake on implementing this interest to any extensive degree" (p. 45). Deutsch confirms this judgment: "University administrators seem to have, on the whole, a genuine commitment to international aspects of higher education; yet they believe the basic and traditional educational concerns have primacy, and they perceive international programs as secondary, luxury items" (Deutsch, 1970, p. 166).

Despite the widespread perception of international education as peripheral to institutional interests, the numbers of participants have shown steady growth. The number of foreign students at institutions responding to the Institute of International Education's survey for the period 1954-1979 is shown in Table 1, demonstrating more than a sevenfold increase. In Table 2, is given the percentage distribution of foreign students in major fields of study at two and four year colleges during the 1978-79 academic year, while Figure 1 highlights the geographic regions of origin of foreign students over the 1954-1979 period, clearly indicating growth and stability areas in that population pool. Further demographic data are available in Appendix A.

Table 1

Foreign Students in the United States

Year	Number of Students
1954/55	34,232
1955/56	36,494
1956/57	40,666
1957/58	43,391
1958/59	47,245
1959/60	48,486
1960/61	53,107
1961/62	58,086
1962/63	64,705
1963/64	74,814
1964/65	82,045
1965/66	82,709
1966/67	100,262
1967/68	110,315
1968/69	121,362
1969/70	134,959
1970/71	144,708
1971/72	140,126
1972/73	146,097
1973/74	151,066
1974/75	154,580
1975/76	179,340
1976/77	203,070
1977/78	235,510
1978/79	263,940

Source: Institute of International Education. Open Doors: 1978/79, p. 5.

Table 2

Percentage Distribution of Foreign Students in Major Fields of Study at Two and Four Year Schools in the Academic Year 1978/79

Percentage of All Foreign Students		Major Field of Study
Two-Year	Four-Year	
18.3	81.7	Engineering
14.3	85.7	Business and Management
3.8	96.2	Natural and Life Sciences
7.7	92.3	Social Sciences
5.9	94.1	Humanities
5.3	94.7	Education
12.7	87.3	Math, Computer Science
17.0	83.0	Fine and Applied Arts
13.5	86.5	Health Professions
7.3	92.7	Agriculture
26.2	73.8	Other
16.3	83.7	All Students

Source: Institute of International Education. Open Doors: 1978/79, p. 19.

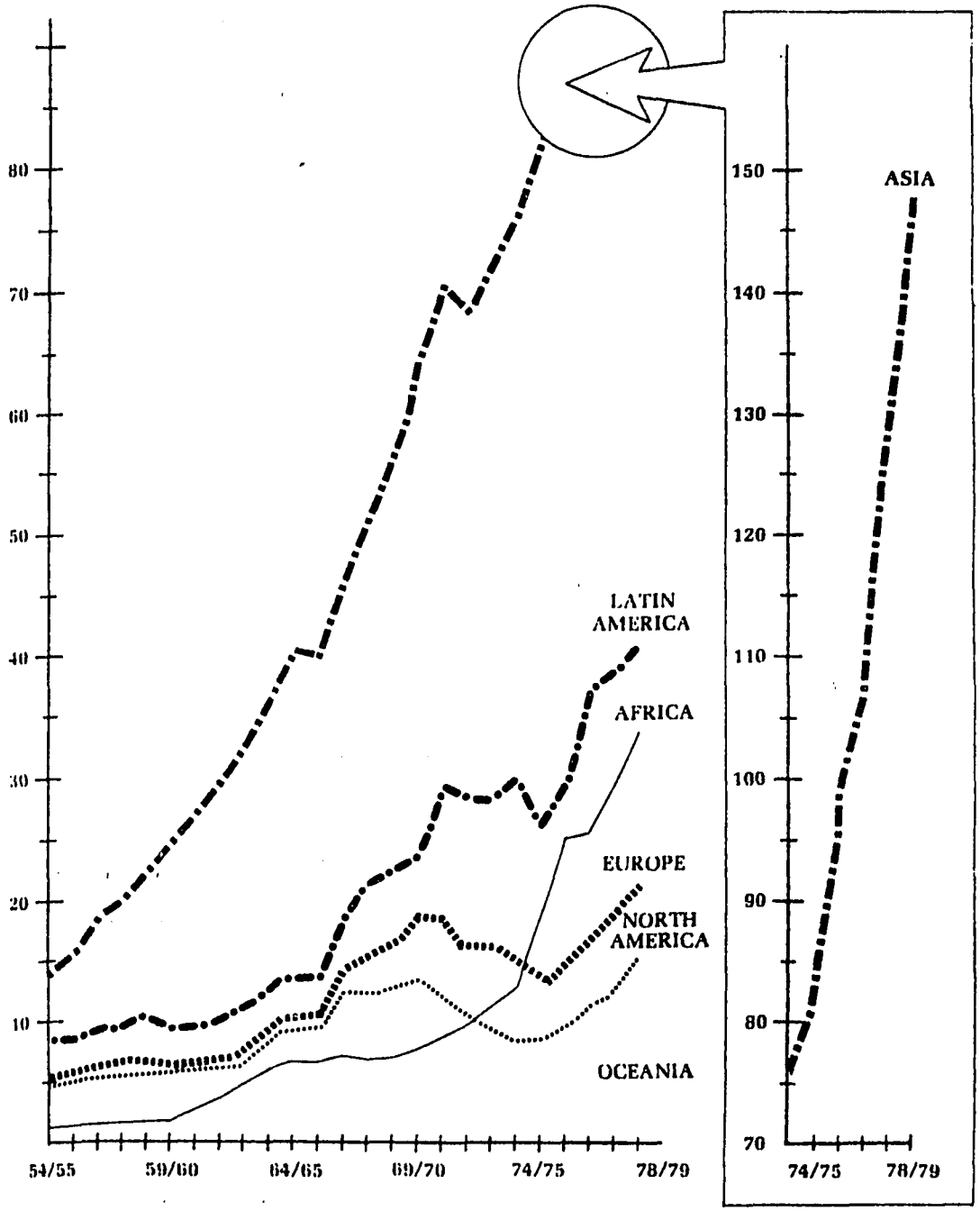

Figure 1

Foreign Students in the United States
By Major World Regions
1954/55-1978/79
Source: (Institute of International Education, 1980, p. 7)

Role of the foreign student advisor

Institutional responses to this international presence have not shown the same steady characteristics of growth, but have, rather, been sporadic, ad hoc, and crisis-responsive. The first foreign student advisor position was created in 1907 at the University of Illinois, and that was followed by the University of Michigan in 1911, and American University in 1929 (Klinger, 1962). By World War II, there were 13 such advisors. "From 1946-1956 a total of 357 individuals entered into the position, and from 1957-1960 an additional 28 individuals became foreign student advisors" (Miller, 1973, p. 11). By 1971 over two thousand campuses in the U.S. included a foreign student advisor on their staff.

Frequently, this function is performed in conjunction with other duties. Cieslak in his 1955 study found that 28 of the 58 responding advisors reported spending less than one-third of their time at that job. Thirteen were half-time foreign student advisors, and 11 were full-time.

In that portion of their role assigned as foreign student advising, these persons typically perform three distinct functions. First, he or she serves as the focal point that organizes and integrates diversified areas of competence and responsibility of the university towards its foreign students. Secondly, the foreign student advisor is the interpreter of the regulations of the Immigration and Naturalization Service with regard to visas, work permits, extension of stay, temporary departure, and immigration. In both of these capacities, the

foreign student advisor may be perceived by international students as a governmental and university functionary, with powers similar to those of the police.

The third function of the typical foreign student advisor, that of being a culturally sophisticated and sensitive counselor, is quite different in concept. International students differ enormously in their culturally-defined attitudes towards use of counseling services, and may be, in general, expected to be more receptive towards the role of the foreign student advisor in this regard than towards a staff psychologist. It is in regard to the lack of training in this area in particular that Davis (The Rising Demand for International Education, 1961) refers to foreign student advising as a would-be profession. This portion of the job requires an emphasis on the process of communication, a sensitivity to the deep and persisting ways in which culture controls behavior, and an ability to project oneself into the skin of another, to have empathy (NAFSA, 1975, p. 4).

Demands of a greatly contrasting nature are posed by the administrative tasks of the foreign student advisor. Here the emphasis is necessarily on task completion, patience with detail, responsibility in budgeting, time allotment, and the persistence to complete myriads of forms. Smith (1955) finds it unlikely that these antithetical personality requirements - the administrative expert and the sensitive counselor - often coexist in the same persons. Davis (The Rising Demand for International Education, 1961) analyzes the profession in terms of the criteria of technical competence, a body of knowledge, and publicly

asserted responsibility, and finds it lacking. Perhaps the role of foreign student advisor can best be characterized as emerging, a profession in development, faced with conflicting responsibilities in a context ambivalent towards its importance within the overall educational structure.

Needs of participants in educational exchange

Not surprisingly in such a context, participants in international educational exchange are served with varying degrees of efficiency and effectiveness. Hull, reporting in 1978 on a longitudinal study of 955 foreign students at three representative institutions, found financial problems, an unmet need for informal contact with Americans, and depression to be the three most frequently reported problems. Students responding to the question of overall satisfaction with the sojourn indicated more satisfaction with academic than with non-academic aspects of their stay. Hull recommended the development of intervention strategies on the part of institutional staff with the goal of assisting foreign students to develop more positive coping skills. Hendricks and Zander (1975) report the perceived ineffectiveness of orientation programs designed to assist foreign students at the University of Minnesota in the development of these coping skills. "Most of the participants we interviewed found the content too simplistic or at minimum oriented towards problems for which they had already worked out tenable solutions" (p. 33). The persistence of adjustment problems in international students, and the documented ineffectiveness of some institutional responses, even at the more experienced and highly-

regarded universities, indicates an area for further research and training. Substantial improvements could be made in the provision of services to international students in the United States.

American students going abroad for periods of academic work are often in need of assistance from staff members at their home institutions as they plan the most effective use of their resources. In spite of some protective parents' reservations, American students have for two centuries eagerly sought the broadening experience of an international education. They have frequently found, along with Mark Twain, that "travel is fatal to prejudice, bigotry, and narrowmindedness, all foes to real understanding" (Quoted in Handbook, Midwest Center for Off-campus Studies, 1979, p. 2). Swift (1959) concurs, suggesting that "insight into world affairs need not come only from the classroom and the library" (p. 157), but also from travel, guided by an educational purpose and structure. In speaking of Fulbright scholars, Brown (1954) offers the hope that "through scholars...prejudices and narrowness that plague us all will become known and understood for what they are, and through scholarship perhaps ultimately banished" (p. 61). Indeed, one of the fundamental premises underlying the 1966 International Education Act is the belief that the kind of learning gained in study abroad programs can contribute to peace. "Knowledge of other countries is of utmost importance in promoting mutual understanding and cooperation between nations" (Ricci, quoted in Hensley, Sell, Fishel, 1978, p. 38).

This positive learning and mutual understanding happens no more automatically for American students abroad than for foreign students

in the United States. Sanders and Ward (1970) stress the importance of clearly defined objectives in their discussion of experiential, academic and administrative problems. The complexity of the experience for any given student, and of the structural options for study abroad programs available to students in general provides ample room for difficulties to arise. Any enumeration of such problems should, however, emphasize that most students consider the experience to be highly beneficial (Billigmeier and Forman, 1975). Scanlon and Shields (1968) state that "almost all Americans who study abroad as undergraduates believe that it is the richest educational experience in their lives" (p. 341). They find, however, that the major learning takes place in general education, and in language competence, rather than in the student's major subject area.

In spite of the high level of reported satisfaction, Scanlon and Shields (1968) are at pains to document the many difficulties and hazards of study abroad programs. They are especially critical of the inadequate orientation many students receive and the overcrowded conditions in which they work and live. Billigmeier and Forman (1975) call for a clear definition of the kinds of knowledge being sought in order to evaluate the impact of the programs along the academic, intellectual, sociocultural, and personal dimensions.

In a pilot evaluation study conducted in 1972 by the Federation of Regional Accrediting Commissions of Higher Education (FRACHE), several areas of weakness were cited: variable orientation quality; lack of library resources; isolated American outposts; overduplication;

inadequate evaluation efforts; excessive turnover of directors; and confusion over grades and credits. A similar list is offered by Frey (1976), stressing the lack of a standard set of criteria and inadequate guidelines for evaluation. The thrust of their research is to develop a criterion instrument, based on the results of a Delphic probe involving 120 panelists.

Authors who suggest directions for improvement focus on the possibilities of efficiency inherent in cooperative ventures. Kenworthy (1970) suggests formal affiliation with an institution abroad. FRACHE (1972) urges greater use of consortia or cooperative ventures, and the Committee on the Professional School and World Affairs (1968) stresses the vigor of schools of education tied to an international network of educational centers. A similar recommendation comes from Innovation in inservice education and training of teachers (1978), which urges greater international cooperation in inservice training to broaden the experiential base of prospective teachers. Implementation of suggestions such as these would greatly enhance the effectiveness of organized study abroad programs. Currently less than 1/2 of 1% of U.S. college students study in other countries (Sanders and Ward, 1970), but those programs are showing the same growth trends evidenced by programs which bring international students to these shores. Attention to the reforms suggested by evaluation research could reasonably be expected to affect both the quality and the quantity of study abroad experiences.

Butts (1963) calls for a consortium of professional schools of

education to plan and coordinate the experiences of international scholars, and others (Hensley et al. 1978; Pfnister, 1972) echo the emphasis on coordination, planning, and clarity of objectives. Whether in reviewing programs for foreign students or American students abroad, the call for clarification of goals and coordination of communication is found more frequently than any other recommendation. There are a large number of international students who profit from their experiences, and a fair list of strengths in U.S. international education programs. A 1967 State Department-sponsored review of exchange programs praised the breadth of research on the relationship between adjustment and academic success, the skill transfer successes, and the professional and technical leadership developed through such programs.

However, the successes are fragmentary and not necessarily attributable to sound design or to effective utilization of resources. Spaulding and Flack (1976) found that "while many programs and services are effective, others exhibit strong negative aspects. Many institutions and organizations, nominally dedicated to international education, are over-extended when it comes to providing effective support for foreign students..." (p. 121). The lack of resources is a hindrance but often not the major problem. In their research review, Spaulding and Flack found that "the most frequently made recommendation is that institutions must develop rationales for the foreign student presence" (p. 161). That rationale ideally develops with reference to the national political and cultural context. The International Education Act of 1966 made grants available for the furtherance of international education

at colleges and universities.

> The imperative can be clearly stated: the United States, in view of our world responsibilities and the high stakes for mankind that ride on the wisdom of our foreign policy, simply cannot afford to see large numbers of our young people receive a higher education which is untouched by understanding of the great forces at work in the world. (Innovations in Higher Education, 1966, p. 94)

Some general guidelines are suggested by the Act, but no exact prescriptions for a college or university with little experience in the field of international education are given. Out of the self-studies stimulated by the Act come some directions for developing a set of best practices. These suffer, as do the results of the self-assessments stimulated by the 1951 Carnegie Endowment for International Peace handbook, from localized orientations or overabstract generalization.

Evaluation Research

In an attempt to develop a set of locally adaptable criteria for international education programs which is at once measurable and widely applicable, several researchers have addressed the issue of evaluation more directly. The FRACHE 1972 pilot study focusing on study abroad programs is a notable early attempt, and documents the development of one of the most reliable instruments in the literature to date.

Higbee (1961) and Miller (1973) focused on the role of the foreign student advisor. Higbee's recommendations would strengthen the place of international education in the total institutional structure, while Miller provides data on critical functions of foreign student advisors. These functions are then ranked according to the effectiveness with

which they view their performance of these functions under present conditions. With regard to the specific role of fellowship administrator, often housed in the foreign student advising structure, the research of Elliot provides evaluative information. He urges the adoption of social science methodology, including statistical analysis, rather than a continuation of administrative evaluation which he characterizes as predominantly record-keeping.

Rourke & Brooks (1966) broaden this push toward the use of more rationalized management techniques in higher education, emphasizing the enhanced ability to engage in systematic foresight to be gained through use of such techniques as institutional research, computer use, and systematic resource allocation. They find administrators at educational institutions to be much more quantitatively oriented than was the case prior to the current accountability drives.

In addition to these evaluation concerns which are primarily administrative, there are also calls for more systematic and generalized evaluative research, a drive to develop model programs, and an impetus toward the development of standards and goals for use in evaluation efforts.

