INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE DEVELOPMENT IN A STUDY ABROAD CONTEXT: SAUDI STUDY ABROAD LEARNERS IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

by

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DEDICATION

For Mom and Dad.

Your love, prayers, and encouragement

have helped me to achieve all

I've been able to achieve.

For Khaznah, Alwaleed, Mayasah, Sultan, and Salman.

This accomplishment is as much yours as it is mine

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ABSTRACT

This longitudinal study used qualitative and quantitative methods to explore the development of aspects of the intercultural competence (ICC) of Saudi learners of English as a second language in a study abroad (SA) context based on Deardorff's (2004) ICC model. It also examined students' development of Saudis' perceptions of the home and host cultures at the beginning of SA and after four months. Moreover, this study explored the relationship between ICC and second language proficiency. This study found no substantial change in ICC-related attributes over four months of studying abroad. Results also showed an overall agreement in ICC assessment between the teachers and the students. As far as perceptions of members of the Saudi and US cultures are concerned in the second study, the findings suggested that the Saudi SA students continued to use their home frame of reference even after four months of study in the US and that the national stereotypes persisted. In these results, US Americans are perceived to be work-oriented, whereas Saudis are relationship-oriented. The findings of the third study demonstrated that SA students' perceived gains with regard to skills of speaking, listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary were significantly lower than their expectations at the beginning of the program and that their expectations were relatively low for culture learning. Moreover, no significant relationship was found between SA students' L2 usage patterns and L2 learning, nor between L2 usage patterns and C2 learning. However, the level of L2 proficiency upon entry into the SA program indicated a strong correlation with perceived gains in L2 learning. Interestingly, no relationship was found between ICC and L2 learning, nor between ICC and C2 learning.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Background

Although Saudis represent a sizeable group of international students, they remain under-represented in the literature on study abroad (SA). This dissertation aims to provide an insight into the SA experience of Saudi learners in the United States of America so that this experience is successfully utilized by all stakeholders. This dissertation is focused on the development of intercultural competence (ICC). Administrators and teachers need to better understand and accommodate Saudi students who come from a culture that differs, to a great degree, from that of the host culture. The metaphoric description of culture as an iceberg provides a good example of how intercultural differences should be addressed. Difference should not only be considered at the level of the tip of the iceberg (e.g., customs, art, and behavior) but should also go beneath it to understand the values and beliefs on which the visible culture stands. On the other hand, SA Saudi learners should also prepare for such an experience. Studying abroad should not be a mere relocation where they can live abroad for years without developing their thinking system. Their ICC should develop so they could be capable of respecting the co-existence of different worldviews. The ICC concept is gaining an increased momentum in the world at the macro level because it "is about our relationships with each other and ultimately, our very survival as humankind, as we work together to address the global challenges that confront us in this century," as Deardorff (2012, p. 17) put it. Thus, this dissertation has focused on the development of ICC in an SA context to contribute, at least in a micro level, to the ultimate goal of peacebuilding.

Although studying abroad per se is widely accepted as the solution to language and culture problems, Hunter (2008) rightly argued that "programs that do not rely on the haphazard chance of students engaging in this process on their own, but instead very intentionally organize learning activities to encourage it, inevitably will be better poised" (as cited in Vande Berg, Connor-Linton, & Paige, 2009, p. 31) to meet their goals more effectively. These goals, however, should not be limited to linguistic proficiency in the sense that one can speak the second language (L2) effectively. A proficient L2 speaker might be referred to as a "fluent fool," as Bennett (1997) described. Bennett maintained that language should not be separated from its cultural dimensions and that L2 learners' cultural sensitivity should be intentionally raised. Similarly, Coleman (1998) stated that limiting SA research to the linguistic outcomes distorts the experience, emphasizing the significance of this experience in enhancing ICC that is an essential element of the linguistic proficiency. He also claimed that only through ICC can students adopt the attitudes and behaviors that lead to successful interactions in intercultural situations (Coleman, 1998). However, including culture in language learning is not meant to change learners' cultures. Byram and Feng (2004) argued that the purpose of ICC is to have learners stand in a position that enables them to understand the concepts of the different cultures. Hence, Kinginger (2011) underscored the significant value in SA for ICC when learning L2 as ICC helps in seeing "things from the point of view of others, that is, to develop true intercultural understanding" (p. 63).

The present study investigated longer-term SA students in the US who are sponsored by the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP). KASP is not associated with any educational institution in Saudi Arabia. It is run and funded by the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education. Since its launch, KASP has sponsored thousands of students who are sent all over the world. KASP is not dedicated for foreign language learning. However, SA learners are offered as long as two years to study the foreign language before they enroll into their programs in universities that are recommended for study by the Ministry of Higher Education. To be eligible for sponsorship, Saudi students are required to fulfill general and specific conditions depending on the degree they seek and their field of study. Once accepted, students are granted a monthly allowance in addition to full payment of the programs' fees and a medical insurance. KASP is further described as follows.

Goals of KASP

This ambitious program was established in 2005 and is planned to run until 2020. The goals that the Saudi Ministry of Education set to achieve can be summarized here. KASP sponsors Saudis who are qualified to study abroad in top international universities. It also endeavors to develop Saudis both academically and professionally. Another goal to achieve is to use this program in scientific, educational, and cultural exchange with other countries (Ministry of Higher Education website).

Overview of the Study

The overarching goal of the current study is to ascertain whether or not a SA context fosters ICC development. The significance of this study is that it will add new insights to ICC literature in many ways. First, it investigated a population that has, to the best of my knowledge, rarely been the direct focus of ICC research, a population that could arguably be described as culturally different from other well-researched populations, especially from Western countries. Western scholars have extensively researched Western SA learners. This situation has led to ICC models that cannot not be generalized as universal models. Deardorff (2011, p. 47) acknowledged that her model "is primarily a US-based view of intercultural competence" and called for further enhancements and adaptations.

Some suggestions for Deardorff's ICC model are presented. These suggestions could possibly be a further step toward producing a more universal un-biased perspective of ICC. Second, some ICC scholars (Deardorff, 2014; Fantini, 2009; Pusch, 1994) have recognized one of the research limitations. Given that the definition of ICC contains two main elements (effectiveness and appropriateness), they stated that the majority of studies have only focused on "effectiveness." As such, there was a call to consider investigating the "appropriateness" element that represents the others' perception when measuring ICC. These two elements are discussed in Chapter 2. The current dissertation has attempted to fill in this gap by comparing students' perceptions of their own ICC with the perceptions of their teachers in this regard. Third, this study explored the relationship between ICC and linguistic/cultural proficiency. This dissertation will fill in some gaps in the literature as well as provide practical implications to stakeholders from both sides, the Saudis and the US Americans. The main question of this dissertation is

whether the SA context affects learners' ICC development. Three interrelated studies have been conducted to address this general question and to answer further detailed research questions.