Cussler (1962) provides an analysis of major private and government sponsored research on cross-cultural education. Recommendations growing out of that analysis are useful guides to development in both the academic and student affairs aspects of international education. The U.S. Department of State 1962 evaluation of research on educational exchange argues for a standardized methodology and the promotion of

several master research plans. Without such standardization, research's role could become an attempt to justify various programs rather than to empirically investigate events and circumstances.

Forty evaluation studies dating from 1951 to 1965 are summarized in a Bureau of Educational Cultural Affairs report cited in Spaulding and Flack (1976). Each evaluation study summary outlines the design, purpose, conclusions, and recommendations. Methodology is addressed briefly in the review as well.

Several articles document attempts to design model programs, often building on information made available from one or more of these evaluation studies. To date, the model programs have been designed to meet specific local situations, and have varied widely on whether the objectives are measurable and whether evaluation strategies are built into the design.

Representative of many of these model program designs is Bailey and Powell's report on goals of the University of California system (1978). These goals, established in 1970, were designed to standardize and improve international educational services throughout the system. Among the recommendations are quotas, early admittance, geographic distribution, English proficiency, and the like. Reporting in 1978, the authors state that for the most part these goals had not been met at Berkeley, the institution their report particularly concerned.

Kaplan (n.d.) and Cooney (1974) provide an unusually intense focus on model development, for both treat the subject of international educational services in the state of Florida. Cooney is concerned with

developing an effective model for community colleges, while Kaplan recommends best practices for a large state university system.

Specific recommendations such as Kaplan's, from developing courses which provide reentry assistance, or encouragement of faculty, to develop joint degree programs across national boundaries, are nearly precise enough to function as standards. A checklist of standards provides one readily available evaluation technique. An institution or program can simply devise a scale and indicate the extent to which they fall short of, meet, or exceed the standard. NAFSA has been active in recent years in the area of standards development, and in 1979 published a handbook containing standards and general principles for the guidance of volunteers and staff. These standards are included in Appendix B.

At Iowa State University, an intense evaluation effort in the 1979-80 academic year produced a number of instruments and strategies useful in measuring productivity and effectiveness of the international educational services office on that campus (Fystrom and Peterson, 1980). The list of standards which was used in that effort is included in Appendix B, along with a brief explanation of the process which produced that list.

The evaluation effort at Iowa State was undertaken in the belief that the assessment of office performance is an essential part of office administration. That responsibility, however, is frequently carried out in a haphazard, subjective fashion, with undue reliance on estimates of merit based on memory. Problems of distortion, perceptual

set, selective attention, and contamination are nearly inevitable. If evaluation is to provide useful information, bias must be avoided and objectivity enhanced insofar as possible. Weiss, in considering how to make evaluations more useful to decision-makers, states: "The basic rationale for evaluation is that it provides information for action. Its primary justification is that it contributes to the rationalization of decision-making" (Weiss, 1972, p. 319).

The Iowa State evaluation, together with reviews of prior evaluation research have led to the decision to broaden the development of standards to a national base. The listing of criteria of excellence would provide guidelines for administrators seeking to initiate or improve international educational services. These standards could be roughly and efficiently checked for accuracy against the current practices of several of the more effective international educational services programs currently in operation.

Selection of Appropriate Methodology

The problem of developing criteria of excellence and the identification of existing high quality international education programs is, like many other administrative issues, a matter as much of art as of science. Quality is a necessarily intuitive, subjective judgment to some extent when the measured quantity is services to people, not production of an item of measurable weight, thickness, or flawlessness. The development of quality standards, criteria of excellence, in human services depends to some extent on the satisfaction of all concerned parties. However well disguised in Likert scales or other instruments,

satisfaction is still a judgment made for somewhat obscure reasons.

The resolution of the methodological problem in measuring quality of a human service, in this case, an international education program, lies in either waiting for the development of a flawless technique for converting subjective judgments to objective data, or facing the problem of subjectivity by careful selection of those whose opinion is solicited. In the interest of time, the latter option was selected, and the problem then becomes the selection of optimally qualified individuals, so that their amassed judgments might have substantial significance for the issue at hand.

In the area of international education, both the providers of the services and the recipients of the services are in a position to make judgments about the effectiveness of those services. Although the research design incorporates data from both sources, the assumption is made that the relatively longer contact and greater breadth of experience of the service providers gives them additional weight as experts. Therefore, the primary source of experts for judgments about quality programs will be the service providers, and members of their professional organizations, whether or not those individuals are currently engaged in the provision of direct services. The more transient students will be surveyed as a means of providing an independent check on the data collected from the primary experts.

Techniques for compiling expert opinion

The source for an appropriate methodology then revolves around the discovery of a validated technique for amassing the judgments of

relevant experts. However, the proliferation of methodologically sophisticated techniques available is considerably less than the frequency of the problem might indicate.

A search of the literature reveals two dominant categories of techniques available for the systematic compiling of expert opinion on an issue: the committee method and futurist techniques. The former has by far the most practitioners, despite considerable documentation of its weaknesses.

Decision makers regularly seek a committee or council consensus on complex issues without adequate information in order to meet pressures for policy making, conflict resolution, and other daily business. The committee method would be more than adequate if the sum of the knowledge of all individuals present encompassed all aspects of the problem and if the discussion were conducted in an atmosphere of absolute trust, openness and equality. Leaving aside the pooled knowledge question as idealistic, the literature provides much documentation of psychological difficulties in the committee setting.

For example, Solomon Asch's pioneering work on conformity (1965) reveals the extent to which individuals consciously and unconsciously suppress their doubts in order to agree with a majority. Stanley Milgram's work in obedience experiments (1974) illustrates the powerful effect of authority in coercing cooperation and agreement. However, perhaps the most telling documentation of the weakness of the committee system comes from the work of I. Janis on the dangers of groupthink (1973). In his classic examination of the Bay of Pigs fiasco, Janis

found two major problems: the illusion of invulnerability and the illusion of unanimity. Briefly, these difficulties arise in a highly cohesive group with high levels of expertise and optimism. They believe that their expertise is additive, that together they constitute a kind of super-mind, and in order to keep this group spirit going, each member suppresses his or her private misgivings. The result is a noteworthy lack of critical thinking, with possibly disastrous results.

Similar difficulties may exist in much more mundane committee settings as well. The effect of a powerful personality in the group or of a forceful leader may be to suppress criticism and foster a premature consensus. It may be a simple bandwagon rather than the more exotic danger of groupthink, but the perils for the decision-making process are just as real. Janis suggests several procedures which might compensate for these tendencies (1973). However, all require prolonged face-to-face committee interaction, a condition not likely to be met by the present research project. An improved model of the committee process which incorporates current research on creativity, organizational change, and social planning has been developed by Delbecq and Van de Ven (1971). Called the program planning model, it has the considerable asset of structured input from all involved sectors in program planning. However, this method also requires extensive group interaction, although the coercive effects of dominant personalities are minimized.

Although several promising developments offer new strength to the committee method, the requirement of prolonged interpersonal

interaction sets a prohibitive cost. The preliminary search for individuals with sufficient expertise to develop the criteria of excellence for the present project, and to identify high-quality programs has produced a list of individuals very widely dispersed geographically. The traditional committee process then, is rejected for reasons of cost and impracticality as well as for its inherent weaknesses.

The second major category of techniques for the amassing of expert opinion is found in the descriptions of futurist strategies. Government agencies and private corporations clearly have an interest in developing sound predictive abilities, and futurists have created an array of techniques to meet their need. Several of these techniques, although of considerable interest for planners, have limited applicability to the problem under consideration.

Under the general heading of scenarios, numerous strategies for mapping the future have been developed. Cornish (1977) lists morphological analyses, relevance trees, mission flow diagrams and other visual schemes for listing and evaluating alternative futures. Eymard (1977) discusses a more highly developed scenario technique, the Markovian Cross-Impact model, which includes the time dimension. The method has limited application, however, for "to get a meaningful result, the participants must have a precise and equal understanding of each event and each state of the system in question" (p. 228). It is doubtful that the experts to be consulted in this project, however well qualified, meet this criteria for information level.

Flanagan (1954) offers an intriguing technique which is as useful

for analysis of past events as for futures planning. The critical incident technique attempts to pinpoint criteria of excellence by compiling direct observations of significant human behaviors and developing broad psychological principles from these observations. Although the technique is open to the criticism of excessive subjectivity, it does offer a method of collecting relevant data. Provision for inclusion of this type of information will be made in the open-ended portions of the initial contact instrument used with the expert panels.

Cross-impact matrices of the type suggested by Burnett (1978) and Cornish (1977) have the advantage of identifying relationships among variables in complex systems. They require, however, the prior identification of the important variables, and have been used primarily for prediction of likelihood of an event and of its impact. The point these researchers raise about interrelationship in complex systems is an important one, and will be taken into account in the data analysis stage of the research. At a minimum, the nature of the relationships between the defined criteria of excellence, whether it is hierarchical or of a network type, will be one of the questions addressed in the summary of the findings.

Games and simulations are additional futurist techniques referred to in the literature. They require to be most effective a degree of interaction not possible in the present study. However, the closely related model development technique is a promising strategy which can

be applied following the initial data collection.

Of the array of futurist techniques surveys in the literature, there is one which has a design admirably suited to the purposes of this research. The Delphi method "may be characterized as a method for structuring a group communication process so that the process is effective in allowing a group of individuals, as a whole, to deal with a complex problem" (Linstone and Turoff, 1975, p. 3). Although frequently used for technological forecasting, the method has wide applicability, especially in policy or decision-making areas, and in the collection of data of a judgmental type. A discussion of the method, its history, its strengths and weaknesses, and its potential applications in education will reveal its appropriateness for the present research.

The Delphi Method

Philosopher Abraham Kaplan suggested the unusual name for this technique, referring to the predictive abilities of the oracle at Delphi. The first contemporary use of the method occurred about 1948 in an attempt to improve the prediction of horse race outcomes (Pill, 1971). Extensive criticism of both the methodology and its application set development back considerably. However, in the early 1950s, Olaf Helmer and Norman Dalkey of the RAND Corporation in Santa Monica, California, attempted to use the technique in prediction and policy planning. Their first major work with the technique dealt with the subject matter of atomic warfare and thus was not made publicly available for an extended period (Fischer, 1978). Dalkey and Helmer pub-

lished numerous philosophical and methodological discussions of the Delphi method for RAND, and in 1966, Helmer's comprehensive description, "The Delphi Method for Systematizing Judgments About the Future", was published by the UCLA Institute of Government and Public Affairs. Linstone and Turoff (1975) document the rapid acceptance of the technique: "In 1969 the number of Delphi studies that have been done could be counted in three digits; today, in 1974, the figures may have already reached four digits. The technique and its application are in a period of evolution, both with respect to how it is applied and to what it is applied" (p. 3). Many of these recently developed applications, however, are not publicly available due to the proprietary nature of the subject matter. Business and industry have found the Delphi a valuable technological forecasting tool, but its method is equally applicable to a variety of policy issues (Turoff, 1970) and to research in the social sciences and in education (Linstone & Turoff, 1975).

The essential quality of the Delphi method is its ability "to obtain the relevant intuitive insights of experts and then use their judgments as systematically as possible: (Helmer, 1966, p. 3). It is a "rapid and relatively efficient way to 'cream the top of the heads' of a group of knowledgable people" (Pill, 1971, p. 58). The nature of certain problems and issues makes the intuitive judgments of experts the most reliable information obtainable. The types of problems for which the Delphi was designed have the characteristics of being "long-range, they are cross-diciplinary, they largely lack a theoretical

foundation as a basis for attack, and they are urgent" (Helmer, 1966, p. 1). Linstone and Turoff expand these characteristics to include the following (1975, p. 4):

> The problem does not lend itself to precise analytical techniques but can benefit from subjective judgments on a collective basis
>
> The individuals needed to contribute to the examination of a broad or complex problem, have no history of adequate communication and may represent diverse backgrounds with respect to experience or expertise
>
> More individuals are needed than can effectively interact in a face-to-face exchange
>
> Time and cost make frequent group meetings infeasible
>
> The efficiency of face-to-face meetings can be increased by a supplemental group communication process
>
> Disagreements among individuals are so severe or politically unpalatable that the communication process must be refereed and/or anonymity assured
>
> The heterogeneity of the participants must be preserved to assure validity of the results, i.e., avoidance of domination by quantity or by strength of personality ("bandwagon effect")

Characteristics of the Delphi which offer a response to these problem traits are the following: guaranteed anonymity, the provision of controlled feedback and the development of a statistical group response for analysis. Related features are the use of formal communication channels, the reduction of nonfunctional or dysfunctional interaction ("noise"), and the use of reduced and controlled group pressure for conformity. The latter is accomplished through structured feedback. Ideally, the Delphi "permits each expert to make his predictions in a non-threatening atmosphere while still considering other expert judgments" (Stolovitch, 1976, p. 9).

Steps in the Delphic process

Although there are many variations on the technique in the literature, the essential common steps are few in number and simple in concept. An initial questionnaire is mailed to a group of respondents who remain anonymous to each other. They either respond to a structured instrument or generate criterion statements, depending on the research design. The investigator collects the data, develops group norms, and sends a second questionnaire to the respondents with this information. Respondents are given the opportunity to compare their responses with those of the entire group, and to make any desired shifts in their responses in this second round. Justification of extreme responses is also requested. Frequently at this stage, the panel members are provided with a list of all respondents' criterion statements and asked to rank the items in order of priority. The iterations are continued until a consensus is reached, or until it becomes apparent that no consensus is likely. Often three rounds are necessary, but the literature reports up to five.

The final group consensus or average becomes the standard, and is considered to represent the collective wisdom of the expert panel. Variations expand upon the educational aspects of the process for the respondent group. In addition to justifications for extreme positions, which may shed new light on aspects of certain issues, the group may be provided with information on any relevant issue by the investigator. Extreme caution is recommended in this area, however, for the likelihood of biasing the respondents is potentially high. Further infor-

mation can be introduced through the device of weighing opinions, asking panel members to judge their relative expertise on each topic covered by the investigation. Such weighing factors, however, are admittedly problematic, for the standards used by the respondents may vary greatly.

Strengths of the Delphi method

The strengths of the Delphi method are both philosophical and technical. The method's ability to solicit rich and varied types of experiential data results from its holistic nature. Both the cognitive and affective resources of the expert panel are tapped in questions which ask for value judgments, for desirability as well as feasibility information. In so doing, the method has the potential for bridging the gap between the 19th century image of social reality common in educational systems, as in other places (Ricken, 1976) and that rapidly changing reality.

A further related strength lies in the method's ability to tap isolated generativity in a way which makes subjective judgment objective. This process of externalizing judgment can reduce ambiguity, as well as clarify fundamental values assumptions (Steinmann et al. 1977, Ricken, 1976). The technical strengths of the method are at least as promising. By allowing individuals to generate ideas without group pressure in the initial round, artificial conformity is reduced, and the valuing of disagreement produces a broad range of ideas (Torrance, 1957). Individuals may be more willing to risk stating novel ideas (Torrance, 1957, Cecil et al. 1973). The process of proactive search behavior and the

production of written responses promises carefully thought through ideas with high specificity (Van de Ven and Delbecq, 1974). The experts are insulated not only from conformity pressure, but also from the possibility of frustration over prolonged disagreement, a situation which inhibits many decision-making committee efforts (Steinmann et al.,1977).

Several authors refer to the reliability and validity of results obtained by this method. Reeves (1978) refers to high validity in almanac type experiments. Dagenais (1978) states that "Delphi method reliability is acceptably high in real situations" (p. 308), and Burnette et al. (1978) point out that reliability is not influenced by bandwagon effects.

Delbecq, Van de Ven and Gustafson (1974) indicate that the reliance on expert knowledge produces more current information that that available from a literature search, and Brooks (1979) discusses the high participation rates, low cost, and usefulness of the findings of previous Delphis. Because of these characteristics, the Delphi has wide applicability in social science and education planning research, as well as in technological forecasting.

Criticisms of the Delphi method

The Delphi method is not universally praised, however. Several authors report severe criticism on both its intuitive basis and on the use of an expert panel. Strauss & Zeigler list among Sackman's scathing comments the belief that there is no validated definition of an expert (1975) nor any hard evidence substantiating the superiority of a group's collective judgment over that of an individual. Sackman also is of

opinion that vague questions and ambiguous responses in a Delphi lead to compounded ambiguity, a transient collection of snap judgments. Albertson & Cutler (1976) echo Sackman's further criticism that the Delphi is isolated from the scientific mainstream. Its intuitive basis necessarily depends on simplified abstractions, resulting in a consensus with an uncertain relationship to accuracy due to the limitations of the framework. Owens (1968) also points out that the results of a Delphi rest on assumptions which may not be specified, or of which the panel and investigators may not even be aware. Helmer (1977) extends this criticism of underlying assumptions by discussing the fact that Delphis usually treat events singly. In actuality, events are interrelated, and some sort of matrix methodology might address that issue more effectively.

Helmer (1977) also treats the issue of expert selection, but here he simply indicates that the criticism of expert panels as non-random samples is irrelevant. There may, however, be biases in those panels, a point raised by Albertson and Cutler (1976), who stress the need to use independent criteria for expert identification. Brooks (1979) sees the problem of panel capabilities as a very difficult one to assess. Pill (1971) raises an intriguing question with regard to panel selection for investigations of values questions. Are not ordinary people experts in some sense on social issues? It is clear that the question of panel member qualifications is a complex one.

Cornish (1977) and Van de Ven and Delbecq (1974) take a somewhat skeptical view of the motivation and performance of expert panels.

Cornish expects some potential panel members to be uncooperative, since anonymity denies them credit for their efforts. Van de Ven and Delbecq cite the lack of social rewards, absence of verbal clarification or comment on the feedback, and the lack of opportunity for prompt conflict resolution as Delphi characteristics inhibiting experts' cooperativeness.

Fischer (1978) attacks from a different perspective, pointing out a variety of statistical weaknesses in Delphi studies he has reviewed. He stresses the need for careful construction and analysis, and for replication. Pill (1971) indicates some limitations in Delphi as a scaling device, while design and construction issues are addressed also by Burnette, Danielson, and Algozzine (1978). They found that open ended questions tended to draw emotional responses not readily comparable in analysis with other panel members' responses. The issue of purpose of the study is raised by Cornish (1977) who fears that legitimate decision-makers may try to shift that responsibility to the panel members. However, Strauss & Zeigler (1975) consider that panel members might be unwilling to take on any responsibility, on the principle that anonymity leads to unaccountability.

Finally, Brooks (1979) discusses the relatively lengthy period required for the completion of a Delphi, often four to six months. That timeframe would render many policy questions moot, and certainly limits the usefulness of the Delphi in any type of crisis analysis. These objections and criticisms indicate the vigor of the method's development, and the progress made in the refinement of the technique.

In Linstone and Turoff's comprehensive review (1975), eight basic pitfalls are listed as a cautionary note for Delphi designers. The vast majority of the criticisms indicated in the literature can serve as a guide to the careful design of a Delphi study, and to caution in the generalization of its results.

Applicability of the Delphi method to educational research

In discussing the applicability of the Delphi method to educational research, it is useful to set it in the context of newly developed management techniques which are finding acceptance at colleges and universities. Rourke & Brooks (1969) find that these new techniques have high utility in projecting a public image of quantitative rationality. The proliferation of instruments of rationalized management, such as institutional research, resource allocation, and computer use have resulted in a "revolution in data-gathering (which) may push colleges and universities in the direction of much more self-conscious concern for long-range planning... The new techniques of management at least enhance the ability of colleges and universities to engage in systematic foresight, if they choose to do so" (Rourke & Brooks, 1966, p. 155). Brooks (1979) finds also that these techniques are newly important, and includes among them the Delphi, which has been of increasing use in education in the last fifteen years.

Reeves (1978) also finds that these new management techniques have improved decision-making in general, and illustrates this conclusion with the description of a Delphic study used to improve the rationality of the curriculum design process. Martin and Maynard (1973) report

another educational application of the Delphi; the polling of executives in private higher education for the purpose of clarifying the role of private education.

Among the reasons for this applicability of the Delphi method to education is its capacity for correlating information from interdisciplinary resources (Strauss & Zeigler, 1975). Helmer (1977) stresses the cross-disciplinary nature of events, and considers this capacity a major strength of the method. By allowing the expression of widely divergent views, the Delphi also has the potential for clarifying the existent bases for observed dissension, for reviving the advocacy process (Turoff, 1970). In addition to illuminating such dissension, the method has the potential for forcing individual participants to distinguish among their own goals and assumptions clearly enough to begin to prioritize them, an important step in policy planning (Ezell & Rogers, 1978). This is an excellent starting point for formulating institutional goals and objectives (Fischer, 1978).

Of interest to educational planners is a by-product of the Delphi process, that of motivating the participants for future implementation of the group-created goals. Rasp (1973-74) stresses the benefits of wide involvement in decisions, and Cecil et al (1973) agree, citing high motivation for accomplishment of group-set goals.

On a broader scale, Livingstone (1973) lists several general tactics for creating alternative educational futures. Among the questions addressed to potential change agents are the clarity of goals, the breadth of alternatives envisioned, the care with which these are

evaluated, the estimation of interrelational impacts, the exploration of underlying values, and the careful selection of those involved in the change process. These are questions of the sort that Delphi was designed to address. As a tool for improving educational planning, the method has wide applicability.

In the specific area of international education, the unique features of the Delphi method promise a rewarding research project. The issues in the field are of a manifestly interdisciplinary nature, and questions of values are inescapable. Robin Clarke (1976), in the section labeled "Ravings of a fatigued, drunken, young ex-scientist" (pp. 121-127), gives a powerful summary of the nature of problems facing the world. They are urgent, global, parallel, and connected with growth against fixed limits. This echoes the criteria for problems the Delphi was originally designed to investigate (Helmer, 1966). In contributing to the design of excellent international education programs, this project may make some progress toward the creation of a climate wherein these larger problems may more fruitfully be addressed.

Summary

An overview of international educational exchange history, and a survey of current activity in the field in the United States have provided background material for the present study. Evidence was presented from multiple sources as to the rationale for participation in international educational exchange on the part of persons, educational institutions, and national governments. Although general satisfaction with the experience is expressed by most participants, there is wide

variation in the quality of such experiences. Several pieces of research were presented which commented on the general failure of institutions to adequately articulate their rationale for participation in international education services. A second major weakness, pertinent to the present research, is the lack of generally applicable standards of excellence for institutional use in designing services to participants in international educational exchange.

The general purposes of this study are to develop a list of criteria of excellence in educational exchange services which encompasses office and program components as well as personal characteristics of the chief administrator of a high-quality program. Several programs judged to be excellent will be compared with these standards in order to provide a check on the practicality of the hypothetical standards. A detailed discussion of the rationale for selection of the Delphi methodology as most appropriate to the task was presented, together with a brief comment on the expected contribution of the study.

METHOD OF PROCEDURE

The purposes of this research were the development of criteria for excellence in international educational services, and the comparison of the characteristics of programs named as excellent with these criteria. The criteria were generated by an expert panel, brought toward consensus through the Delphic probe technique. Considerable care was exercised in the selection of panel members. The nationwide professional organization, The National Association of Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), maintains an active list of expert consultants, with several appointed each year to replace those retiring from this service. In 1979-80, there were 26 active consultants, with specific fields of expertise and responsibilities distributed among the various branches of NAFSA. Ten serve primarily as foreign student and scholar consultants; three as Admissions Section (ADSEC) consultants; three as Community Section (COMSEC) consultants; six serve as Association of Teachers of English as a Second Language (ATESL) consultants; three serve as consultants to the section on U.S. Students Abroad (SECUSSA), and one as an Intercultural Programming Consultant. Their length of service in this consulting capacity averaged three years, as one had been appointed in 1974, nine in 1976, nine in 1977, and seven in 1978. They have all had considerably lengthier periods of service on their respective campuses and organizational structures, however, and represent a broad range of administrative experience in international educational services. Several hold faculty rank, but most are currently serving as administrators. A wide geographic range is represented, as

well as considerable variation in size and type of institution in which they are currently employed.

In initiating the forming of the panel of experts an introductory letter explaining the nature of the study was distributed to all twenty-six consultants, along with cover letters from Dr. William Hunter, major professor of the researcher, and from Martin Limbird, Director of the Office for International Educational Services on the Iowa State University campus, and a member of NAFSA's Commission on Professional Development. Enclosed with these letters was the initial questionnaire, designed to generate the first round of responses in the Delphic Probe. Of the twenty-six consultants contacted, fifteen agreed to serve on the panel, and their responses constituted the basis for the criteria developed in the study. Copies of the cover letters and questionnaire are attached in Appendix C.

To eliminate possible bias from over-reliance on one professional organization, a second panel was sought. There are quite a few organizations active in the field of international educational exchange. Representatives of these organizations met in February 1979 at the Shoreham Americana Hotel in Washington, D.C. for the 1979 Conference on International Education sponsored by the Institute of International Education. From a list of 714 attending, a random sample of 40 was chosen as possible members of the second panel in the Delphic Probe. Cover letters and questionnaires essentially the same as those sent to the NAFSA panel were sent to these 40 individuals. Seventeen responded to the initial questionnaire. Due to the low rate of response, and to

the lack of any significant difference in their response from those of the first panel, the second panel was not utilized beyond the first round.

The study questionnaire sent to members of these two panels had several components; an introductory explanation, a request for a listing of characteristics of excellent programs, and the identification of the most effective programs in the respondent's judgment. The introductory paragraph outlined the form in which responses were desired, and encouraged rich and varied responses by defining the subject area of international education very broadly, including a wide range of program components. The questionnaire was essentially open-ended in design, and asked for subjective judgments from the panel members in three areas.

Panel members were first asked to indicate what they felt were some important components of a model international education program. It was suggested parenthetically that they might think in terms of administrative organization, staff positions, or facilities, but they were encouraged not to limit answers to those categories. Twelve one-half page blanks were available for responding to this question. Panel members were then asked to rate the items that they had listed in terms of importance or necessity. Items considered to be essential were rated at or near the number 5, while items in the "nice but not necessary" category were rated at or near the number 1. The higher the number assigned, the more essential the respondent felt that component to be for an excellent international education program.

The second major area of concern in the questionnaire required the panelists to reflect upon the characteristics of chief administrators of excellent international education programs. The instructions for this section read: "Some persons believe that the character of any administrative unit is shaped by the person responsible for that unit. What personality traits, experiences, and beliefs do you feel would characterize an ideal chief administrator of an excellent international education program"? Ten one-half page wide blanks were provided for the listing of these characteristics. The panelists were then requested to indicate the relative significance of each of the listed characteristics by ranking all of the items, with a number one next to that chacteristic they considered to be most important, a two next to that which they consider next most important, and so on through the entire list.

The final segment of the questionnaire requested the panel members to list the dozen most effective international education programs on U.S. campuses. They were asked to reflect upon the programs with which they had come in contact, and were reminded that, although such programs often have similar goals, they may vary widely in effectiveness in attaining these goals. No ranking of these dozen most effective international education programs was requested. A copy of the questionnaire is included in the Appendix.

The majority of panelists in both groups returned the data in the form requested, with responses confined to the blank spaces on the questionnaires. However, several persons responded with the richness

of content the Delphic technique frequently elicits, and responses as long as five typewritten pages were received from some panelists, and others attached lengthy explanatory notes to their completed questionnaires.

Content analysis of the responses from both panels provided data for the continuation of the Delphic probe. In order to preserve their richness and diversity, minimal condensation of the responses to the first segment of the questionnaire took place. These responses were summarized and categorized by levels, but little attempt was made to collapse similar responses within those most important to least important levels. One of the characteristics of the Delphi is the stimulation of the creation of rich content, which is then fed back to the panel members for further consideration. In accordance with the Delphi theory, categories and numbers of times each category was mentioned were supplemented with comments given by panel members for the fifth, or most important level. For example, the top-ranked component in frequency of mention was that of staffing. This item appeared as follows in the response summary returned to panelists:

At Level 5 (Most Important)

Number of mentions	Category	Comments from the panel
14	Staffing	Strong, committed, organized individuals; a director with attributes as given in Q3; dedicated staff in all areas; dedicated administrator; director; counselors; secretaries; foreign student advisor; foreign admissions office; international programs/studies coordinator/director;

> academic advising; personal counseling; ESL instruction; staff persons with ability to work with community volunteers; administrator with delegation ability and ability to inspire trust

All the level 5 responses were presented in this manner, while levels 4 through 1 were simply listed, as were those components mentioned but not rated on a 5 to 1 scale.

Panel responses to questions 3 and 4 about characteristics of chief administrators of effective international educational programs lent themselves to a much more concise summary. A composite score for each mentioned characteristic was arrived at by a conversion scale utilized for each mentioned item. Respondents had been asked to prioritize the items, rating the most important at 1, the next most important at 2, and so on. No respondents listed more characteristics than allowed for by the blanks provided. Therefore, the conversion scale used assigned a value of 10 to the top-rated item for each panel member, a value of 9 to the second rated item, and so on down to a value of 1 for the 10th-rated item, if the respondent included that many items. Values for each item were added across all respondents, resulting in a composite score. For example, if all panelists rated the same characteristic at 1, or top priority, the composite score would be 150 for that item, or the sum of values of 10 for each of all 15 respondents. Further information was provided in that the panelists were shown how many panel members' votes had contributed to each rated item, and how much weight that item was given by each respondent mentioning it. For example, the top five items appeared on the summary sheet in the following format:

Composite score	Characteristic	Individual panel member's rankings of item
57	Courses or experience in administration	1,1,2,2,3,4,7
43	Ability to speak and write clearly	3,4,5,5,6,7,7,8
37	Committed to the field	1,2,2,2
34	Credibility with faculty and administration	1,3,3,3
32	Flexible	2,3,4,5,9

The summary of panel responses to the fifth question, identification of excellent international educational programs, was quite straightforward. Respondents were requested to list institutions judged to have the most effective programs in the United States. All institutions receiving more than one mention were listed, ranked by frequency of mention. Those mentioned only once were listed in a paragraph following the duplicated listings. The two institutions mentioned most often were named by nine panelists each, and twenty-five institutions in all were named by two or more panelists. An additional twenty-three were mentioned by one respondent each. In these responses, as in the prior four questions, consensus after round one was judged insufficient to terminate the process, and the Delphic probe was continued into round 2.

The three-page summary of round one responses was returned to each participating panelist together with a copy of their own original responses, a blank questionnaire identical to the first, and a cover letter containing instructions for the second round. The panelists were requested to review the summarized responses, to compare those with their original responses, and to indicate any changes of opinion they might have on the blank questionnaire, returning it to the researcher.

Members of the second panel were given a summary of their group's responses, thanked for their cooperation, and told that no further participation would be requested of them.

The compilation of results received from the second Delphi round followed essentially the same procedure as that of the first round. Summarized responses indicated the formation of a useable consensus. Therefore, panel one participants were informed of the conclusion of that phase of the study, thanked for their assistance, and told that a summary of the study would be forwarded to them at the conclusion of the research project, if they so desired. This terminated the Delphic probe portion of the research project.

The final phase of the study involved contacting the chief administrators of international educational services offices at the dozen institutions named most frequently by the panel members. The purpose of this contact was to ascertain the degree to which their office components and personal characteristics matched the lists of expected components and characteristics produced by the Delphic probe. Names of these administrators were drawn from the current NAFSA directory of institutions active in international educational exchange. Because of a tie, thirteen institutions were selected for inclusion, rather than the dozen originally anticipated.

A cover letter was drawn up explaining the nature of the study and requesting the cooperation of these administrators. As in all other cover letters written as part of this research project, assurance of confidentiality and anonymity was given. In addition, an offer to send

a summary of the results of the research project to each of these administrators was made.

Two questionnaires were included with the cover letter, one seeking information about office components, and one seeking information about the administrators' characteristics. Each questionnaire had two parts, a request for quantitative information, and a request for qualitative information. The quantitative portion included variables such as presence or absence of a given component or characteristic, or the number of staff, length of service, or other factual data. The qualitative portion required subjective judgments from the administrators on a number of variables, each of which was to be evaluated on two 5-point scales. This portion of the office components questionnaire required scaling of the extent to which each listed characteristic was present on that campus, and the level of the administrator's satisfaction with the condition on his or her campus. The qualitative portion of the administrative questionnaire requested evaluation of each characteristic on two 5-point scales, one of which asked for an indication of the importance of the given characteristic, and the other of which asked how descriptive the given characteristic was of that particular administrator. Examples of these questionnaires are included in the Appendix. Of the thirteen administrators contacted, nine responded. A descriptive analysis was made of these responses, together with the content analysis of the results of the Delphic probe, and a comparison was made of the two.