Chapter 2 (Study 1) is entitled "Saudi Students' Preparedness to Develop Intercultural Competence Abroad: Perceptions of Students and Teachers." The objective of this study is to explore the development of attributes related to ICC during Saudi students' first four months of study and life in the USA. This study reviews the Saudi case and adaptation issues that Saudi students encounter in SA contexts and discusses the concept of ICC and the components that make up ICC in the literature, with a focus on Deardorff' (2004) model that was adopted in this study. This study also investigated two research questions using quantitative and qualitative methods. Both are related to SA students' personality traits that have been suggested to facilitate the development of ICC. These traits come from the ICC literature, as is discussed in details in Chapter 2. The survey used in the present study was adapted from Ecke's (2012) study based on Peterson (2004). The ICC-related traits in the survey also coincide with the items that construct Deardorff's model, as will be discussed in Chapter 2. One question explores students' self-perception with respect to these traits, and the other explores others' (teachers') perceptions of SA students with respect to these traits. This investigation of the emic view (teachers') came in response to calls of previous studies (Deardorff, 2014; Fantini, 2009; Pusch, 1994) and suggested that ICC should not be assessed by reliance on self-assessment. Moreover, the comparison of teachers' and students' perceptions showed discrepancies, indicating conflicting worldviews at the basic levels of attitudes. Previous studies (Byram, 1997; Bennet, 1993; Deardorff, 2004) maintained that the component of curiosity and discovery is a basic tenet of ICC. However, in light of Hofstede's (1983) cultural dimension, the present study suggested that this cultural

pattern applies less to the Saudi culture than the US culture, indicating that further research should be conducted to assess ICC from non-Western views. This finding is a step forward to fine-tuning the Western view of the concept of ICC to reach a more universal understanding of this concept.

Chapter 3 (Study 2), which is entitled "Saudi Students' Perceptions of Members of the Saudi and US Cultures," is primarily focused on Saudi students' perceptions of and attitudes toward their own culture and that of US Americans and whether their perceptions change over the period of their first four months of SA at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) in Tucson, Arizona. It investigated the experiences of SA students—with a focus on Saudi students—with regard to their perceptions of their own culture and the host culture. The importance of investigating these perceptions and attitudes stems from the potential that they may have on affecting students' success in learning the target language and their functioning in the target culture. This study was built on the study conducted by Ecke (2013) on US students' perceptions of and attitudes toward members of their own culture and members of the German culture at the beginning and the end of a short-term SA program in Germany. Similar to Study 1, this longitudinal study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to gain insight into Saudi students' possible change of perception during their first four months of study in the US. The study used pre- and post-survey, interviews, and journals to collect data. The data showed that initial perceptions persisted and that stereotypes continued. This continued pattern suggested that the participants continued using their own frame of reference even after four months of SA.

Chapter 4 (Study 3) is entitled "Saudi SA Students' ICC and Their Perceived Gains in Language and Culture Learning" and is primarily focused on Saudi students' ICC and its relationship to learning the second language (L2) and gaining a deeper understanding of the second culture (C2) over the period of their first four months of SA at CESL. This study used pre- and post-surveys to collect data and specifically examined students' expectations and gains in language skills and cultural understanding and students' expectations and gains with regard to aspects of the US culture. Moreover, this study investigated the relationships between language usage patterns and initial L2 proficiency to reported/perceived progress in L2 learning, and reported/perceived progress in cultural understanding. This study also investigated the relationship between ICC and reported/perceived progress in L2 learning, and reported/perceived progress in cultural understanding. The most important finding of this study was that no direct relationship existed between the development of ICC and L2/C2 learning.

The final chapter of the dissertation summarizes the main findings of the three sub-studies and presents general conclusions and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2: SAUDI STUDENTS' PREPAREDNESS TO DEVELOP INTERCULTURAL COMPETENCE ABROAD: PERCEPTIONS OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

Abstract

This longitudinal study explored the development of the intercultural competence (ICC) of Saudi learners of English as a second language in a study abroad (SA) context based on Deardorff's (2004) ICC model. Qualitative and quantitative methods (surveys and interviews) were used. This study not only investigated Saudi SA students' perceptions (insider's view) of their own ICC but also sought teachers' perception (outsider's view) of their students' ICC. This study found no substantial change in attributes suggested to facilitate ICC from pre- to post-surveys. Although mostly agreement was found in ICC judgments between the teachers and the students, some disagreement in ICC ratings and a noticeable overestimation of some attributes by both teachers and students were found. The findings of this study present interesting insights into the concept of ICC and have important theoretical implications with regard to Deardorff's widely used (2004) model and ICC assessment.

Introduction

Savicki, Adams, Wilde, and Binder (2008) stated that "when people travel from their own home culture to a different culture, they experience variations not only in terms of scenery and societal arrangements, but also in terms of daily routines, interpersonal interactions, and expectations. Many differences are based on the divergence in underlying values, and concerns

of the home versus the host culture" (p. 111). They stated that daily events that occur in the new host culture might have two different consequences. They would either "pose threats leading to anxiety, confusion, and depression" or "pose challenges whose resolution can lead to feeling of mastery, excitement, and appreciation for aspects of the host culture" (p. 111). Savicki et al. (2008) maintained that "the exposure and reactions to such events form the foundation of intercultural development" (p. 111). Kinginger (2011) stated that "if one goal of language learning is to see things from the point of view of others, that is, to develop true intercultural understanding (or competence), then study abroad has much to be recommended" (p. 63). The objective of this study is to explore the development of attributes related to intercultural competence (ICC) during Saudi students' first four months of study and life in the USA.

Saudis Studying in the US

In 2005, a meeting was conducted between King Abdullah and George W. Bush and resulted in a joint statement that stressed that "we [Saudis and Americans] must work to expand dialogue, understanding, and interactions between our citizens" (as cited in Shaw, 2009, p. 60). This statement was partially reinforced by increasing the number of Saudi students in the USA. Although Saudis represent a sizeable group of international students, they remain under-represented in the literature. Based on the last Open Doors report (Institute of International Education, 2014), the number of Saudi students has increased from fewer than 4,000 to almost 53,919 in the last decade (Figure 1).

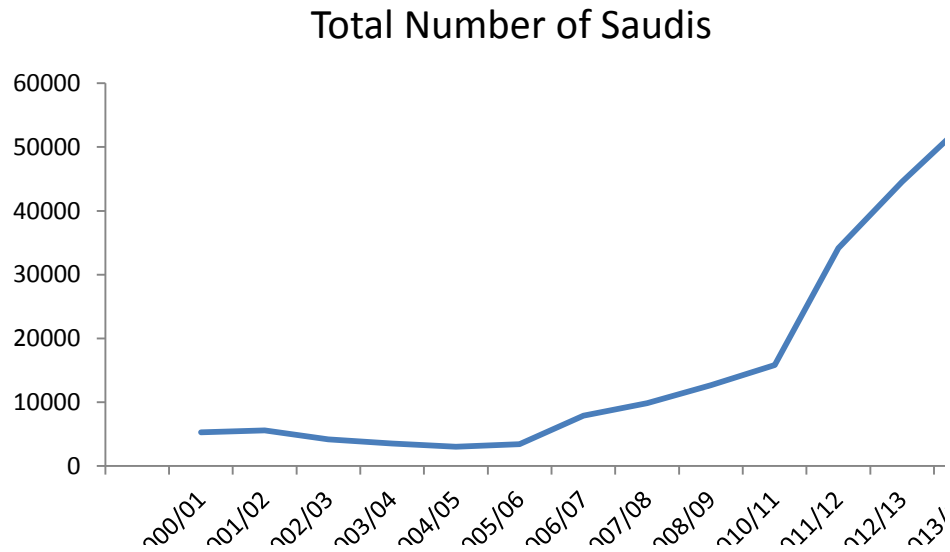

Figure 1. Total number of Saudi students in the US

The report also shows that although Saudi Arabia is among the top five places of origin of international students in the US, ranking fourth, it ranked first in the origin of international students in Intensive English Programs in the US. This huge number of Saudi students studying in the US emphasizes the significance of the current study that attempts to contribute to the literature of ICC. The purpose of this study is to provide an insight into the SA experience of Saudi learners in the United States of America so that this experience is successfully utilized by learners, teachers, administrators, and policy makers so that learners can adjust more easily to the new cultural environment and learn more effectively in it. This study primarily focuses on aspects of the ICC dimension.