The data from panel 1, round 1, and panel 2, round 1, were tabulated and summarized. The data from panel 1, round 2 were similarly summarized, and tables were constructed comparing round 1 with round 2 for the primary panel. Consensus would be determined by the level of agreement between respondents' categorizations and ratings in round 1 and round 2. Characteristics of office components and of chief administrators expected in model international educational services programs were determined by panel responses, as were the institutions housing the international educational services programs judged to be most effective of those at U.S. colleges and universities. Ratios and percentages were used in frequency presentations.

Data from administrators of international educational services programs at named institutions were summarized utilizing frequencies and percentages. X^2 was used to determine the goodness of fit between the expected office components and administrative characteristics, as developed from panel consensus in the Delphic probe, and the observed office components and administrative characteristics, as reported by administrators of international educational services programs at named colleges and universities.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Twenty-six currently active consultants for the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs were contacted initially in the Delphic probe and asked to serve as panelists. Randomly selected persons attending a conference on international education were contacted and asked to serve as members of a second panel of experts. Of the forty persons contacted for the second panel, seventeen agreed to participate. The results of their responses were tabulated for analysis leading to the decision to terminate the Delphi after one round in the case of the second panel. In the case of the primary panel of experts, the distribution of fields of expertise and proportions of responses received are indicated in the following summary.

Panel 1 composition

Initial questionnaire requests to NAFSA consultants	Number of responses received	
Fields of expertise in NAFSA	Round 1	Round 2
10 foreign student and scholar* 6 teachers of English as a second language* 4 U.S. students abroad 3 admissions section 3 community section 1 intercultural programming	15 respondents 8 did not respond 3 declined to participate	14 responded 1 withdrew 11 non-participants
26 Total (* one duplication)	26	26

The results of panel 1 members' responses were tabulated for redistribution to the panel members. Panelists reviewed the summarized group responses, made a comparison with their original responses, and indicated any changes they wished made in light of the group responses. Twelve panel members responded with completed questionnaires indicating the extent of the shift in their opinion. One panel member indicated a desire to be removed from the panel in light of other pressing concerns. The remaining two panelists made no changes in their initial judgments. and their original responses were tabulated in the original state with the round 2 responses received from twelve panelists. The responses reflected the complexity of answers typical of the open-ended Delphi technique, and for purposes of clarity, the results are presented below separately for each question, indicating the shift towards consensus from the first to the second round.

Important Components of Model International Programs

In the initial round from panel 1, a total of 106 responses were generated by the question, "In your opinion, what are some important components of a model international education program?". Those responses were rated by each panelist on an importance scale from a value of 5 indicating maximum importance to a value of 1 for those components considered nice but not necessary. In Table 3 are summarized the categories which emerged from the responses, and the frequencies of mention at each level of importance for each category, together with the percentage of total responses contained within each cell. The zero rating category

includes those items mentioned but not rated on a 5 to 1 scale. Percentages do not total exactly 100, due to rounding.

Table 3

International Education Program Components and Their Relative Importance
Panel 1 Round 1

Category of program component		Level of importance 5	4	3	2	1	0	Total
Internationalization of the curriculum	f		1					1
	%		.94					.94
Community liaison	f		3	1	1	1	3	9
	%		2.83	.94	.94	.94	2.83	8.49
Cosmopolitan foreign student population	f		1		1		1	3
	%		.94		.94	.94	.94	2.83
Adequate pleasant facilities	f	2	2	1	1	1	3	10
	%	1.89	1.89	.94	.94	.94	2.83	9.44
Student involvement	f	2	2	1				5
	%	1.89	1.89	.94				4.72
Adequate funding	f		1		2	1	3	7
	%		.94		1.89	.94	2.83	6.60
Adequate staff	f	14	3	1	3		2	23
	%	13.21	2.83	.94	2.83		1.89	21.70
University involvement	f	5	2	3	1		8	19
	%	4.72	1.89	2.83	.94		7.55	17.92
Institutional commitment	f	8		1		1	5	15
	%	7.55		.94		.94	4.72	14.15
Faculty and scholar exchange program	f	1			1		1	3
	%	.94			.94		.94	2.83
Study abroad program	f	1	1	1	1	1	2	7
	%	.94	.94	.94	.94	.94	1.89	6.60
Separate, identifiable office	f		1	2	1			4
	%		.94	1.89	.94			3.77
Dedicated, qualified administrator	f							
	%							
Total	f	33	17	11	12	5	28	106
	%	31	16	10	11	5	26	(100)

At this point in the research it was noted that the program components judged to be generally most important and to rank highest in the views of the panelists were

staffing
institutional involvement
institutional commitment

with notable importance being given to

adequate pleasant facilities
community liaison
and study abroad program.

Although 47% (31% at level 5 + 16% at level 4) of the panelists viewed various program components maximally important to important it was noted that 26% gave no rating at all to the components. At this point it was possible that the panelists had not sought to do more than identify the program components.

In response to the same question, members of the second panel, those drawn from the attendance list of an international education conference, and representing various interested organizations, generated a total of 61 responses. These responses have been summarized in Table 4, following the format used in Table 3. Panel 2's responses, though different from those of Panel 1, began to highlight some program areas of apparent sensitivity, agreement, and consensus. The views of Panel 2 set forth the areas of highest importance as

institutional involvement

staffing

with a wider spread of other component characteristics.

Table 4

International Education Program Components
and Their Relative Importance
Panel 2 Round 1

Category of program component		Level of importance 5	4	3	2	1	0	Total
Internationalization of the curriculum	f	3		3				6
	%	4.92		4.92				9.84
Community liaison	f		1	2	1	1		5
	%		1.64	3.28	1.64	1.64		8.20
Cosmopolitan foreign student population	f	1						1
	%	1.64						1.64
Adequate pleasant facilities	f	1	2	2	1			6
	%	1.64	3.28	3.28	1.64			9.84
Student involvement	f	1	1	1	1			4
	%	1.64	1.64	1.64	1.64			6.56
Adequate funding	f	1	1		1			3
	%	1.64	1.64		1.64			4.92
Adequate staff	f	3		2	1	1		7
	%	4.92		3.28	1.64	1.64		11.48
University involvement	f	5	1	5	1			12
	%	8.20	1.64	8.20	1.64			19.67
Institutional commitment	f	2	1		1	1		5
	%	3.28	1.64		1.64	1.64		8.20
Faculty & scholar exchange	f	2		3				5
	%	3.28		4.92				8.20
Study abroad	f	1		2				3
	%	1.64		3.28				4.92
Dedicated, qualified administrator	f	2	2					4
	%	3.28	3.28					6.56
Total	f	22	9	20	6	4		61
	%	36	15	33	10	7		(100)

Responses from the returned questionnaires from the second round utilizing the first expert panel are summarized in Table 5. The format is similar to that of Tables 3 and 4, indicating frequencies of mention within each category at each level, together with the percentage of total responses contained within each cell. This panel generated a total of 84 responses in the second round, which was the final step in the Delphic probe. There were no responses which were not rated on the 5 to 1 scale of importance.

While all of the responses summarized in Tables 3, 4, and 5 represent panel members' judgment of components which are important in a model international education program, the composite results of the surveys of those panelists indicate that they viewed some components as more important than others. Furthermore, Panel 1 showed some shifting of opinion from round 1 to round 2 in the panelists' judgment as to which of these components were seen as more crucial. A comparison of Panel 1's responses in round 1 with their responses in round 2 is shown in Table 6. In order to clarify the movement towards a selection of items judged most crucial among these components of a model international program, the responses were assigned values. Each mention of a category of components at level five was assigned a value of 10; each category of components mentioned at level 4 was assigned a value of 9; at level three, a value of 8; at level 2, a value of 7; and at level 1, a value of six. All values for each category of components were added across all importance levels, yielding a total value for the category as

assigned by members of the primary panel, the NAFSA consultants. Categories were listed in order of value assigned in round 2.

Table 5

International Education Program Components and Their Relative Importance
Panel 1 Round 2

Category of program component		Level of importance 5	4	3	2	1	0	Total
Internationalization of the curriculum	f	1	1	3	1			6
	%	1.19	1.19	3.57	1.19			7.14
Community liaison	f	2	2	3				7
	%	2.38	2.38	3.57				8.33
Cosmopolitan foreign student population	f		3	1		2		6
	%		3.57	1.19		2.38		7.14
Adequate pleasant facilities	f		3	3	2	1		9
	%		3.57	3.57	2.38	1.19		10.71
Student involvement	f	2		1		1		4
	%	2.38		1.19		1.19		4.76
Adequate funding	f		2		1			3
	%		2.38		1.19			3.57
Adequate staff	f	5		4				9
	%	5.95		4.76				10.71
University involvement	f	7	1	3	3			14
	%	8.33	1.19	3.57	3.57			16.67
Institutional commitment	f	7	4	1				12
	%	8.33	4.76	1.19				14.29
Faculty & scholar exchange	f		1			1		2
	%		1.19			1.19		2.38
Study abroad	f		1		1			2
	%		1.19		1.19			2.38
Separate, identifiable office	f	1						1
	%	1.19						1.19
Dedicated, qualified administrator	f	7	1	1				9
	%	8.33	1.19	1.19				10.71
	f	32	19	20	8	5		84
Total	%	38	23	24	9	6		(100)

Table 6

Category Ranking of Components;
Model International Education Programs
Comparison of Round 1 and Round 2, Panel 1

Category of component		Round 1								Round 2						
		R[a]	T[b]	Level						Level					T	R
				5	4	3	2	1	0	5	4	3	2	1		
Institutional involvement	f		19	5	3	2	1		8	7	1	3	3		14	
	s	2	140	50	27	16	7		40	70	9	24	21		124	1
Institutional commitment	f		15	8		1		1	5	7	4		1		12	
	s	3	115	80		8		6	25	70	36		7		113	2
Dedicated, qualified administrator	f									7	1	1			9	
	s	12	0							70	9	8			87	3
Adequate staff	f		23	14	3	1	3		2	5		4			9	
	s		206	140	27	8	21		10	50		32			82	4
Adequate pleasant facilities	f		10	2	2	1	1	1	3		3	3	2	1	9	
	s	4	74	20	18	8	7	6	15		27	24	14	6	71	5
Community liaison	f		9		3	1	1	1	3	2	2	3			7	
	s	5	63		27	8	7	6	15	20	18	24			62	6
Internationalization of curriculum	f		1		1					1	1	3	1		6	
	s	11	9		9					10	9	24	7		50	7
Cosmopolitan foreign student population	f		3		I		1	1			3	1		2	6	
	s	9	32		9		7	6			27	8		12	47	8
Student involvement	f		5	2		2	1			2		1		1	4	
	s	8	43	20		16	7			20		8		6	34	9
Adequate funding	f		7		1		2	1	3		2		1		3	
	s	7	44		9		14	6	15		18		7		25	10
Study abroad	f		7	1	1	1	1	1	2		1		1		2	
	s	6	50	10	9	8	7	6	10		9		7		16	11
Faculty & scholar exchange	f		2	1			1				1			1	2	
	s	10	17	10			7				9			6	15	12
Separate, identifiable office	f		4		1	2	1			1					1	
	s	9	32		9	16	7			10					10	13
Total frequencies	f		105	33	16	11	13	6	27	31	20	19	9	5	84	
Total point scores	s		825	330	44	88	91	36	140	310	171	52	63	30	736	

[a] Rank
[b] Total

Table 7

Scores and Rank Order of Categories
Comparison of Round 1 and Round 2

Category	Score 2	Rank 2	Score 1	Rank 1	SDiff	RDiff
Institutional involvement	124	1	140	2	16	+1
Institutional commitment	13	2	115	3	2	+1
Dedicated, qualified administrator	87	3	0	13	87	+13
Adequate staff	82	4	206	1	-124	-3
Adequate pleasant facilities	71	5	74	4	-3	-1
Community liaison	62	6	63	5	-1	-1
Internationalization of curriculum	50	7	9	11	+41	+4
Cosmopolitan foreign student population	47	8	32	9.5	-15	+1.5
Student involvement	34	9	43	8	-9	-1
Adequate funding	25	10	44	7	-19	-3
Study abroad	16	11	50	6	34	-5
Faculty and scholar exchange	15	12	17	10	-2	-2
Separate, identifiable office	10	13	32	9.5	-22	-3.5
Total	736		825		(375)	

A comparison of rank orders of categories is shown in Table 7. Categories are listed in order of rating in round 2, with the comparative computed score and rating for round 1 indicated, together with the point and rank differences computed for each category of components. Round 2 scores, although listed first in order to show final ranking, are subtracted from round 1 scores in order to show the direction of shift in relative importance given each category by the panelists.

The average amount of shift in opinion for all categories, represented by 28.85 points, is roughly 3% of the total points for round 2. The total amount of shift in opinion for all thirteen categories, represented by 375 points, is just under half of the total points for round 2. The shift in opinion in two categories accounts for more than half of the total shift. The category "Dedicated, qualified administrator" increased in computed value assigned from 0 in round 1 to 87 in round 2, while the category, "Adequate staff" decreased in value from 206 in round 1 to 82 in round 2. Within the top six categories in round 2, five were also among the top six in round 1. The category, "Dedicated, qualified administrator" was added by round 2 to the top six categories, while the category "Study abroad" dropped from the sixth rating in round 1 to the eleventh rating in round 2.

Institutions with Exemplary International Educational Services

Panel members responded to the question, "What are the dozen most effective programs on U.S. campuses?" by naming institutions where, in their judgment, model international education programs are currently in

operation. The Delphi panelists named a total of 48 different institutions judged to have exemplary international education programs. Twenty-five of these colleges and universities were cited two or more times in round 1. These 25 institutions, constituting the focal point of the verification research, are shown by their enrollment in Table 8. Of the 25 named institutions, 18 are public and 7 private. In general, the institutions named are large. The general student enrollment for over 80% of these colleges and universities ranges from 10,000 to 40,000. In Table 9 is shown a more detailed depiction of the enrollment figures of the named institutions, type of institutional control, the number of foreign students attending in the 1978-79 academic year, and the number of full-time faculty in that year. Ratios are given to show the relationship of foreign students to all full time students (FS:S); of faculty to all students (F:S); and of faculty to foreign students (F:FS) in the 1978-79 school year.

The thirteen institutions named most frequently in round 2 are listed first in Table 9. These institutions, which provided information and insights regarding their international educational services programs, were similar to the originally named list of 25. Nearly 85% of the 13 surveyed institutions had enrollments ranging from 10,000-40,000.

A further examination of some of the characteristics of the named institutions is shown in Table 9. In addition to total enrollment, the following institutional features were noted:

support and control: public or private

number of foreign students enrolled

Table 8

Size of Named Institutions

Enrollment	# Panel 1 Round 1	% Panel 1 Round 1	# Round 2	% Round 2
1-10,000	3	12	1	7.7
10,001-20,000	9	36	5	38.5
20,001-30,000	6	24	4	30.77
30,001-40,000	5	20	2	15.38
40,001-50,000	1	4	0	0
50,001-60,000	1	4	1	7.7
Total	25	100	13	100.05

total regular faculty

faculty-student ratio (F:S)

faculty-foreign student ratio (F:FS)

foreign student-regular student ratio (FS:S)

The average enrollment at the 25 institutions named in round 1 is 23,133, and the average faculty size is 2,059. The ratio of foreign students to students averages 1:13.28, and the ratio of faculty to foreign students averages 1:2.07. For the thirteen institutions named in round 2 from the 25 listed in round 1, enrollment averages 23,824 and faculty size averages 1,894. The average ratio of foreign students to the total student body is 1:26.53, the ratio of faculty to students averages 1:14.08, and the ratio of faculty to foreign students averages 1:1.9. All data are based upon 1978-79 academic year figures.

As can be seen in Table 9, the largest group of institutions (72% in round 1, 69% in round 2) is publically supported and controlled. Among the possible implications for program funding and governance are the

Table 9

Characteristics of Named Institutions

Type of control		Full time	Foreign	Faculty	Ratios		
Public	Private	enrollment	students	size	FS:S	F:S	F:FS
X		55,077	1,681	2850[a]	1:33	1:19	1:1.7
X		22,803	1,222	2200	1:19	1:10	1:1.8
X		36,496	1,328	3462	1:27	1:11	1:2.6
	X	11,692	1,482	1150[a]	1:8	1:10	1:.8
X		18,026	779	1445	1:23	1:12	1:1.9
X		29,000	1,576	4500[a]	1:18	1:6	1:2.9
X		19,204	548	867[a]	1:35	1:22	1:1.6
X		32,000	1,507	2045[a]	1:21	1:16	1:1.4
X		22,968	989	1279	1:23	1:18	1:1.3
	X	17,428	976	2267	1:18	1:8	1:2.3
	X	17,104	3,522	1027	1:5	1:17	1:.3
	X	1,081	79	85	1:14	1:13	1:1.1
X		26,834	266	1266	1:10	1:21	1:4.8
		Institutions not named in round 2					
	X	12,197	670	845	1:18	1:14	1:1.3
X		5,003	525	434[b]	1:10	1:12	1:.8
X		36,000	2,044	2300[a]	1:15	1:16	1:1.0
X		28,663	1,817	2150	1:16	1:13	1:1.2
	X	11,946	1,085	1700	1:11	1:7	1:1.6
X		15,669	697	927	1:22	1:5	1:4.4
X		48,543	1,339	7120	1:36	1:7	1:5.3
X		30,626	1,412	6208	1:22	1:5	1:4.4
X		36,863	2,260	2134	1:16	1:17	1:.9
X		18,662	530	1826	1:35	1:10	1:3.4
X		23,446	1,452	1307	1:16	1:18	1:.9
	X	1,044	16	83	1:65	1:13	1:5.2

[a] Information regarding faculty size obtained from telephone conversations with administrative offices

[b] Permanent tenure-track faculty only, as reported by Affirmative Action

Data adapted from Higher Education Yearbook (1978), and Institute of International Education (1979).

issues of political palatability of and economic pressures on the program. A publically funded institution is of necessity more responsive to political changes than a privately operated institution. Conceivably, of course, the private institution, especially if church-related, may have a philosophical orientation which exerts pressure on a program equal to that of any recession or election.

The Delphi panelists had indicated that institutional commitment in their opinion, is one of the hallmarks of a model international educational services program. Only one indicator of that commitment, a published statement of support, was specifically examined in the present study. However, numerous other indicators could profitably be examined. Such factors as faculty-student ratio and regular student-foreign student ratio would seem to be relevant indices. A beginning point for such an examination might be the average ratio in these exemplary programs. The faculty-student ratio in all institutions ranged from 1:5 to 1:65 for regular students and 1:0.3 to 1:5.3 for foreign students. In the schools which provided information about their programs these ratios ranged from 1:5 to 1:35 for faculty to regular students, and 1:0.3 to 1:4.8 for foreign students. The low faculty-foreign student ratio, as compared to the faculty-regular student ratios at the same institution is a possible indication of a substantial institutional commitment to foreign students in terms of faculty time and program adjustments. In Table 10 is shown the relationship of the faculty-regular student ratio to the faculty-foreign student ratio.

Table 10

Comparison of Faculty-General Student and Faculty-Foreign Student Ratios in 25 Named Institutions

Class	Ratio	F:S	F:FS
1	1:38-over	1	
2	1:35-1:37	3	
3	1:32-1:34	1	
4	1:29-1:31	0	
5	1:26-1:28	1	
6	1:23-1:25	2	
7	1:20-1:22	3	
8	1:17-1:19	4	
9	1:14-1:16	5	
10	1:11-1:13	1	
11	1: 8-1:10	3	
12	1:4.1-1:7	1	4
13	1:1.1-1:4		14
14	below 1:1		6
Total		25	25

Office Components Data from Named Institutions

Descriptive information was obtained regarding the program components and characteristics of the international educational services offices at the responding named institutions. Administrators from nine of the 13 named institutions contacted responded to the questionnaire designed to ascertain the degree to which their office components and characteristics reflected the list of expected criteria generated by the Delphi panel. The ratios of international educational services office staff members to foreign students ranges from a high of 1:19 to a low of 1:170 for the nine reporting institutions, with a mean ratio of 1:114 for the group. The proportion of staff in the international educational services office

holding terminal academic degrees ranged from 9% to 89%, with an average of 33.17% for the nine reporting institutions. One of the responding chief administrators reports directly to the institution's president, four report to the Vice President for Academic Affairs, four to the Vice President for Student Affairs, and three report to other administrators. Three of the respondents report to more than one senior administrator. This situation could be an institutional recognition of the cross-disciplinary and universal nature of the field. Less positively, it may indicate a diffusion of responsibility and a lack of clarity as to the role of the international educational services office.

The respondents provided further descriptive data regarding their offices, as follows:

	Yes	%	No	%
Institution has separate identifiable international educational services office	8	88	1	11
Institution has clear public statement of institutional commitment to international education	7	77	2	22
Active study abroad program	9	100	0	0
Responsibility for study abroad housed in this office	7	77	2	22
Active faculty & scholar exchange program	9	100	0	0
Responsibility for faculty & scholar exchange housed in this office	9	100	0	0

Qualitative Assessment of Program Components in Responding Institutions

Nine of the 13 contacted institutions submitted an evaluation of their programs in terms of (1) how the programs were perceived to be functioning and (2) how satisfactory the aspects of the programs seemed to be. In Table 11 is summarized the extent to which selected components

considered important by the Delphic panel are present and functioning satisfactorily on the nine campuses. The components are arranged in order of the composite scores computed for each value by multiplying each respondent's "dissatisfaction-satisfaction with the component" score on a 1-5 scale by the respondent's "absence-presence of component" score on a 1-5 scale, and summing the scores for all respondents. The highest levels of satisfaction (5) and presence of component (5) would yield a maximum score of 25 on this scale.

Table 11

Office Components Ranked by Administrative Respondents

Rank	Component	Total Score	Average Score
1	Good relationship with other university offices in general	189	21
2	Cosmopolitan foreign student population	161	17.89
3	Good community liaison	146	16.22
4	Adequate, pleasant facilities	144	16
5	Adequate staff	135	15
6	Adequate funding	127	14.11
7	Student involvement	119	13.22
8	Internationalization of the curriculum	77	8.56

While Table 11 provides information as to the importance of the office components and characteristics in the view of the directors of those offices, it does not provide a global view of the presence or absence of those characteristics at the named institutions. The Delphic probe had set forth the eight characteristics in Table 11 as among those judged to be desirable in an international program. In terms of the

1-5 "absence-presence of component" scale used by respondents at named institutions, these characteristics or conditions, being desirable, would be scaled 5, as a perfect situation. With eight criteria scaled in this manner, a perfectly functioning program would have a score of 40 (8x5). Forty thus constitutes the expected value. Each institution was examined for "goodness of fit" by use of Chi-square with the Delphi probe value (40) constituting the expected value and the institutional value constituting the observed value.

$$X^2 = E\,\frac{(f_o - F_E)^2}{F_E}$$ where F_E = expected value, and

f_o = observed value.

The overall X^2 value for all nine institutions, taken together, equals 22.7, which is significant at the .01 level. ($_{.99}X^2_9 = 21.66$) We can not say, on the basis of this test, that the institution's reported components are more similar to the expected components than could occur simply by chance. The institutional administrators do report the presence of the expected components, but that presence falls short of the perfect situation which would be represented by a score of 40. The institutional scores on the presence scale for the expected components range from 26 to 38, with an average score of 30.89. Score frequencies are as follows:

Score	Frequency
26	3
29	1
31	1
32	1
35	2
38	1

It would be useful to devise in further research a scale of satisfaction somewhat short of perfection (40 in this test) for comparison purposes.

Characteristics of Chief Administrators of Effective International Educational Services Programs

Panel responses to the questionnaire items pertaining to characteristics of chief administrators of effective international educational services programs were summarized as Panel 1 Round 1 and Panel 1 Round 2, and compared. The following conversion scale was used to assign a point value to the items the respondents rated in importance.

Questionnaire item rank of characteristic	Assigned value of rank
1	10
2	9
3	8
4	7
5	6
6	5
7	4
8	3
9	2
10	1

The assigned values of all individual rankings of each characteristic were added to yield a composite score for each characteristic. Panel 1, in round 1, produced a list of 55 characteristics in response to the question, "What personality traits, experiences, and beliefs do you feel would characterize an ideal chief administrator of an excellent international education program?". The list of characteristics, together with composite scores, is found in Appendix C. Members of panel 2, in round 1, produced a more compact listing of desirable characteristics in a chief administrator of an excellent international program. These characteristics, together with their composite scores, can be found in Appendix C. A comparison interrelating rounds 1 and 2 from the primary

panel shows the consolidation of categories of characteristics achieved through the Delphic probe. In Table 12 are presented the characteristics in round 2 rank order, together with composite scores, the number of different round 1 characteristics collapsed into each characteristic, and the average rank of those different round 1 characteristics before the compression.

Table 12

Compression of Characteristics
Round 1 into Round 2

R2 rank	Composite score	Characteristic	# R1 items	Average R1 rank	Cumulative frequencies
1	71	Commitment to international education	7	3.25	7
2	66	Administrative experience	5	5.04	12
3	50	Experience abroad	2	5.30	14
4	50	Excellent communication skills	4	3.78	18
5	48	Supportive relationship with co-workers	10	4.75	28
6	46	Flexibility	5	3.82	33
7	39	Credibility with faculty, administration	6	5.08	39
8	31	Intelligence	3	3.11	42
9	23	Intercultural sensitivity	5	2.90	47
10	22	Counseling experience	1	5.00	48
11	18	Integrity	1	2.00	49
12	15	Relates well with students	3	4.33	52
13	7	Patience	3	6.67	55
14	5	Language skills in addition to English	1	7.00	56

Administrative Characteristics Data from Named Institutions

In responding to the administrative questionnaire, chief administrators of the international educational services offices at named institu-

tions provided data concerning their prior experience, training, and personal characteristics. Eight of the nine respondents reported prior experience abroad, with the length of that experience ranging from .3 years to 10 years, and averaging 4.41 years. The nature of that experience varied among the respondents, with seven reporting work experience abroad, six reporting travel experience abroad, four reporting experience as a student in other nations, and five reporting other international experience. Respondents reported prior administrative experience ranging from 4 to 29 years, with an average length of 13.76 years. They reported counseling experience ranging from 2 to 24 years, with an average length of 9.38 years counseling experience. The chief administrators were asked about the preparation they had had for their counseling duties. Two reported having had a counseling practicum, and four reported other counseling training. Respondents were also asked about fluency in any language other than English. Five of the nine reported fluency in at least one other language, with three of those fluent in two languages other than English. Table 13 summarizes responses to questions concerning selected personal characteristics. The characteristics are listed in order of composite scores computed for each characteristic by multiplying each respondent's "Importance" score for the characteristic on a 1 to 5 scale by the respondent's "Descriptiveness" score for the characteristic on a 1 to 5 scale, and summing the scores for all respondents.

Table 13

Characteristics of Chief Administrators

Rank	Characteristic	Total Score	Average Score
1	Flexibility	393	43.67
2.5	Integrity	216	24
2.5	Commitment to international education	216	24
4	Credibility with faculty, administration	193	21.44
5	Supportive relationship with co-workers	191	21.22
6	Intercultural sensitivity	188	21.22
7	Strong communication skills	170	20.89
8	Relates well with students	168	18.89
9	Intelligence	147	16.33
10	Patience	138	15.33

The grouped administrative characteristics reported at the nine institutions from which data were gathered were examined for "goodness of fit" with the expected administrative characteristics developed by the Delphi panel through the use of X^2. The expected value (50) was calculated by adding the maximum value (5) on the "descriptiveness" scale for each of the ten expected characteristics listed in Table 13.

$$X^2 = E\,\frac{(f_o - F_E)^2}{F_E}$$ where F_E = expected value, and

f_o = observed value.

The overall X^2 value for all nine institutions, taken together, equals 12.54, which is not significant at the .05 level. It appears that, on the basis of this test, (${}_{.95}X^2_9 = 16.919$), the expected and observed administrative characteristics are more similar than would be likely to occur simply by chance. The institutional scores on the "Descriptive" scale range from 37 to 50, with an average score of 42.78. Score

frequencies are as follows:

Score	Frequency
37	2
39	1
42	1
44	2
46	2
50	1

Correlations of "Descriptiveness" scores for these administrative characteristics with prior training and experience may yield even more detailed data for identifying potential successful administrators of model international educational services programs, and is recommended as an area for further research.

Suggestions for Further Research

One of the objectives of this research was to identify components and characteristics of an exemplary international education programs through the Delphic Probe technique. Although program components were arrived at through consensus and exemplary programs in institutional settings were identified, the limitations placed on the study by confidentiality of information would not permit validations by experts in the field, or by institutions identified as having exemplary programs in international education. This research was a first step and serves a very fundamental prupose, that of providing basic information regarding the views of experts in the field as to what should constitute an international education program. However, subsequent research is needed to:

1. Validate the components and characteristics of international education programs through expert consensus review and peer internal institutional

evaluation leading to statistical assessment of the quantifications.

2. Assess user satisfaction in international education programs

3. Compare broad based findings from cooperating institutions with exemplary international education programs with similar institutions without international programs, to determine areas of significant commonalities and differences

4. Derive program standards from information provided from previous studies for purposes of setting minimum academic and program criteria for evaluation and possible accreditation.

An extension of the validation research beyond that reported here on the basis of information elicited from administrators at named schools would contribute to the confidence which can be placed in a list of desirable characteristics in international educational services programs. A logical next step might be to survey users of those services in order to ascertain reported levels of satisfaction with the services provided. From a research standpoint, a comparison of user satisfaction at other, randomly selected programs with satisfaction at named institutions would be helpful. However, procedural difficulties might be expected. Some institutions do not maintain or distribute lists of international students. Furthermore, international student adjustment is known to vary with length of sojourn, and although the exact nature of that variance is a matter of some debate, those changes could confound the results. Perhaps the most troublesome area, however, would be the reluctance of some international students to respond to surveys, stemming from their suspicion of a possible connection with governmental agencies.

In order to overcome at least some of these obstacles, it may be desirable to develop rapport with selected students at a variety of institutions through the technique of an in-depth, longitudinal study of their satisfaction with the international educational services provided at their institutions.

A further recommended area of research involves recognition of the contextual matrix within which international educational services are provided, and an exploration of interrelationships among characteristics identified as desirable in the present study.

Summary

A panel of experts was contacted for the purpose of developing a set of criteria for model international educational services programs at U.S. colleges and universities. Through their participation in two rounds of the Delphi probe technique, a consensus of the panel's judgment was obtained as to the desirable office components and desirable characteristics of chief administrators for such programs. The Delphi panel selected by consensus 13 institutions at which they believed exemplary international educational services programs are currently in operation. The chief administrators of the international educational services programs at the named institutions were contacted and requested to complete questionnaires describing their office components and personal characteristics, prior experience, and training. A comparison was made using the X^2 for goodness of fit test between the expected characteristics and components, generated in the Delphic probe, and the observed

characteristics and components, as reported by administrators at the institutions named as having exemplary programs in the Delphi panel's judgment. Although the observed and expected office components were no more similar than might occur by chance, similarity was found between observed and expected administrative characteristics ($p = .05$).

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Demographic Data, 1978-79 Foreign Students in U.S.