This study builds on a study conducted by Ecke (2012) on the development of attributes that have been suggested to facilitate ICC development in a short-term SA program in Germany.

However, the present study is different in that it investigates learners who are sponsored by the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) and who study abroad for a longer term and for a degree. KASP is not associated with any educational institution in Saudi Arabia. It is run and funded by the Saudi Ministry of Higher Education. Since its launch, KASP has sponsored thousands of students who are sent all over the world. KASP was not established for the purpose of promoting foreign language learning, but those students who are accepted for scholarships are sponsored to study the second language abroad for as long as two years before they enroll into their degree programs in universities that are recommended by the Ministry of Higher Education. To be eligible for sponsorship, Saudi students are required to fulfill general and specific conditions depending on the degree they seek and their field of study. Once they are accepted and start studying, students are granted a monthly allowance in addition to full payment of the programs' fees and a superior medical insurance.

Literature Review

Issues of Adaptation of Saudis Abroad

One of the important issues raised in the literature is that international students should not be conceptualized in reductionist terms (Midgley, 2009; Kumar, 2005; Koehne, 2005). Midgley's (2009) study on two Saudi males showed that although the participants shared many similarities in their background, he found them to differ greatly in terms of "priorities, values and approaches to life as international students." Although this study is not centered around issues of adaptation, it might be insightful for the Western reader to learn about some of the prominent

issues that complicate the SA experience of Saudi students as a foreword to ICC discussion. Some important issues of adaptation Saudis face in the USA are related to topics of anxiety, gender roles, and identity.

Saudis find difficulty in communicating with the opposite gender. Al Morshedi (2011) found that "female Saudi students stated that they try to avoid interaction with male students in their classroom interaction." This type of problem is linked to the fact that strict gender segregation between males and females exists in Saudi Arabia at all levels. Therefore, how an individual sees his/her own gender affects his/her role when staying in a different cultural context. For instance, Alqahtani (2011) showed how "the British idea of gender equality contributes to negative responses to Islamic women wearing the hejab" (p. 203). Studying in mixed classrooms, which was new to Saudis, seemed to cause difficulties for their participation. Polanyi (1995) indicated that women encounter such discriminatory practices not only during their SA experience but also when evaluated on functional language abilities to which access might be exclusive to males in some communities. Related to this, Alhazmi and Nyland (2010, 2013) found that the difficulty to interact with members of the opposite sex is experienced by males and females differently. Likewise, the stress of worrying about housewives or even wives who go to school could probably affect the motivation for learning since men in Saudi Arabia are considered to be the guardian and thus supposed to take on men's responsibilities in the same way women are considered in charge of administrating at-home issues. By contrast, women are not expected to engage with non-relative men and limit their associations to females, which is sometimes difficult and could result in related anxiety, demotivation, and stagnation of learning.

Concerns about loss of identity are found to make it difficult for Saudis and other Arabs to integrate into the host culture (Hilal, 2013). A mix of three identities, namely, tribal, religious, and national, are interwoven identities that add, in a way, to the difficulty of this experience (Alhazmi & Nyland, 2010). In their study on Jordanian students in the USA, Alazzi and Chioddo (2006) found that those students would always "see themselves as guests and would want to return to the Middle East as soon as possible" (p. 79). This stance of self-positioning led those students to refrain from internalizing the beliefs, attitudes, and traditions of the host country. In other words, this feeling of being foreign to the host culture could result in failure to engage in the new community even though SA students would supposedly try their best to do so. By contrast, Shaw (2009), who investigated the success strategies of Saudi students in the USA, found successful Saudi students to have gained ICC (p. 219). Shaw found that her SA participants showed acquisition of components of Deardorff's ICC model. Her participants demonstrated attitudes of respect, openness, and curiosity and discovery. They also exhibited development of "the skills and the knowledge and comprehension, as components of intercultural competence, that allowed them to comfortably settle into life and study in the United States and succeed in their goals." in addition to their achievement of "the internal outcomes of intercultural competence to arrive at the external outcomes of—behaving and communicating effectively and appropriately to achieve one's goals to some degree" (Deardorff, 2006, p. 254, as cited in Shaw, 2009, p. 212). She urged all stakeholders to participate in assessing potential SA students' ICC when determining which students go abroad, and supporting them to gain a deeper understanding of their host culture (Shaw, 2009, p. 215).

Definition of Intercultural Competence

The ability to adapt to life in another country largely depends on a person's ICC (sometimes also named "intercultural sensitivity," "intercultural communicative competence," and "cultural intelligence"). ICC has numerous definitions. In trying to find the most agreed-on definitions, Deardorff (2006) surveyed a panel of internationally known intercultural scholars and administrators as she provided them with nine definitions from the intercultural literature. For administrators participating in her study, Byram's (1997) definition was rated the most applicable, and it can be summarized as follows: "Knowledge of others; knowledge of self; skills to interpret and relate; skills to discover and/or to interact; valuing others' values, beliefs, and behaviors; and relativizing one's self. Linguistic competence plays a key role" (as cited in Deardorff, 2006, p. 247). By contrast, among intercultural scholars, she found that the top-rated definition was that of Deardorff (2004) who defined ICC as "the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (p. 184). The latter is the definition adopted in the present study

This research will primarily explore the "knowledge and attitudes" components in Deardorff's definition of ICC that correspond roughly to the "knowledge of others, knowledge of self" and "valuing others' values, beliefs, and behaviors" in Byram's definition of ICC. Based on the definition of ICC, Fantini (2009) claimed that ICC has two dimensions of effectiveness and appropriateness. He argued that "whereas effective reflects the view of one's own performance in the target language-culture (an outsider's or 'etic' view), appropriate reflects how natives perceive such performance (i.e., an insider's or 'emic' view)" (p. 458). This issue was also raised

by Pusch (1994) who noted that the focus of ICC research has centered on the individual, "with little attention to the dynamics of the situation they find themselves in" (p. 205).

What Constitutes ICC?

As Deardorff (2004, p. 33) stated, "there is no clear consensus among intercultural scholars as to what specifically constitutes intercultural competence." This challenge was stressed by Van de Vijver and Leung (2009). Scholars have included many items under the generally agreed-upon three dimensions: knowledge, skills, and attitudes. Although they vary in their items, recurring components of ICC can be found in the literature.

Byram (1997) pointed to the significance of attitudes of openness and curiosity, and suspension of judgment of others' cultures. He argued that those attitudes are a "pre-condition for successful intercultural interaction" (p. 34). Other components in Byram's model covered many items in Deardorff's model and the items in the survey used in the present study. Those items include the following: attitudes of relativizing the self and valuing the other, skills to interpret and relate, skills to discover and interact, and knowledge of the self and the other. Some elements, such as empathy and adaptability, have been recurring in the literature as core items of ICC (e.g., Bennett, 1993; Kim, 1992; Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984, as cited in Deardorff 2004, p. 37).

The basic tenet of ethnorelativism according to Bennett (1993) is that "cultures can only be understood relative to one another and that particular behavior can only be understood within a cultural context" and that empathy is central to ethnorelativism (p. 46). Bennett (1993) defined empathy as "the ability to experience some aspect of reality differently from what is given by

one's own culture" (p. 53) and noted that "it demands a shift in frame of reference; it is based on an assumption of difference" (p. 53). Kohl (2001) listed 16 skills necessary for US Americans to survive abroad: "tolerance for ambiguity, low goal/task orientation, open-mindedness, nonjudgmentalness, empathy, communicativeness, flexibility; adaptability, curiosity, sense of humor, warmth in human relationships, motivation, self-reliance, strong sense of self, tolerance for differences, perceptiveness, and ability to fail" (p. 110).

Olebe and Koester (1989) provided a list of "eight components of intercultural competence. These include display of respect, orientation to knowledge, empathy, interaction management, task role behavior, relational role behavior, tolerance for ambiguity, and interaction posture" (cited in Lustig & Koester, 1999, p. 72). Fantini (2009) stated that "the attributes most commonly cited in the literature (and substantiated by the research) are flexibility, humor, patience, openness, interest, curiosity, empathy, tolerance for ambiguity, and suspending judgments" (p. 459).

Peterson (2004) suggested a list of 22 traits that can lead to cultural intelligence/ICC: "open-mindedness, flexibility with attitudes and behavior, ability to adapt your behavior, appreciation of differences, comfort with uncertainty, ability to trust when dealing with the unfamiliar, win-win attitude, humility, extroversion, creativity, tactfulness, willingness to have your own views challenged, ability to make independent decisions when you are far from your usual resources, being invigorated by differences, ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points, patience when you are not in control, ability to deal with the stress of new situations, sensitivity to nuances of differences, respect for others, willingness to change

yourself as you learn and grow (versus changing others to fit you), empathy, sense of humor" (p. 96).

In her extensive review of the literature on ICC, Deardorff (2004) stated that the complexity of the concept has led to the fact that "there is a significant challenge in experts forming consensus on what specifically constitutes intercultural competence." (p. 51). However, in her study of 2004, she successfully managed to get scholars form the first consensus on definitions, components, and approaches to assessment. As for the components of ICC, only elements that received agreement percentages between 80% and 100% were considered agreed upon, which were 22 components. One element only "received 100% agreement from the intercultural experts which was 'the understanding of others' world views" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 185–186). She represented her model visually, as shown in Figure 2.

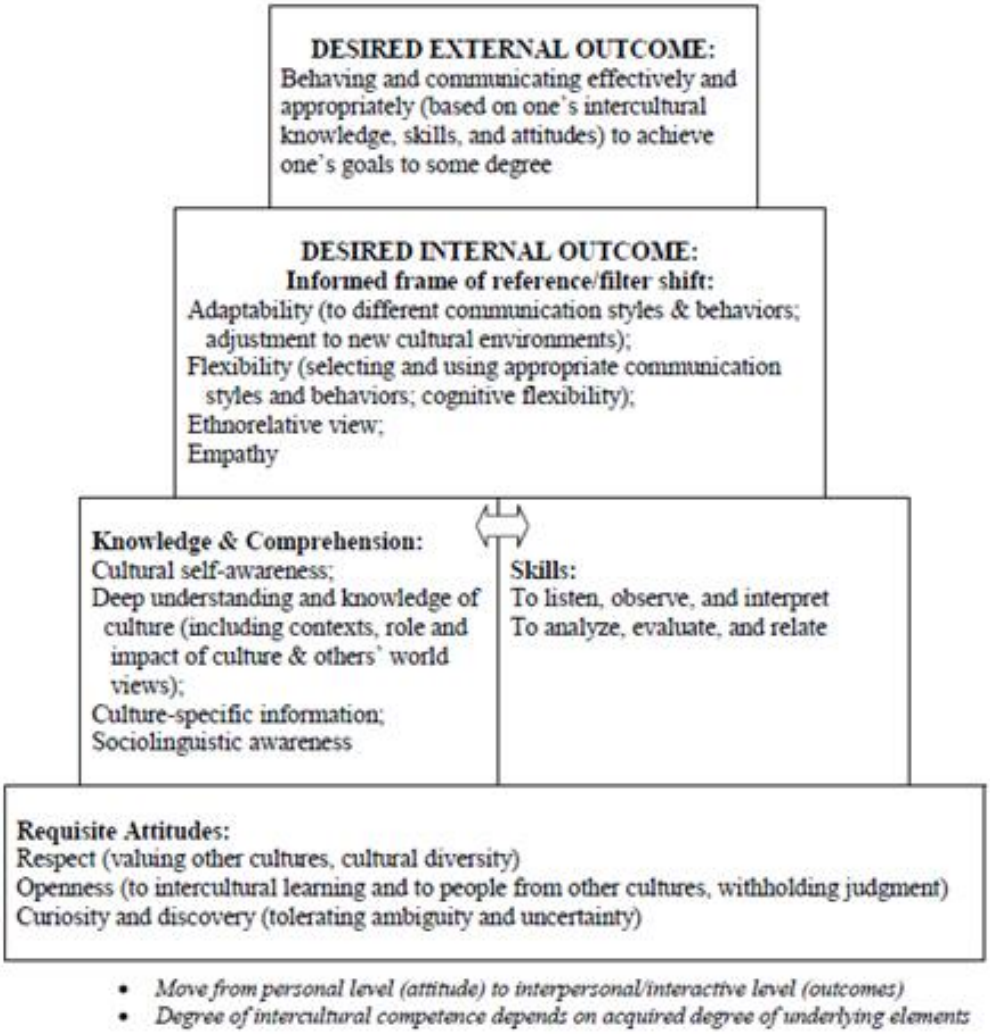

Figure 2. Deardorff's (2004) model of intercultural competence (adopted from Deardorff, 2004, p. 196)

Deardorff (2004, p. 193) stated that

> this model of intercultural competence allows for degrees of competence (the more components acquired/developed increases probability of greater degree of intercultural competence as an external outcome), and while it provides some

delineation of the definition, it is not limited to those components included in the model.

Deardorff (2014) noted that although research showed that ICC can be assessed, the assessment tools that are used are "predominantly self-report instruments, which means only 'half of the picture' is measured," because these tools assess only the effectiveness of communication and behavior. Deardorff (2014) called for including the others' perceptions to complete the picture, that is, the "appropriateness of communication and behavior, which according to research studies, can only be measured through others' perspectives, beyond self-report." To address this call for the others' perspective, this study included teacher perspectives and perceptions of SA students in addition to SA students' own perspectives reflected in self-reports.