Percentage Distribution of Foreign Students by Sex, Selected Years, 1954/55-1978/79

Sex	1954/55	1959/60	1964/65	1969/70	1973/74	1978/79
Male	76.8	78.3	78.0	75.4	74.7	74.1
Female	24.2	21.7	22.0	24.6	25.3	25.9

Percentage Distribution of Foreign Students by Sex, Institutional Type, and Control, 1977/78-1978/1979

Institution Type/Control	Sex	Year	
		1977/78	1978/79
Two-Year Colleges	Male	71.8	72.1
	Female	28.2	27.9
Four-Year Colleges	Male	75.5	74.4
	Female	24.5	25.6
Public	Male	76.1	75.2
	Female	23.9	24.8
Private	Male	72.8	71.4
	Female	27.2	28.6
All Foreign Students	Male	75.0	74.1
	Female	25.0	25.9

Marital Status Reported of Foreign Students in the United States, 1976/77-78/79

Marital Status	1976/77		1977/78		1978/79	
	Number of Foreign Students	Percentage of all Foreign Students	Number of Foreign Students	Percentage of all Foreign Students	Number of Foreign Students	Percentage of all Foreign Students
Single	50,969	73.7	60,774	77.4	92,025	74.7
Married	18,175	26.3	23,519	22.6	31,122	25.3

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Foreign Student Fields of Study

Distribution of Foreign Students by Field of Study, 1977/78—1978/79

Field of Study	1977/78		1978/79	
	Number of Foreign Students	Percentage of All Foreign Students	Number of Foreign Students	Percentage of All Foreign Students
Engineering	67,870	28.8	76,030	28.8
Engineering	60,200	25.6	67,780	25.7
Mechanical and Engineering Technologies	7,670	3.2	8,250	3.1
Business and Management	39,540	16.8	43,500	16.5
Business and Management	37,360	15.8	40,080	15.2
Business and Commerce Technologies	2,180	0.9	3,420	1.3
Natural and Life Sciences	23,360	9.9	24,190	9.2
Physical Sciences	12,180	5.7	12,360	4.7
Biological Sciences	9,970	4.2	10,740	4.1
Natural Science Technologies	1,210	0.5	1,090	0.4
Social Sciences	23,310	9.9	23,360	8.9
Social Sciences	13,920	5.9	14,100	5.4
Psychology	3,020	1.3	3,300	1.3
Area Studies	3,180	1.3	2,730	1.0
Public Affairs and Services	2,570	1.1	2,390	0.9
Public Service Related Technologies	620	0.3	840	0.3
Humanities	11,810	5.0	14,960	5.7
Letters	6,200	2.6	7,410	2.8
Foreign Languages	2,900	1.2	4,080	1.6
Theology	2,710	1.2	3,470	1.3
Education	12,470	5.3	14,790	5.6
Mathematics and Computer Science	12,300	5.2	14,740	5.6
Computer and Information Sciences	5,660	2.4	7,250	2.8
Mathematics	5,590	2.4	6,400	2.4
Data Processing Technologies	1,050	0.4	1,090	0.4
Fine And Applied Arts	12,240	5.2	14,120	5.3
Fine and Applied Arts	6,930	2.9	9,350	3.5
Architecture and Environmental Design	5,310	2.3	4,770	1.8
Health Professions	10,820	4.6	12,470	4.7
Health Professions	9,320	4.0	10,370	3.9
Health Services and Paramedical Technologies	1,500	0.6	2,100	0.8
Agriculture	8,660	3.7	8,710	3.3
Other	13,130	5.6	17,070	6.4
Interdisciplinary Studies	6,450	2.8	9,130	3.4
Communications	3,140	1.3	3,690	1.4
Home Economics	1,660	0.7	2,200	0.9
Law	1,200	0.5	1,230	0.5
Library Science	620	0.3	640	0.2
Military Science	-		—	
TOTAL	235,510	100.0	263,940	100.0

Institute of International Education, 1980, p. 17.

NAFSA Standards

1979

STANDARDS, PRINCIPLES FOR PROFESSIONAL STAFFS, VOLUNTEERS

General Principles

Professionally, all who work in any phase of international educational interchange of people are expected to develop and maintain competence in their fields as described below. This expectation applies equally to part-time and full-time workers, salaried or unsalaried.

1. Primary responsibility. The basic responsibility of professionals is to the foreign and U.S. students and scholars with whom they work and to their institutions.

2. Job setting or environment. All professionals should be thoroughly familiar with their institutions and their obligations to students, with the responsibilities assigned to their positions, and with the prerogatives, facilities and resources which are or are not available for carrying out the responsibilities.

3. Preparation and continued growth. Professionals should strive to go beyond minimal academic credentials in relevant disciplines required for entry level positions They should seek continuing professional development opportunities and assist others to do so in areas such as:

—acquiring additional formal study or reading;

—maintaining liaison with counterparts at other institutions;

—attending professional conferences, seminars and workshops;

—conducting and cooperating in relevant research in accordance with established ethics and methodologies for cross-cultural research;

—gaining first-hand experience and understanding of other cultures through international study and travel whenever possible.

4. Representation of the field. Professionals in the field of international interchange have the responsibility to represent and interpret the entire field, including unique needs of participants to concerned people in and outside educational institutions.

5. Representation of qualifications. Professionals in the field must restrict themselves to the performance of duties for which they are professionally trained and qualified.

6. Responsibility for ethical action. Professionals must always act in a responsible and ethical manner and abide by the standards of the academic and professional community and of NAFSA.

7. Self-enhancement or profit. Professionals do not seek self-enhancement through comparisons or evaluations damaging to others. Neither should they seek personal profits through influence upon or association with students or staff with whom they work. Acceptance of free trips, services, or personal gifts without appropriate accountability and awareness of cultural implications may result in implicit reciprocal obligations and damage the reputation of professionals and their field.

8. Reports and evaluations. The individual in a professional position should report regularly to superiors and undertake regular self-evaluation of work accomplished while at the same time seeking evaluation of others.

9. Development of professionalism. Professionals, salaried or unsalaried, should seek to foster the development of their field by:

—acquiring, contributing to and applying specialized and systematic knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant to the field;

—working for higher standards of performance and effectiveness;

—fostering a set of professional standards and ethics;

—developing broader institutional and community support for the field;

—joining, supporting and participating in active leadership in NAFSA as the professional association in the field;

—working toward better understanding between the people of the U.S. and the world;

—promoting the development of other countries and the welfare and betterment of their citizens through education and training;

—creating the awareness of global perspectives.

10. Advising. Professionals should develop an effective advising relationship through:

—dealing with all persons with patience, understanding, and respect for their individuality and culture;

—informing and describing alternatives, and helping the individual decide the action to be taken. Except in matters of law or institutional regulation, final decisions are the responsibility of the individual foreign student or scholar;

—striving to assure that the information provided is accurate, clearly stated and as complete as possible, so that each student or staff member will be fully aware of the alternatives available in determining a course of action;

—interpreting to foreign students and staff the academic practices and regulations of the institution; local, state and national laws; accepted standards of conduct; and expectations and reactions of those they meet in the United States (This should be done, insofar as possible, on the basis of background knowledge of the students' and scholars' own cultures.);

—maintaining confidentiality and personal information about students and scholars and their personal problems within prescribed and institutional policy;

—referring students and scholars to other colleagues for assistance whenever their problems require knowledge, training, or authority not possessed by the person initially providing advice.

11. Obligations in administration. Professionals with administrative responsibilities have the following obligations:

—planning and evaluation. Administrators must assess the needs in their areas of responsibility; make adequate plans to meet these needs; provide necessary leadership in carrying out the plans successfully; avoid duplication; assure coordination of services; make periodic reports; and evaluate their total programs;

—staffing. Administrators must select the most competent people available for staff responsibilities; provide staff with adequate orientation to the institution and its international education program; assign them to tasks best suited to their skills, experience, and interests; provide appropriate in-service training opportunities to increase their competence; encourage them to take advantage of professional growth opportunities provided by the institution or outside agencies and professional associations; and provide them with as much administrative support and encouragement as possible to enable them to work with effectiveness and satisfaction.

Responsibilities of Foreign Student Advisers

In addition to the principles and obligations noted on page 7, the foreign student adviser (FSA) has the following responsibilities:

1. Leadership and coordination. In most U.S. colleges and universities the FSA is the originator and/or coordinator of various policies, services, and programs related to foreign students and scholars.

2. Identification and mobilization of resources. The FSA should develop close relations with a broad range of people who may be able to assist foreign students and staff in their life in the institution and the community. Close liaison should be maintained with faculty and staff who are responsible for academic advising, student records, financial aid, housing, food and health services, student activities, career counseling and placement.

3. Interpretation of background and needs. The FSA must often provide two-way interpretation of objectives, needs, educational backgrounds, cultural differences, and problems between foreign students and scholars and their sponsors on the one hand and administrators, faculty, U.S. students, and the community on the other. It is desirable not only to facilitate the expeditious completion of foreign students' academic programs, but also to enable them to learn as much as they wish to about the United States and its culture and problems.

4. Appropriateness to academic programs. It is a responsibility of the FSA to encourage foreign students and their academic advisers and professors to keep in mind that the foreign students will be using their education in their home countries after graduation. Constant attention should be given to adapting or supplementing the U.S. educational experience to make it applicable to home-country needs.

5. Learning with foreign students. The FSA should provide or encourage the development of programs through which the American campus or community can benefit educationally from the presence of foreign students.

6. Responsibility for staff. Advisers should ascertain that all office staff and volunteers are trained to understand and practice the principles and obligations described in this document, and especially those regarding attitude, accuracy and confidentiality.

7. Responsibility to sponsors. Although professionals on U.S. campuses should be aware of the needs and requirements of foreign students' sponsors and home governments, they should not assume responsibility for relationships between the students and their sponsors or governments.

8. Immigration regulations. Major obligations of FSA's are:

—providing information to foreign students and scholars about their legal rights and responsibilities as temporary residents in the U.S.;

—assuring institutional adherence to regulations of the U.S. Government, especially those of the Immigration and Naturalization Service;

—providing accurate, up-to-date information to students and scholars about such regulations.

9. Dependents. The FSA must assure that foreign students are aware of the costs and problems they will encounter if they bring dependents with them to the United States. To be of greatest benefit, this information must reach them well in advance of their departure from their home countries. Provision must be made for assistance to those who do bring dependents in such matters as housing, health services and insurance, schooling for children, etc.

10. Community programs. FSA's usually serve as liaison between the foreign student and scholar group and the local community. They often are leaders in encouraging community interest in foreign students. Meaningful contacts and associations with the American communities are important to the social and educational experiences of foreign students in the United States. In these endeavors the FSA also plays an important role in interpreting foreign cultures to Americans.

11. Emergency action. In case of emergency, such as severe medical or psychological problems, death or other crises, the FSA should take appropriate and decisive measures and assume leadership in utilization of available campus and community resources. These crisis situations are one of the tests of the FSA's professional competence and allow no margin for error.

Responsibilities of Foreign Student Admissions Officers

Foreign student admissions officers, in addition to the general responsibilities noted on page 7, have the following specific responsibilities:

1. Selection and admission. The admissions officer must assure that foreign students have the requisites for potential success, are screened and selected intelligently, and are given appropriate academic placement. Close cooperation between the admissions officer and the FSA is indispensable to the accomplishment of these tasks in an efficient, effective and sensitive manner. Specifically, the admissions officer must assure that the following steps have been taken in the case of each foreign application:

a. Information. Each applicant should receive fully adequate, up-to-date information about the institution, its academic offerings, its facilities and its arrangements for foreign students.

b. Curriculum and instructional facilities. The institution should offer admission to a foreign student only when a suitable curriculum is available at that institution.

c. Academic background. Foreign applicants' academic backgrounds must be thoroughly checked to assure that they are academically prepared to undertake their proposed programs of study. If the applicants are admitted, their departments or academic advisers must be given sufficient information on their academic backgrounds to provide a proper basis for academic advising and placement.

d. Language proficiency. The admissions officer should assure insofar as possible that admitted foreign students have adequate proficiency in English to enable them to perform successfully in the proposed academic program, or if the students are applying to an intensive English language program initially or exclusively, that they have sufficient ability, aptitude and motivation to succeed.

e. Financial support. Since the admissions office is usually the first point of contact for foreign students, it is crucial that a realistic picture of finances be communicated to each foreign applicant.

• The admissions office, in cooperation with the FSA and/or the financial aids officer, should put together an accurate estimate of the minimum resources necessary for the complete academic and non-academic costs students will incur.

• Admissions offices should furnish prospective foreign students with *complete and detailed information on costs*, including transportation to the institution from usual ports of entry, tuition and fees, room, meals, books and supplies, winter clothing, health and accident insurance, local transportation, vacation expense, summer maintenance and/or summer school costs, costs of dissertations, costs for dependents, incidentals and any other items required for realistic cost estimates. A schedule of payments must also be given to enable admitted foreign students to make suitable arrangements for the necessary financial resources. If costs are likely to increase, this should also be stated.

• The admissions office has the responsibility of verifying that all prospective students have the total resources necessary for the full periods of study for which they are admitted.

f. Health. There must also be positive evidence that each foreign applicant is in good physical and mental health.

2. Test use. The admissions officer should understand and explain to others the proper use of standardized tests as applied to foreign students. It should be recognized that such tests are useful indicators, but that they are less reliable and valid for students from other cultural and linguistic backgrounds than for U.S. students. While tests, including those for English proficiency, may be employed as aids in the admission process, they should not be used as the sole or most important criteria in the selection of foreign students for admission. With reference to evaluating foreign applicants' performance on standardized external English proficiency tests, close cooperation between the admissions officer and the institution's teacher(s) of English as a second language and/or the FSA is indispensable.

3. Foreign student recruitment. Responsible recruitment of foreign students should be in accordance with established and tested standards regularly applied to U.S. and foreign students. This is especially important when an institution finds the recruitment of foreign students attractive as a means of building up declining enrollments or otherwise meeting institutional goals. Statements describing and supporting these standards have been prepared by such professional organizations as the College Entrance Examination Board, the American Association of Collegiate Registrars and Admissions Officers and NAFSA.

Responsibilities of Teachers of English as a Second Language

In addition to the obligations noted on p. 7, teachers of English as a second language (ESL) have the following responsibilities:

1. Training. Teachers must be adequately and specifically trained and proficient in the special academic discipline of teaching English as a second language.

2. Attitude. The teachers must deal with the second-language learner with the patience and understanding necessary to the student's success, but not with undue sympathy which may jeopardize academic standards and the student's ultimate academic success.

3. Instruction. The teachers must assure, insofar as possible, that students receive instruction in all aspects of the English language necessary to their success in the intended academic situation, recognizing that language competence involves a high degree of acculturation and a great deal of knowledge above and beyond vocabulary and grammar.

4. Interpretation. Teachers of ESL must understand and interpret to faculty and administrative colleagues the realities of language acquisition, including those linquistic areas which students may justifiably be expected to master and those which they are not likely to acquire.

5. Communication. Teachers, through their special relationship developed with students, may receive significant information concerning problems and needs of foreign students, and may communicate this information to the foreign student adviser or other appropriate campus official in a confidential and professional manner when it would be in the students' interest to do so.

6. Referral. Teachers of ESL should not become involved in trying to solve the personal or academic problems of foreign students, but should encourage students to seek assistance from other appropriate people and agencies on the campus and should help support those people or agencies in their relationships with students.

7. Professional relationships. The teachers should work closely with other people and agencies on the campus and in the community to help them understand the nature and extent of foreign students' linguistic problems and to advise them of ways in which they can appropriately assist students to overcome their language handicaps without lowering academic standards.

8. Research and professional development. Teachers should constantly maintain their own

levels of professional preparation and scholarship intended to increase knowledge concerning language acquisition and other aspects of international educational interchanges.

Responsibilities of Community Activities Programmers

In addition to the obligations noted on page 7, community activities programmers, whether paid or unpaid, full- or part-time, have the following obligations:

1. Community access. Community activities programmers help facilitate access to the community for foreign students and scholars by providing opportunities for relationships with local families and participation in a variety of social, cultural, governmental, religious, educational, commercial, or industrial institutions and activities in the society.

2. Coordination of campus and community programs. Community activities and services should be carefully coordinated with campus programs so that they will complement rather than compete with each other and so that students and scholars may be referred from campus to community and vice versa to obtain the most appropriate and effective services and experiences.

3. Knowledge of the educational institution and learning process. Community activities programmers should familiarize themselves thoroughly with the work and functions of those campus agencies and offices with whom they work most closely, especially the foreign student adviser and the English language programs. In this way, they will know when problems or situations should be resolved primarily on the campus or community level.

4. Training. Community program representatives should be adequately trained to ensure that they deal patiently and sensitively with all foreign students and scholars, respecting the individuality and cultural background of each student. In addition, they should serve as educators, working with both foreign students and U.S. community people, so that each may derive maximum benefits and understanding from contact with each other.

5. Support services for dependents. Community activities programmers should be aware that many foreign students and scholars are married and either leave the members of their immediate families in their home countries or strive to bring them with them to the United States. Community groups have unique opportunities to provide to this group additional support services, homes-away-from-homes, and programs and learning opportunities for "dependents."

6. Professional growth and development. Whether they are a part of university structures or maintain their own independent identities, community activities programmers, whether paid or unpaid, are discharging their functions in a professional manner. Therefore, they should explore, and be aided in this effort, further opportunities for personal and professional growth. For this purpose, they should acquaint themselves with all available campus, community, and national resources from which they can obtain additional training in community leadership and self-actualization which community involvement brings. In return, they should assist newcomers with their personal and professional growth.

7. Confidentiality. Community activities programmers and their associates obtain considerable personal information about foreign students and scholars through community contact. The confidentiality of such information must be protected. Urgent problems and needs of these foreign students and scholars should be communicated to the foreign student advisers or other appropriate campus officials.

8. Flexibility and innovativeness. Community activities programmers should be aware that the needs of visitors and programs may change from time to time due to:

- Changing international relations;
- Changing needs of visitors over duration of stay;
- Changing needs due to variety of cultural backgrounds;

Community services and programs should be sufficiently flexible and innovative in order to meet these changing needs.