Positive Effects of SA on ICC

Research showed that SA can have a positive effect on ICC development. Significant increases in students' ICC were found by Vande Berg et al. (2009), Williams (2005), Langley and Breese (2005), and Dwyer (2004). However, these studies argued that exposure to different cultures was necessary but insufficient to predict ICC development. These studies also stressed the responsibility of administrators of SA programs to prepare the program participants so that students can make the most of their SA experiences. Others (Dwyer, 2004; Ecke, 2012) raised the question whether it is SA experience that promotes ICC development or the traits that are already developed in SA students.

Badstübner and Ecke (2009) compared SA students' expectations for learning gains at the program beginning with reported learning gains at the program end and reported that students' perceived progress at the end of SA was significantly lower for all skill areas than students' expectations at the beginning of the program with one exception. They found that only cultural understanding improvement did not fall short of what students expected for gains (p. 47). Ecke (2012) reported that short-term SA experience only had a very moderate if any effect on participants' cultural intelligence. Attributes such as "ability to trust when dealing with the unfamiliar," "ability to make independent decisions far from home," "extroversion," and "sensitivity to nuances of differences" were found to have increased slightly though not significantly. The only significant increase that Ecke found was in "comfort with uncertainty," which suggests at least some positive effect on the participants' personalities and adjustment in the new environment. Ecke suggested that most of the other traits are unlikely to change during short-term SA because they are relatively stable personality traits and because students who decide to study abroad will already display relatively high levels of such traits and ICC compared with students who never go abroad.

Other studies found that certain attitudes were strengthened by SA experiences. Willingness to learn a culture other than the host culture, reaching out to friends from diverse backgrounds (Dwyer, 2004; Langley & Breese, 2005), and showing interest in learning multiple dialects (Shiri, 2013; Langley & Breese, 2005) were linked to students' shift of worldviews because of successful SA experiences.

Other studies attributed the positive effect of SA on ICC to the pedagogical approaches during SA, such as task-based activities to raise the awareness and mindfulness of students of the

dynamics of the host culture. Activities that used blogging and ethnographic interviews were found to foster the development of ICC (Lee, 2012), decrease anxiety, promote willingness to interact with natives, develop deep understanding of the target culture, and raise cultural self-awareness (Cadd, 2012).

Negative Effects of SA on ICC

SA does not automatically lead to increases in ICC. Coleman (1998) found that long-term stays abroad "tend to increase the ethnocentricity of some (British) students of French" (p. 53). Similarly, British students returning from Germany marked L2landers down on positive characteristics (patient, helpful, friendly, etc.) and marked them up on negative traits (arrogant, impatient, etc.), reflecting a strengthening of national stereotypes. The trend he found was that "all changes in students' perception of their compatriots seem to have their origin in a changed perception of foreigners" (Coleman, 1998a, p. 55).

An interesting finding in Coleman's (1998, p. 59) study is that work placements may yield more favorable judgments, whereas a studentship may be linked to less favorable judgments. Furthermore, Lewis and Stickler (2000) found that some students even feel that the year abroad is a "lost year" because they lose contact with their home school and their fellow students (cited in Byram & Feng, 2004, p. 156). Vande Berg et al. (2009, pp. 24–25) found that "34.8 % of female SAPs showed statistically insignificant intercultural gains or an actual decline between the pre- and post- Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) tests" and claimed that different factors could lead to this, but the design of the program and the nature of the experience could have an effect.

The time factor has been correlated with the development of ICC or lack thereof. Bennett (1993, p. 55) indicated that individuals might need at least two years to develop basic levels of adaptation to the host culture, although he pointed out that this depends on the quality of the experience. Leong and Ward (2000) stated that individuals who stay in the target culture for longer periods will be more likely to have opportunities to deal with different issues in this culture (as cited in Medina-Lopez-Portillo, 2004, p. 179). In Medina-Lopez-Portillo (2004), the factor of time is underscored as a predictor of cultural gains.

However, as rightly argued by Kinginger (2009), a SA experience is not the panacea for all the problems of SA learners. Moreover, as Wilkinson (1998) pointed out, "increased non-classroom interaction in the target language and miraculous linguistic gains are not inevitable in the study-abroad setting" (p. 33), maintaining that cultural understanding will not be attained if learners depend only on one frame of reference, which is that of their home culture.

Jackson (2011, pp. 181–182) drew attention to the reality that when self-reporting about their ICC, students may tend to overestimate their levels significantly, referring to Medina's (2008) study of American SA students in Mexico and her own investigations of Hong Kong SA students in England (Jackson, 2010). Jackson (2011) found that some of her students "perceived their intercultural competence to be several IDI band levels above their actual developmental level" (p. 181). She argued that the fact that they were overestimating their self-perceived competence may have been the reason why students' intercultural communication skills reached a plateau "especially during the pre-sojourn phase when they had limited contact across cultures" (Jackson, 2011, pp. 181–182).

Summary of Research

This review of the literature showed that international students' experiences abroad cannot be generalized (Midgley, 2009) and that their different experiences should be the focus of further studies (Midgley, 2009; Alqahtani, 2011). The review also underscored the complexity of the phenomenon of ICC with the majority of studies claiming positive effects of SA on ICC and some others claiming neutral or negative effects, with yet more recent studies arguing that being in the target community is necessary but insufficient for ICC development. Considering that students who study abroad tend to overestimate their levels of ICC (Jackson, 2010; Medina, 2008), and because part of the picture of ICC requires assessment by others (Deardorff, 2014; Fantini, 2009; Pusch, 1994), teachers' perceptions were sought in the present study in response to previous research calls to fill in this gap. Based on the idea that Deardorff's (2004) model (Figure 2) is the first model that has reached consensus on ICC definitions and components and that considerable overlap exists between Peterson's and Deardorff's ICC attributes, Deardorff's model was adopted in the present study of ICC to answer the research questions stated in the next section.

Research Questions

This study investigates one main research question and three related sub-questions. These questions are related to SA students' personality traits that have been suggested to facilitate the development of ICC. One dimension explores students' self-perception with respect to these

traits, and the other explores others' (teachers') perceptions of SA students with respect to these traits.

1. Does students' ICC develop in SA contexts?

   a. How do students rate themselves with respect to personal attributes suggested to facilitate ICC (cultural intelligence) development at the beginning of the program and after four months? Do the self-ratings of personal attributes change over time?

   b. How do teachers rate students with respect to personal attributes suggested to facilitate ICC development (at the end of the four-month stay)?

   c. Do students' and teachers' perceptions about students' ICC-related personal attributes differ at the end of the four-month stay?

Methodology

This longitudinal study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to gain more insight into Saudi students' ICC development during their first four months of study at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) in Tucson, Arizona. Below is a detailed description of the participants, instruments, and procedures.

Participants

The participants in this study were 27 Saudi learners studying at CESL and composed of 5 females (19%) and 22 males (81%). The participants were quite heterogeneous with respect to their English language proficiency. Table 1 provides information about the participants' self-

rated proficiency in English as a second language. Upon their arrival, the students also took a placement test administered by CESL and were placed as follows: 18 students (67%) were placed at the beginning levels (10–30), 8 (30%) were placed at the intermediate levels (40–50), and only one (3%) was placed at the advanced level (60). After four months of study, 10 students (37%) were at the beginning levels (10–30), 13 (48%) were at the intermediate levels (40–50), and 4 (15%) were at the advanced levels (60–70). Among those students, the majority (22 students) moved up one level, 4 students moved up two levels, and only one student remained in the same level.