9. Responsibility to entire community. Although their functions may be limited, community activities programmers have a special and unique responsibility to assure that the entire community from which they come is aware of the unique opportunities which this community has in learning about the world and other countries and cultures.

10. Research and evaluation. As professionals, community activities programmers should strive to add to available knowledge about the field and its dynamics through research, evaluation of programs, writing of program descriptions and collecting of case studies.

11. Religious and political groups. Community workers related to religious and political groups must recognize that the religions and political beliefs of any foreign people in the United States are important parts of their cultural heritage and merit the respect of Americans and the effort by

Americans to learn about and understand them. Religious and political groups can perform a service by providing opportunities for foreign students and scholars to observe and join in mutual inquiry into beliefs and practices. However, there must never be any attempt to proselyte, and any invitation to a foreign student or scholar to an event sponsored by a religious or political group should clearly indicate the nature of the event and its sponsorship.

Responsibilities of Advisers to U.S. Students, Staff on Study, Travel, Employment, Service Abroad

In addition to the obligations noted on page 7, the advisers of U.S. students and staff going abroad have the following responsibilities:

1. **Information.** The advisers are responsible for collecting, organizing, and making available current information on study, independent and group travel, short- or long-term employment, volunteer service, exchange traineeships, homestay programs, and other opportunities for meaningful experiences outside the United States available to students and staff. Information should include all programs and opportunities offered by or available through the home campus or other institutions and organizations. Insofar as possible, information should be available on programs and opportunities known to be of acceptable quality in content and management. In cases where students are interested in programs of doubtful or unknown quality, the adviser should be prepared to assist them in an honest and fruitful evaluation of the program to determine the extent to which the students' objectives will be met if they participate.

2. **Student Advising.**

a. **Objectives.** The objectives of advising should be to encourage students to undertake opportunities in other countries which will be educationally and culturally beneficial, and to help them judge the quality, value, and appropriateness of overseas opportunities and services they are considering.

b. **Preparation.** It is essential that the adviser be familar with the curricula and requirements of the home campus to be able to advise students desiring to interrupt their studies for non-academic experiences in other countries. Knowledge of relevant on-campus resources, such as library materials, foreign students and faculty, and U.S. students and faculty returned from overseas experiences, is very desirable. The adviser must also know the basic criteria for evaluating study programs and other opportunities in other countries and be familiar with the nature, content, sponsorship and reputation of a wide range of those available.

c. **Advance planning.** Students should be encouraged and helped to begin their investigation and planning processes as early as possible.

d. **Factors to be considered.** In making choices, factors to be considered include location, institutional sponsorship or connection, language requirements, orientation, academic content and standards, available supervision, acceptability of credits, cost, financial aids, living arrangements, accident and health insurance, transportation, the country's entry requirements, degree of cultural difference and student's adjustment capability, and contact with host-country nationals.

e. **Income-producing services.** Advising offices may legitimately become involved in sales of International Student Identity Cards, Youth Hostel memberships, charter flights for large groups of students or alumni, or relevant books and publications.

3. **Faculty and staff advising.** Although most overseas opportunities offices are focused on students, they should also provide services to faculty and staff interested in study, research, employment, or travel abroad.

4. **Publicity.** Although the advisers should be involved in encouraging and publicizing overseas opportunities and programs, they should avoid innocently publicizing undesirable programs through such devices as posters on department bulletin boards, advertising in student newspapers, or hired student representatives.

5. **Study abroad programming and standards.** Whether or not advisers are administratively responsible for the institution's study abroad program planning, development, operation, evaluation and establishment of standards, they should be actively involved in and familiar with these aspects, and should cooperate with others concerned to strengthen, extend and diversify quality study abroad opportunities for students.

National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1979, pp. 7-12.

Office of International Educational Services

Standards Statement

1. The Office of International Educational Services (OIES) staff will identify their responsibilities to Iowa State University (ISU) and to their clients, both foreign and United States scholars and students, as well as to the Ames and Iowa communities.

   1.1 Staff will familiarize themselves with accountability processes and procedures.
   1.2 Staff will familiarize themselves with the institutional structure of ISU, and with their role within that structure.
      1.21 Written job descriptions will assist staff members in identifying their responsibilities, and the facilities and resources to which they have access in fulfilling these responsibilities.
      1.22 New staff will establish regular means of communication with key faculty, staff and community resource persons.
      1.23 Continuing staff will maintain regular means of communication with key faculty, staff and community resource persons.
   1.3 Channels of communication will be maintained for the purpose of coordination of OIES efforts with those of Admissions and English as a Second Language (ESL) staff, and the various colleges within the university.

2. OIES staff will meet or exceed standards of professional development outlined in the appropriate job descriptions.

   2.1 Regular provision will be made for continuing staff education through formal study and reading.
   2.2 A professional library will be available for staff use.
   2.3 Liason will be maintained with counterparts at other institutions.
   2.4 Provision will be made for staff attendance at professional workshops, conferences and seminars.
   2.5 Research and publication efforts on the part of staff members will be encouraged.
   2.6 Provision will be made for gaining first-hand experience and understanding of other cultures through international study and travel whenever possible.
   2.7 Regular procedures will be established for ongoing evaluation of performance.
   2.8 Staff participation in and support of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) is encouraged as one measure indicating a professional commitment to the field of international education.

3. Provision will be made for continuing, responsible and effective efforts in communicating to client groups and to the general public the mission and activities of OIES.

3.1 Continuing educational efforts will address the issue of creating an enhanced global awareness among specified target populations.
3.2 Programs will be developed and continued which promote better cross-cultural understanding within specified target populations.
3.3 Staff will strive to develop clear professional standards of ethics and to communicate their adherence to such standards to client groups.
3.4 Staff members will develop public relations skills together with the ability to effectively respond to general questions regarding the international education program at ISU.
3.5 Staff members will be trained to effectively communicate the goals, purposes and activities of OIES through the media.
3.6 Brochures and other literature will be developed and updated regularly to enhance public understanding of various aspects of OIES and its mission.

4. The OIES will contribute to development of institutional policy in international educational exchange in particular and higher education administration in general through its reporting channels within the divisions of Student Affairs and Academic Affairs.

4.1 Professional staff administration will provide a structure to give leadership opportunities to all staff within a context of rotating program authority and responsibility.
4.2 Goals development and evaluation of achievements will be designed to meet standards set by administrative superiors.
4.3 Co-sponsorship of programs and services with other agencies and groups will be a major consideration in commitment of resources.
4.4 OIES will provide administrative support to existing formally and informally constituted groups which contribute to achieving institutional goals in international educational exchange and will encourage the development of new structures to meet future needs.
4.5 Referral to other competent specialists to further institutional goals or meet client needs will be encouraged where appropriate.
4.6 Overall institutional goals will be best met through a balanced parallel and complementary development of all divisions of OIES.
4.7 OIES will assume leadership in coordination of all policies serving the needs of foreign nationals from their final admission or acceptance up to completion of their educational objective at ISU.
4.8 Individual professional development goals of staff members will be encouraged as they contribute to overall staff goals and objectives.

4.9 OIES administration will take responsibility for staff education in matters pertaining to ethical standards of the profession and will assume a leadership role in the examination and refinement of those standards.

5. Staff in their advising capacity will originate and coordinate new and ongoing programs, policies and services related to foreign students, scholars and their families.

5.1 Staff in their advising capacity will develop skills in identifying and mobilizing resources which will be of assistance to foreign students in their academic and community lives.

5.2 Staff in their advising capacity will facilitate communication between foreign students (and their sponsors) and university and community representatives with the goal of increasing the foreign students' understanding of United States culture and their functional adaptation to it.

5.3 Staff in their advising capacity will seek to assist foreign students and their academic advisors in making their educational experience applicable to their projected future experience in home culture.

5.4 Staff in their advising capacity will encourage the involvement of foreign students as resources for educational experiences of the campus and the community.

5.5 Staff in their advising capacity will strive to assist sponsors of foreign students to the greatest extent consistent with their primary responsibility to the institution and the students.

5.6 Staff in their advising capacity will maintain current awareness of immigration regulations, provide information concerning these regulations to foreign students, and assist in assuring institutional adherence to such regulations.

5.7 Staff in their advising function will provide training experiences for volunteers and/or agency representatives with the goal of developing cross-cultural sensitivity.

5.8 Staff in their advising capacity will provide prospective students with information concerning the benefits and problems of bringing dependents to the United States, and will provide assistance and orientation concerning health care and insurance, housing, and schooling for those dependents who do come.

5.9 Staff in their advising capacity will develop preparedness for emergency action in cases of personal crises or of potentially explosive

intercultural contact (such as demonstrations). Staff will be knowledgeable concerning their responsibilities, potential liabilities, and efficient techniques for utilization of community resources.

5.10 Staff in their advising capacity will be cognizant of and perform their duties in adherence to professional, legal, and ethical standards of accuracy and confidentiality.

5.11 Staff in their advising capacity will provide services to strengthen nationality clubs, regional clubs, and/or international clubs and to encourage the development of student leadership skills within these organizations.

5.12 Staff in their advising capacity will maintain availability to serve foreign students in order to prevent, detect, and assist with the resolution of difficulties in adjustment, utilizing the counseling staff and other campus and community resources as needed.

6. The United States abroad advisor is responsible for collecting, organizing, and making available current information on study, independent and group travel, short or long term employment, volunteer service, exchange traineeships, home-stay programs and other opportunities for meaningful experiences outside the United States available to students and staff.

6.1 The advisor must know the basic criteria for evaluating study programs and other opportunities in other countries and be familiar with the nature, content, sponsorship, and reputation of a wide range of those available.

6.2 The advisor should encourage students to undertake opportunities in other countries which will be educationally and culturally beneficial and should assist students in judging the quality and appropriateness of overseas opportunities and services they are considering.

6.3 Although the basic focus of the advising program will be for students, assistance will also be provided to faculty and staff interested in study, research, employment, or travel abroad.

6.4 Study abroad advisors will exercise discretion and due regard for professional standards in evaluating potential publicity for study and/or travel programs and in engaging in income-producing activities such as charter flight ticket sales.

6.5 The advisor will provide, or encourage others to provide, orientation for persons going overseas for study, work, and/or travel.

6.6 The advisor will be aware of ISU curricula and requirements and inform students of such requirements if their intention is to accrue academic credit through their travel experience.

6.7 The advisor will be familiar with ISU guidelines for overseas study programs and with such study programs

offered by ISU and will cooperate with others concerned to strengthen, extend and diversify quality study abroad opportunities for students.

6.8 The advisor will be knowledgeable concerning relevant on-campus resources such as foreign students and faculty, United States students and faculty returned from overseas experiences, and library resources. Advisor will also be knowledgeable concerning experts in the field who are available for consultation purposes.

7. Staff members will encourage intercultural education and global awareness on the campus, in the Iowa community and school systems by providing educational materials in the form of culture kits and by cooperating with students, staff, schools, organizations, in arranging programs which include foreign students/staff as resource persons.

7.1 Staff members will develop and make available culture kits which portray the countries and their cultures as realistically as possible, taking care to avoid stereotypes and other misconceptions.

7.2 Staff members will provide suggestions for use of the culture kits to aid teachers and others who utilize the materials.

7.3 In the development of the culture kits, staff will utilize the expertise of foreign nationals and returned United States travelers to ensure validity of information.

7.4 Staff members will provide orientation for foreign students/staff to enable them to present material on their countries in a professional and effective manner.

7.5 Staff members will encourage schools, communities, etc. to investigate and utilize cross-cultural resources in their own communities.

7.6 Staff members will coordinate training of volunteers to assist in culture kit development and other operational aspects of the International Resource Center.

Prepared with information drawn from NAFSA standards, and from consultation with Martin Limbird and Dennis Peterson.

Linda Fystrom
March 1, 1980

Office of International Educational Services
Advisory Committee Evaluation Meeting
March 20, 1980
Scheman Building Iowa State University Ames, Iowa

-- About the Process --

Advisory committee members have been invited to participate in a rather unique program planning model with demonstrated potential for the accomplishment of the objectives of planning and evaluation. This group process model is based on the work of Delbecq and Van de Ven, who have set forth "a sociological model suggesting a planning sequence which seeks to provide an orderly process of structuring the decision-making at different phases of planning".* Of paramount concern throughout the process is the problem of reinforcing and legitimizing organizational sensitivity to the needs of a variety of concerned client groups. The model is designed to help overcome problems of bureaucratic rigidity, insufficiently broad expertise within the organization, and non-responsiveness to client concerns in establishing priorities.

Briefly, the process steps and the groups represented at each step are as follows:

I Problem Exploration
Involvement of client or consumer groups; involvement of first line supervisors.

II Knowledge Exploration
Involvement of external scientific personnel; involvement of internal and external organizational specialists.

III Priority Development
Involvement of resource controllers; involvement of key administrators.

IV Program Development
Involvement of line administrators; involvement of technical specialists.

V Program Evaluation
Involvement of client or consumer groups; involvement of staff and administrative personnel.

Each group follows a carefully designed structure, to maximize participation, innovation, and information. Elected representatives from each group carry a summary of the group's deliberations into the next group to ensure accuracy and continuity in the sequential process. At the termination of the final group's deliberations, solution strategies will have been developed which take into account the interests and expertise of clients, specialists, resource controllers, and administrators. Their interaction throughout the process is carried out in a manner designed to be consistent with current research on creativity, problem solving, and social planning.

*Delbecq, Andre L. and A. H. Van de Ven. "A Group Process Model for Problem Identification and Program Planning". Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 7, 1971, p. 467.

APPENDIX C

Initial Cover Letter to Panel 1

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

College of Education
Professional Studies
201 Curtiss Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011

Telephone 515-294-4143

November 12, 1979

Dear

Because of the expertise indicated by your position as a NAFSA consultant, I would like to request your cooperation in a research project concerning international education. The general goals of this dissertation research are: (1) to develop a set of criteria to be used in evaluating international education programs on U.S. campuses, (2) to identify the ten or twelve "best" international education programs in terms of these criteria, and (3) to isolate the essential administrative components of these excellent programs. Additionally, if resources permit, a handbook will be developed for administrators' use in establishing or developing international education programs on U.S. campuses with little or no experience in the field.

The initial phase of the research involves the use of the Delphi method for amassing the judgments of experts. While this method has been primarily used for technological forecasting, a review of the literature suggests that the method has wide applicability, and offers considerable promise for the present project.

If you agree to serve as a member of the Delphic expert panel, your task will be to respond to the enclosed questionnaire, and to two or three subsequent rounds. These will be sent to you with an analysis of the expert group's responses to prior rounds. In order to aviod problems introduced by bias, anonymity is an important aspect of the Delphi method. Please do not discuss this study with others while the research is in progress, particularly not with the other panel members, who are also NAFSA consultants. You are at liberty, however, to consult whatever data you feel might help you in forming an opinion.

Please return the questionnaire in the enclosed envelope within ten days, by November 22. If you desire further information or clarification, please feel free to contact me at home, (515) 292-3985, or at work, (515) 294-8906. I am looking forward to an exciting and rewarding research involvement, and thank you for your cooperation in this endeavour.

Sincerely,

Linda Fystrom

International Education Programs

Questionnaire 1

In your experience with international education programs on U.S. campuses, you have had an opportunity to form subjective judgments about the quality of such programs. This questionnaire is designed to tap this expertise in a format suitable for combining your judgments with those of other experts. You will receive a copy of those combined judgments, together with a copy of your responses, for further consideration. Please feel free to comment on any aspect of the topic on the reverse of the questionnaire or on an attached sheet. (Note: "international education" is to be understood broadly, including a wide range of program components such as foreign student advising, admissions, outreach activities to raise campus and community awareness of international education, English as a second language programs, study abroad programs, etc.)

Q1. In your opinion, what are some important components of a model international education program? (You might think in terms of administrative organization, staff positions or facilities, but need not limit your answers to these categories.)

Q2. Although each item you have indicated in your response to question one is important, some may be more essential than others. Please place a number from 1 to 5 to the left of each item, with 5 indicating maximum importance and 1 indicating an item in the "nice but not necessary" category. The higher the number you assign, the more essential you believe that component to be for an excellent international education program.

Q3. Some persons believe that the character of any administrative unit is shaped by the person responsible for that unit. What personality traits, experiences, and beliefs do you feel would characterize an ideal chief administrator of an excellent international education program?