As for their levels of education, 14 students (52%) were expected to enroll in undergraduate studies, whereas 13 students (48%) would complete their graduate studies after fulfilling the language requirements necessary for admission.

Regarding their experience with SA before joining CESL, the majority of the participants (81%) had no SA experience, whereas 18% of them had relatively short SA experiences.

As for students' L2 proficiency self-rating, Table 1 below summarizes the students' L2 proficiency self-rating level.

Table 1. Participants' self-rated proficiency in English as a second language

		Scores						Totals
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Pre	Count	2	4	5	11	5	0	27
	% of Total	7%	15%	19%	41%	19%	0%	100%
Post	Count	0	2	0	11	12	2	27
	% of Total	0%	7%	0%	41%	44%	7%	100%

Note. Scale ranges from 1 to 6: 1 = lower beginner, 2 = upper beginner, 3 = lower intermediate, 4 = upper intermediate, 5 = lower advanced, 6 = upper advanced.

Data Collection

Surveys

Pre-program surveys. These surveys were administered (see Appendices) to the participants at the beginning of the SA program session. The surveys were adapted from the instruments used by Ecke (2012) that are based on Peterson (2004). Some items have been modified to match the objective and nature of the current study. The instruments were translated into Arabic by the researcher, and the translation was double-checked by a fellow PhD candidate who is a native speaker and a teacher of Arabic. The first round of surveys was also used as a pilot. The surveys are divided into sections:

a. Demographic and background information (Appendix A).

b. Cultural intelligence (ICC) (Appendix B). This part aims to answer Research Questions 1 and 2. This tool is originally based on the list of ICC-fostering attributes by Peterson (2004), but a one to six-point Likert scale was added as in Ecke (2012). This self-rating survey consists of 22 personality traits that are potentially considered relevant to ICC. The participants rated themselves on a scale from 1 to 6: 1 = does not apply to me at all, 2 = does not apply to me most of the time, 3 = does not apply to me sometimes, 4 = applies to me sometimes, 5 = applies to me most of the time, 6 = applies to me very much.

Post-surveys. These surveys were administered to the participants four months after the pre-surveys had been administered. They are the same surveys as the pre-surveys.

Survey for teachers about specific students (Appendix B). The ESL teachers at CESL were asked to evaluate a subgroup of study participants' ICC using two methods. In the first one,

seven teachers were asked to fill out the same survey that the students answered so the students' self-ratings could be compared with the teachers' ratings of the student. The survey was provided to the teachers at the end of the fourth month of the participants' study, and the teachers' responses to the survey were compared with the students' responses to the post-survey.

Semi-structured interviews with teachers

The second method was interviewing five teachers among those who took the survey, as explained in the procedure below, and each of the five teachers was asked about one specific student. The purpose of the interviews was to investigate the insider's view of ICC development.

Procedure

After receiving the IRB approval, each group of participants was contacted for the first time at the CESL Orientation for new students. The researcher introduced himself and explained the purpose of the study and then distributed the pre-surveys, along with the consent forms, to those who agreed to participate. The participants took them home and brought them to the researcher or to one administrative staff at CESL who generously agreed to collect some surveys for the researcher. After four months, e-mails were sent to the participants asking them to participate in the post-surveys.

As for the interviews, an e-mail was sent to all the teachers who teach the student participants under study. Five teachers, among those who took the survey, agreed to participate and were interviewed for approximately 20 to 25 minutes each to learn about their perceptions of

specific students' ICC, one student for each teacher. The interviews were conducted in the same week in which the teachers answered the surveys.

Before the interview, Deardorff's ICC model (Figure 1) was sent out to teachers as a framework to assess students' ICC. The model was expected to help create a clear shared understanding of ICC. At the beginning of the interview, the model was also briefly presented. The teachers were asked to refer to the main components of ICC: knowledge, skills, and attitudes with their sub-components, and the desired internal and external outcomes to assess students' possession of those components. During the interview, the teachers had copies of the visual model (Figure 2) in hand so that they could refer to it throughout the interview.

The background characteristics of the teachers are displayed in Table 2. The teachers were between 30 and 57 years old and had a minimum of 1.5 years and a maximum of 20 years teaching experience. All had taught Saudi students before. Five of the teachers were female and two were male.

Table 2. Background information of ESL teachers who assessed selected student participants

	Gender	Background information (in years)					Degree
		Age	Teaching experience	ESL teaching experience	Teaching experience abroad	Experience teaching Saudis	
T1	M	57	20	20	5	9	MA
T2	F	35	13	6	0	3	MA
T3	F	32	10	8	3	4	MA
T4	M	30	2.5	1.5	0	1	MA
T5	F	41	2	2	0	2	MA
T6	F	46	20	20	0	5	MA
T7	F	36	10	6	3.5	5	MA

Data Analysis

The data from the pre- and post-surveys were collected, coded, and analyzed. A comparison between pre- and post-survey assessments was conducted to check for changes in the perception of personality traits potentially related to ICC. To determine whether a statistically significant difference existed between the pre- and the post-survey responses and between teachers' and students' responses, analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted for categorical data using the R language (Kabacoff, 2011; Zumel & Mount, 2013; Tamimi, 2014). Tamimi (2013, p. 64) stated that "when conducting ANOVA for non-categorical data it is usually helpful to include an arithmetic mean and standard deviation for the observed measurements to reflect the calculated *p*-value. For categorical data, the observations are non-numerical data and a *p*-value is calculated based on responses. To give a representation similar to the arithmetic mean and the standard deviation a Mosaic Plot can be used."

A mosaic plot shows proportional areas for pre- and post-survey responses to question being 1 through 6, as will be shown in the results section. The horizontal length of the "Survey Type" being pre or post shows the size of the surveyed subject that responded 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 relative to each other. The *p*-value is calculated based on the Pearson chi-square test. Pearson residuals are used to calculate the *p*-value by the R language.

Results

Intercultural Competence: Students' Self-Assessments in Pre- and Post-Program Surveys

The students were surveyed on ICC-related attributes upon their arrival at CESL. After four months, they were surveyed again to test the null hypothesis that students' cultural intelligence did not change during the four months against the research or alternative hypothesis that the cultural intelligence of students actually changed.