Q4. It may not always be possible to locate an individual with all of the desired characteristics for such a position. Please indicate the characteristics you consider to be most significant by ranking the responses you have listed for question three. Place a 1 to the left of the most important, a 2 to the left of the next most important, and so on until all of your responses are prioritized.

Q5. In your experience you probably have come in contact with many international education programs. Such programs may have similar goals but may vary widely in effectiveness in attaining those goals. In your opinion, what are the dozen most effective programs on U.S. campuses? (These need not be arranged in any particular order.)

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

Secondary Education
College of Education
218 Curtiss Hall
Ames, Iowa 50011

January 18, 1980

The initial returns from my Delphic probe questionnaire on excellence in international education have produced some most intriguing information. I would like to take this opportunity to urge you to reconsider your participation in this project, in order that your opinions can be compiled with those of the other NASPA consultants. The study will be most meaningful if we are able to collect and compile the expert opinions of the entire spectrum of consultants.

One question that has arisen has to do with the possible implications of naming particular institutions which have excellent programs, in the opinion of the respondents. Although identification of specific institutions is crucial to the research project, in the final write-up these institutions will be identified only by letter and number. The anonymity of the Delphic respondents will of course be maintained.

In the event that you are able to participate, please return the enclosed questionnaire to me within the next 10 days. You will receive shortly thereafter a composite summary of the panel members' responses for your further consideration and evaluation. I am looking forward to being able to call upon your expertise in this research project.

Sincerely,

Linda Fystrom

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Summarized Results Panel 1 Round 1
(omitting named institutions)

The following summary includes panel responses to questions 1 and 2. In order to preserve the richness and diversity of the responses, minimal condensation has taken place at this stage. Those components rated most important (5) have been categorized, and all other components have been listed but not categorized within their rank order of importance. Please compare these statements with your original response, and indicate any desired changes on the enclosed questionnaire.

At Level 5 (most important)

Number of Mentions	Category	Comments from the panel
14	Staffing:	Strong, committed, organized individuals; a directory with attributes as given in Q3; Dedicated staff in all areas; Dedicated administrator; Director; Counselors; Secretaries; Foreign student advisor; Foreign admissions office; International programs/studies coordinator/ director; Academic advising; Personal counseling; ESL instruction; Staff persons with ability to work with community volunteers; Administrator with delegation ability and ability to inspire trust
7	Institutional Involvement:	Effective involvement of US and foreign students and faculty; Involvement of all campus constituencies; Broad base of interested faculty; Include U.S. and international students in planning; Harmonious, cooperative, supportive relationship among FSA office & others; Support services, e.g. housing, advising, health; International students on the campus
5	Institutional Commitment:	Clear institutional commitment; Support from top level administration; University commitment to international education; A stated commitment to accepted foreign students; Clear administrative authority
3	Philosophy:	Well thought out philosophical basis; Overall perspective; Relevant to the current political, economic, and cultural scene
2	Facilities:	Administrative offices and facilities, Adequate space including waiting room

At Level 4

-Open channels to various parts of academic community
-An enlightened community which recognizes the value of international education
-Faculty support--Direct Faculty involvement--Involve all levels of faculty & admin.
-Adequate funding
-Cosmopolitian student body
-Qualified staff in all areas
-Good furniture, equipment--Good filing system
-Visiting Professors
-Up-to-date pass out materials
-Intelligent leadership
-Community outreach--Community Programming Dir.
-Study abroad program officer
-Internationalization of the curriculum
-Student services - advising & effective admin. of INS matters
-Flexibility within the entire institutional administration

At Level 3

-Well planned organizational flow for communication and logical flow of responsibilities
-Admissions expertise & policy which determines quality of foreign student population
-Program flexibility
-Academic excellence
-Having routine ways of meeting special needs of foreign students
-Active student, campus & community involvement--Involve community & volunteer
-Inter-relation between policy and function
-Attractive home-like facilities
-Tie-ins to both student affairs and academic affairs units
-Adequate staffing in all components--Highly qualified personnel
-Overseas program for American students
-ESL program director
-Cosmopolitan club

At Level 2

-Community involvement
-Accessible/visible office location
-Research facilities
-Opportunity for continuing professional in-service training
-Adequate financial support
-Adequate qualified staffing
-College student as "foreign friend" program director
-Housing officer for foreign students
-English language screening officer
-Faculty and scholars exchange
-Study abroad
-Program diversity
-Cosmopolitan F S community
-Adequate FSA-foreign student ratio

At Level 1

-Must have support of administrative superiors
-Financial aid for foreign students
-Library on international education
-Links with other institutions
-Links with government at all levels
-CAFSS & SECUSSA under administrative head
-A supportive (or at least not hostile) community

Mentioned but not ranked on a 5 to 1 scale

-Campus autonomy, amalgamation of FSA, study abroad and FS admin
-International advisory committee
-A place for FS to relax on campus
-International dorm
-Professional travel budget for confs
-Overseas work & travel advising
-Regular linkage with ESL faculty
-Personalized orientation of FSs
-One FSA per 300 FSs
-Decent staff salaries
-Staff-student ratio 1-150
-Adequate funding
-Strong community liason
-Recognition of international programs as significant elements of the institution's public statements of its mission
-Substantive exposure of a high percentage of students to international education dimensions
-Special attention to international components of teacher training
-Strong international components in continuing education
-Planned international components of extracurricular programs

-Written administrative policy
-Administrative/presidential support
-High visibility facilities
-Respect and support of faculty
-Broad spectrum of cultures represented
-Continuing effort to build a strong and effective constituency for international education
-International library resources
-Involvement in technical assistance in developing countries
-Recognition of international interests and competence in hiring, retention, and promotion of faculty and staff
-Careful coordination of international education components for mutual strength and optimum use of resources

Summary of panel responses to questions 3 and 4

The composite score was arrived at by adding the value assigned for each individual ranking of the items. Please review the panel response summary, compare it with your original response, and indicate any alterations in your thinking on the issue on the Q3 blank of the attached questionnaire.

Composite Score	Characteristic	Individual Panel Member's Rankings of Item
57	Courses or Experience in Administration	1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 4, 7
43	Ability to speak and write clearly	3, 4, 5, 5, 6, 7, 7, 8
37	Committed to the field	1, 2, 2, 2
34	Credibility with faculty & administration	1, 3, 3, 3
32	Flexible	2, 3, 4, 5, 9
28	International living experience	1, 2, 5, 8
26	Intelligience	1, 2, 4
24	Sensitivity to feelings of co-workers	3, 3, 3
24	Experience in international education	1, 1, 7
22	Traveled (including diverse overseas experience)	4, 6, 7, 8, 8
18	Patience, persistence	5, 8, 10
18	Counseling experience	1, 5, 9
16	Open to experience of others	3, 3
15	Understanding of differences among cultures	3, 4
14	Grantsmanship	4, 6, 9
14	Relates well with students	2, 6
13	Socially skilled	3, 6
11	Blend of idealism and pragmatism	5, 6
11	Talent for discovering leaders	4, 7
10	Nonjudgmental	1
10	Diplomatic	1
10	Global view	1
10	Experience in working with foreigners	1
10	Interested in learning	1
10	Supportive	1
9	Prestigous school of training	2
9	Belief that problems have same human needs	2
9	Integrity	2
9	Willing to work long hours	2
9	Cheerful, success-oriented personality	2
9	Has a guiding philosophy	2
9	Sense of humor	6, 7
8	Open to staff for airing concerns	3
8	Dedicated to continuing growth	3
8	Well-organized	3
8	Fair	4, 10
8	Teaching experience	4, 10
8	Facility in a foreign language	6, 8

Composite Score	Characteristic	Individual Panel Member's Rankings of Item
7	Keeps up with the field	4
7	Training in inter-cultural areas	4
7	Personable and outgoing	4
7	Interactive with staff, students, faculty, administration	4
7	Unruffled in crisis	4
6	Able to delegate	5
6	Belief that foreign students can adjust to new culture	5
6	Effective time management	5
6	Eagerness & interest in foreign students	5
6	Committed to staff development	5
5	Ability to prioritize	6
5	Awareness of university policies	6
5	Well read	6
4	Not strongly religious	7
4	Able to delegate	7
3	Committed to internationalism, pluralism	8
2	Good relationship with superiors	9
2	Stays at home more than travels	9

Summarized Results Panel 2 Round 1
(omitting named institutions)

Summary of Panel Responses to questions 1 and 2

In order to preserve the richness and diversity of the responses, minimal condensation has taken place at this stage. Those components rated most important (5) have been categorized, and all other components have been listed but not categorized within their rank order of importance. Please compare these statements with your original response, and indicate any desired changes on the enclosed questionnaire.

At Level 5 (most important)

Number of Mentions	Category	Comments from the panel
9	Programs	Psychological and study skills counseling; Emergency financial assistance; Opportunities for foreign students to study in the U.S.; Opportunities for U.S. students to study abroad; Degree and non-degree area studies programs; Research and field work abroad, exchange of scholars; Curriculum planning to "deliver"; Appropriate language programs; Appropriate programs
5	Staffing	Level of professional staff and use of U.S. and foreign students; Experienced and knowledgable staff; Constant consultation by leadership among constituent parts; Solid administration, effective leadership; One overall center director with immediate communication to President
4	Institutional Involvement	University faculty commitment; Careful admission; Student desire for program; Faculty desire for program; Interdepartmental cooperation
1	Philosophy	World order objectives
1	Facilities	One center as a focal point for international activities

At Level 4

- Community outreach
- Competent library facilities
- Support (not domination) by university leadership
- Knowledge of languages
- Knowledge of different disciplines
- Housing affording contact with U.S. students
- Scholarship funds
- Means for student involvement and community participation
- Relationship of program's physical nearness to rest of school, especially students

At Level 3

- Appropriate housing
- Departmental academic advising
- University advising and assistance (personal and professional)
- Admissions department for international students
- Study abroad programs
- Faculty exchange and Fulbright
- University curriculum coordinator
- Graduate field work abroad
- Foreign guest speakers
- Representation in area studies societies

Level 3 continued

- Teacher training abroad
- Foreign language teaching
- Inter-institutional international projects
- Some student participation in administration
- Organizational skills among staff
- Health facilities
- Housing permitting preparation of native foods
- Comfortable meeting areas
- Concentration of resources for maximum effectiveness
- Contacts with professionals outside the field, including government agencies, libraries

At Level 2

- English language institute
- International library collection
- Besides Director, at least 1:100
- Assistance with foreign student organization
- Interrelation of all aspects of a program
- Community relationships

At Level 1

- Community awareness and involvement
- Advising office with FSA and immigration
- State and federal grants
- Avoidance of pat generalizations, stereotypes

Summary of panel responses to questions 3 and 4

The composite score was arrived at by adding the value assigned for each individual ranking of the items. Please review the panel response summary, compare it with your original response, and indicate any alterations in your thinking on the issue on the Q3 blank of the attached questionnaire.

Composite Score	Characteristic	Individual Panel Member's Rankings of Item
39	Significant international experience	1,1,2,9
35	Organizational and administrative ability	1,2,4
30	Flexibility	1,3,5,5
29	Ability to work with faculty and administration	2,4,4,5
28	Empathic, warm, broad sympathy with foreign cultures and peoples	1,1,3,3
25	Worldminded, culturally aware, international perspective	2,3,3
20	Honest, Trustworthy	1,1
18	Ability to inspire respect, rally others	2,2
18	Self-effacing, low-key	1,3
16	Tolerant	1,5
16	Multilingual	1,5
10	Strong commitment to international education	1
10	Expertise demonstrated by teaching, publication	1
10	Superior intellectual abilities	1
9	Ability to endure administrative detail	2
9	Enthusiasm	2
9	Creative problem solving ability	2
9	Understanding of international awareness level of client populations	2
9	Professional in dealings with co-workers	2
8	Willing to delegate	3
8	Pleasure in seeing others credited for accomplishments	3
8	Awareness of unit's relationship to campus and community	3
8	Sensitivity to needs of different departments	3
8	Leadership ability	3
7	Established faculty member	4
7	Motivation	4
7	Ability to cope with emergencies	4
7	International friendships	4
6	Interest in international events	5
6	Communication skills	5
6	Contacts for external support	5
5	Education equivalent to or greater than the highest faculty position	6
5	Ability to work long hours	6
5	Relationship with admissions	6
4	Relationship with Immigration/Naturalization	7
3	Relationship with community	8

Cover Letter to Administrators of International Educational Services Programs at Named Institutions

June 4, 1980

Dear:

As a part of my doctoral research in Higher Education at Iowa State University, I have just completed a Delphic Probe of a panel of experts regarding the question of excellence in the provision of international educational services. A consensus of the opinions of panel members was achieved as to the essential components of a high-quality program and the probable characteristics of a chief administrator of such a program. In addition to providing their judgments on these matters, the panel responded to my request for identification of several very high quality programs. They have provided a brief list of programs considered to be excellent in international educational services.

Since your office is among those mentioned as notable for excellence in the provision of international educational services, I am requesting your cooperation in providing the applied, practical, and "state-of-the-art" information with which to compare the theoretical information supplied by the Delphic panel. I have enclosed two questionnaires, which I would appreciate having returned to me in the enclosed envelope by June 14. One questionnaire requests information concerning office components and relationships with the surrounding larger community. The second questionnaire requests information regarding personal characteristics and attributes about you as the chief administrator of one of these model offices. The latter information is of two types, data about work experience and training, and data about personal characteristics. This information will help to build a composite profile of a successful administrator of an excellent international educational services office.

I believe the compiled results from the dozen campuses on which the panel believes excellent programs exist will be of considerable interest to those concerned with standards and evaluation as well as to those interested in designing high-quality, effective and efficient offices for the provision of these services. While your response is critical to this compilation, you may be assured that no individual or institutional identification will appear in any written report of the research, including the dissertation.

Please feel free to contact me at my office (515) 294-8906 or at home (515) 292-3985 if you have any questions. If you desire a summary of the responses from the model program campuses, please send a memorandum to that effect. I am looking forward to this, the last stage of a most fascinating and rewarding research project.

Sincerely,

Linda Fystrom

Office Components Questionnaire

Quantitative Information on Office Components

Is there a separate, identifiable international educational services office on your campus? __No __Yes

What proportion of the staff in this office hold terminal academic degrees? _____%

To whom does the chief administrator of this office report? __President
__Vice-President (Academic) __ Vice President (Student Affairs) __ Other

Is there an active study abroad program on your campus? __No __Yes
Is the responsibility for study abroad programs housed in your office? __No __Yes

Is there an active faculty and scholar exchange program on your campus? __No __Yes
Is the responsibility for faculty and scholar exchange programs housed in your office? __No __Yes

How many full-time staff are in your office? _____
How many international students are on your campus in the 1979-80 academic year? _____

Is there a clear public statement of institutional commitment to international education on your campus? __No __Yes
If so, in what document is this statement found? _____

Qualitative Information on Office Components

Instructions

Scale I: Please rate the extent to which the condition is present on your campus, using a scale from 1 (absent) to 5 (fully present and functioning)
Scale II: Please rate the level of your satisfaction with this condition on your campus using a scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied)

Condition	Scale I: Absent				Fully Present and functioning	Scale II: Very Dissatisfied				Very Satisfied
Internationalization of the curriculum	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Good Community liason	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Cosmopolitan foreign student population	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate, pleasant facilities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Involvement of U.S. and foreign students in planning and delivery of services	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate funding	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Adequate staff	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Good relationship with other university offices in general	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Administrative Questionnaire

Quantitative Information on Personal Characteristics

Have you had prior experience abroad? __No __Yes If so, how many years?_____

Was this experience: (check as many as apply) __Working __Travel __As a student
__Other (please specify) _____

How many years of administrative experience have you had? _____

How many years of counseling experience have you had?_____

Have you had a counseling practicum? __No __Yes Other counseling training?__No __Yes

Are you fluent in a language other than English? __No __Yes If so, in how many?_____

Qualitative Information on Personal Characteristics

Instructions

Scale I: Please indicate the importance of the following characteristics which might be found in a chief administrator of an international educational services office. Rate each item from 1 (not at all important) to 5 (very important).

Scale II: Please indicate the degree to which you feel these characteristics are descriptive of yourself. Rate each item from 1 (not at all descriptive) to 5 (very descriptive).

Characteristic	Scale I					Scale II				
	Not at all important				Very important	Not at all descriptive				Very descriptive
Flexibility	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Patience	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Intercultural Sensitivity	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Supportive relationship with co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Intelligence	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Relates well with students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Strong communication skills	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Credibility with faculty and with administration	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Integrity	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Commitment to international education	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5