The students gave themselves high ratings in all the traits but one, namely, "comfort with uncertainty," which not only ran counter this general pattern but developed only slightly, as will be discussed later. However, no significant differences were found, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. ICC-related attributes' ratings by students in pre- and post-program surveys

Item	Participants	Responses (%)						Total	*p*-value
		1	2	3	4	5	6		
1. Open-mindedness	pre	0.0	3.7	3.7	18.5	51.9	22.2	100	0.46
	post	0.0	0.0	0.0	33.3	40.7	25.9	100	
2. Flexibility with attitudes and behavior	pre	0.0	0.0	7.4	25.9	29.6	37.0	100	0.67
	post	0.0	0.0	7.4	29.6	40.7	22.2	100	
3. Ability to adapt your behavior	pre	0.0	3.7	3.7	18.5	29.6	44.4	100	0.21
	post	0.0	0.0	3.7	33.3	44.4	18.5	100	
4. Appreciation of differences	pre	0.0	0.0	0.0	25.9	33.3	40.7	100	0.62
	post	0.0	0.0	3.7	25.9	22.2	48.1	100	
5. Comfort with uncertainty	pre	7.4	14.8	33.3	11.1	14.8	18.5	100	0.71
	post	7.4	11.1	25.9	29.6	11.1	14.8	100	
6. Ability to trust when dealing with the unfamiliar	pre	0.0	7.4	11.1	33.3	22.2	25.9	100	0.16
	post	0.0	7.4	11.1	33.3	44.4	3.7	100	

7. Win-win attitude	pre	0.0	7.4	3.7	7.4	14.8	66.7	100	0.10
	post	0.0	0.0	3.7	14.8	40.7	40.7	100	
8. Humility	pre	0.0	3.7	0.0	7.4	29.6	59.3	100	0.78
	post	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.4	33.3	59.3	100	
9. Extroversion	pre	0.0	7.4	11.1	18.5	14.8	48.1	100	0.26
	post	0.0	7.4	7.4	18.5	40.7	25.9	100	
10. Creativity	pre	0.0	0.0	18.5	40.7	22.2	18.5	100	0.76
	post	0.0	3.7	18.5	37.0	29.6	11.1	100	
11. Tactfulness	pre	0.0	3.7	3.7	18.5	25.9	48.1	100	0.14
	post	0.0	3.7	7.4	14.8	55.6	18.5	100	
12. Willingness to have your own views challenged	pre	0.0	0.0	7.4	33.3	37.0	22.2	100	0.84
	post	0.0	0.0	14.8	33.3	33.3	18.5	100	
13. Ability to make independent decisions when far from usual resources	pre	0.0	0.0	7.4	33.3	40.7	18.5	100	0.96
	post	0.0	0.0	11.1	29.6	40.7	18.5	100	
14. Being invigorated by differences	pre	0.0	0.0	18.5	25.9	37.0	18.5	100	0.67
	post	3.7	3.7	11.1	25.9	44.4	11.1	100	
15. Ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points	pre	7.4	3.7	18.5	18.5	40.7	11.1	100	0.34
	post	0.0	11.1	11.1	37.0	29.6	11.1	100	
16. Patience when you are not in control	pre	3.7	7.4	3.7	48.1	14.8	22.2	100	0.15
	post	0.0	11.1	14.8	40.7	29.6	3.7	100	
17. Ability to deal with the stress of new situations	pre	0.0	3.7	14.8	25.9	44.4	11.1	100	0.41
	post	0.0	11.1	25.9	18.5	25.9	18.5	100	
18. Sensitivity to nuances of differences	pre	0.0	0.0	18.5	33.3	37.0	11.1	100	0.93
	post	0.0	0.0	18.5	40.7	29.6	11.1	100	
19.Respect for others	pre	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	11.1	85.2	100	0.75
	post	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.4	14.8	77.8	100	
20. Willingness to change yourself as you learn and grow	pre	0.0	0.0	11.1	7.4	48.1	33.3	100	0.155
	post	0.0	0.0	3.7	29.6	44.4	22.2	100	
21. Empathy	pre	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	44.4	51.9	100	0.698
	post	0.0	0.0	0.0	3.7	33.3	63.0	100	
22. Sense of humor	pre	0.0	3.7	14.8	37.0	33.3	11.1	100	0.828
	post	0.0	3.7	22.2	25.9	29.6	18.5	100	

Note. Rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (does not apply at all) to 6 (applies very much); $n = 27$ students.

The results for two traits, namely, "open-mindedness" and "comfort with uncertainty," are presented in detail in this section. The former is representative of all the other traits. The latter, though, is presented because, as mentioned above, it differs from the general trend of over-estimation of one's own competence and continued to do so in the post-survey.

Trait 1: Open-mindedness. In Question 1, the participants were asked to rate themselves on how much of "open-mindedness" does or does not apply to them upon arrival and four months after arrival. Table 4 shows the scoring and responses of the students. Figure 3 shows those results as a bar graph.

There is some change that may suggest limited increases in open-mindedness in a few participants only. For example, there are no low scores of 2 and 3 in the posttest and more scores of 4 compared to the pretest. At the same time, there are fewer scores of 5 in the posttest compared to the pretest.

Table 4. Students' self-ratings with respect to "open-mindedness" in pre- and post-program surveys

	Self-rating			
Score	Pre		Post	
	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	1	3.7	0	0.0
3	1	3.7	0	0.0
4	5	18.5	9	33.3
5	14	51.9	11	40.7
6	6	22.2	7	25.9
Totals	27	100.0	27	100.0

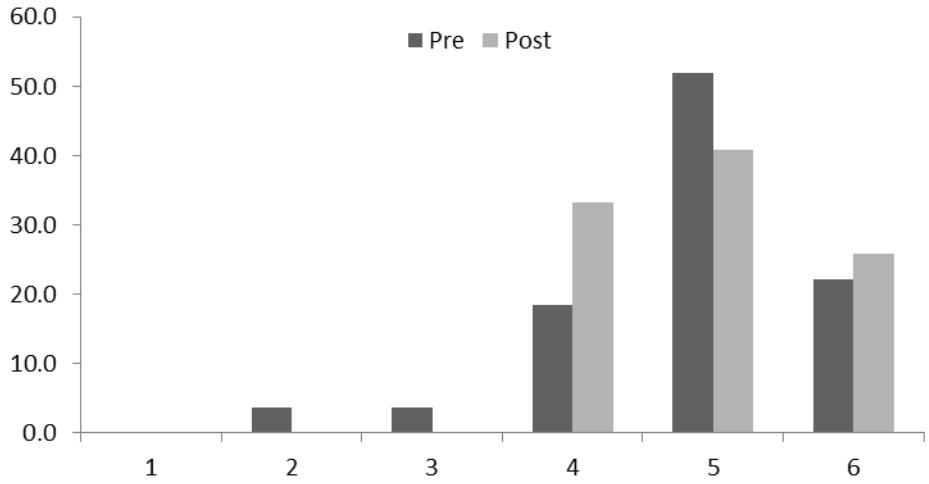

Figure 3. Students' self-ratings with respect to "open-mindedness" in pre- and post-program surveys

An ANOVA for categorical data, as described in the methodology section above, showed no significant differences between the students' pre- and post-test responses (p = .465). Figure 4 shows a mosaic plot for Question 1 that was generated using the R language.

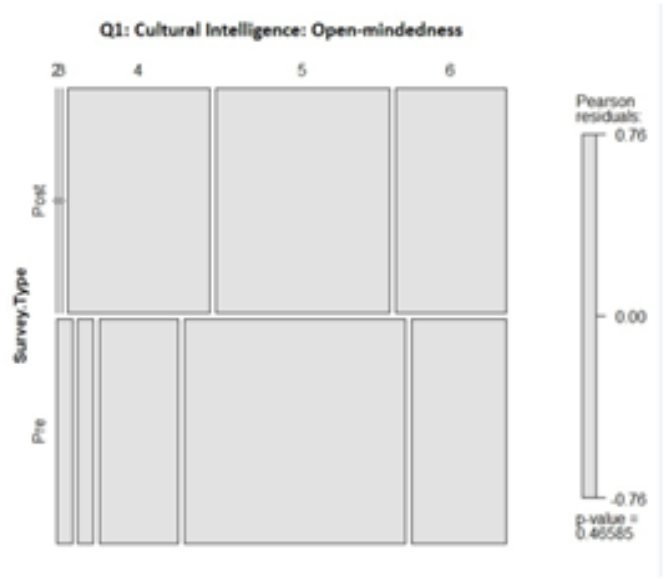

Figure 4. P-value for open-mindedness

Trait 5: Comfort with uncertainty. This trait stood out of the overall perception held by students in which scores 4, 5, and 6 were higher in all traits in the pre-test. Over 50% of the scores for "comfort with uncertainty," however, were 1, 2, and 3.

Table 5 shows the responses of the students for the question regarding "comfort with uncertainty." No significant difference was found between the students' pre- and post-tests responses (p = .71). However, in the pre-survey, 55.5% percent of the participants ranked themselves lower (scores 1, 2, 3) in being comfortable with uncertainty compared with 44.4% of them in the post-survey. Table 5 shows that the responses for score 4 (applies to me sometimes) are more than doubled from 11.1% in the pre- to 29.6% in the post-survey compared with the small percentage changes that occurred to the other scores. This may suggest that some participants experienced some increase in "open-mindedness". However, for the group as a whole these changes were not significant.

Table 5. Students' self-ratings with respect to "comfort with uncertainty" in pre- and post-program surveys

Self-ratings				
Score	Pre		Post	
	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	2	7.4	2	7.4
2	4	14.8	3	11.1
3	9	33.3	7	25.9
4	3	11.1	8	29.6
5	4	14.8	3	11.1
6	5	18.5	4	14.8
Totals	27	100	27	100.0

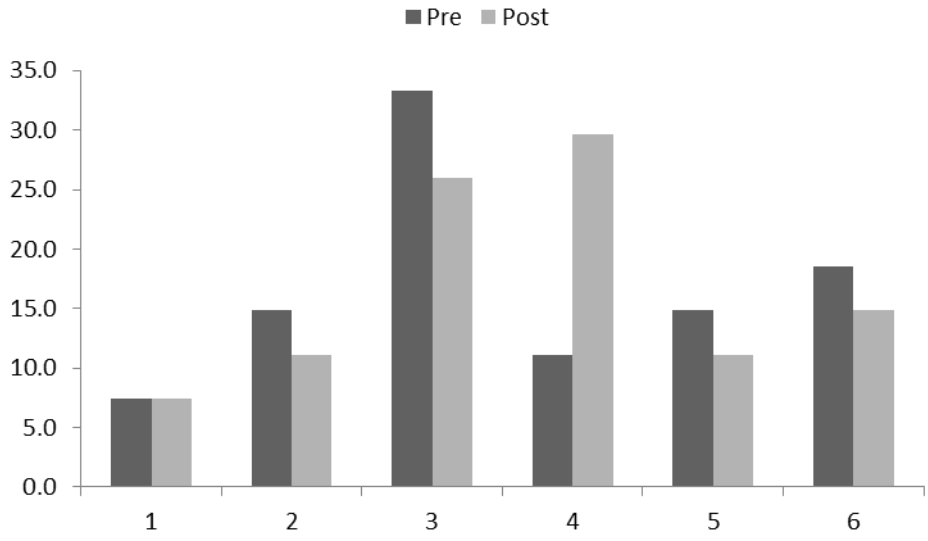

Figure 5. Students' self-ratings with respect to "comfort with uncertainty" in pre- and post-program surveys

Intercultural Competence: Responses of Students and Teachers

In addition to students' self-perceptions of their ICC development, teachers' perceptions of students' ICC were also surveyed four months after their arrival at CESL. Students and teachers were surveyed in response to a call by Deardorff (2014) to add the dimension of the emic view. Thus, two groups of seven students and seven teachers were surveyed this time to test the null hypothesis that students' perceptions of their cultural intelligence attributes did not differ from teachers' perception of them against the research or alternative hypothesis that the cultural intelligence attributes of students actually differed from that of teachers' perceptions. The statistics and the *p*-values for each of the traits will be presented in this study.

The results showed two significant and one nearly significant differences between teachers' and students' responses to the traits of tactfulness (trait 11), patience when not in control (trait 16), and empathy (trait 21), respectively as shown in Table 6 below. Comparisons of the other rated traits did not reveal significant differences.

Table 6. ICC-related attributes' ratings by students and teachers after four months in the study abroad program

Item	Participants	Responses (%)						Total	*p*-value
		1	2	3	4	5	6		
1. Open-mindedness	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.6	57.1	14.3	100	0.50
	teachers	0.0	14.3	14.3	14.3	28.6	28.6	100	
2. Flexibility with attitudes and behavior	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.6	28.6	42.9	100	0.63
	teachers	0.0	14.3	14.3	14.3	28.6	28.6	100	
3. Ability to adapt your behavior	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	42.9	42.9	100	0.24
	teachers	0.0	0.0	42.9	14.3	14.3	28.6	100	
4. Appreciation of differences	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	42.9	14.3	42.9	100	0.18
	teachers	0.0	20.0	20.0	0.0	40.0	20.0	100	
5. Comfort with uncertainty	students	0.0	14.3	14.3	42.9	14.3	14.3	100	0.31
	teachers	0.0	0.0	16.7	16.7	66.7	0.0	100	
6. Ability to trust when dealing with the unfamiliar	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	42.9	57.1	0.0	100	0.37
	teachers	0.0	16.7	0.0	16.7	50.0	16.7	100	
7. Win-win attitude	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.6	14.3	57.1	100	0.35
	teachers	0.0	16.7	16.7	16.7	33.3	16.7	100	
8. Humility	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	28.6	57.1	100	1.0
	teachers	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	28.6	57.1	100	
9. Extroversion	students	0.0	0.0	14.3	28.6	28.6	28.6	100	0.85
	teachers	14.3	0.0	14.3	28.6	28.6	14.3	100	
10. Creativity	students	0.0	0.0	14.3	57.1	0.0	28.6	100	0.13
	teachers	0.0	16.7	0.0	16.7	50.0	16.7	100	
11. Tactfulness*	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	71.4	14.3	100	0.03*
	teachers	0.0	14.3	0.0	14.3	0.0	71.4	100	
12. Willingness to have your own views challenged	students	0.0	0.0	14.3	28.6	42.9	14.3	100	0.48
	teachers	0.0	16.7	16.7	0.0	33.3	33.3	100	
13. Ability to make independent decisions when far from usual resources	students	0.0	0.0	28.6	14.3	57.1	0.0	100	0.59
	teachers	0.0	0.0	20.0	40.0	40.0	0.0	100	
14. Being invigorated by differences	students	0.0	14.3	14.3	28.6	42.9	0.0	100	0.82
	teachers	0.0	20.0	0.0	40.0	40.0	0.0	100	
15. Ability to see a familiar	students	0.0	14.3	14.3	14.3	42.9	14.3	100	0.36

situation from unfamiliar vantage points	teachers	0.0	0.0	33.3	0.0	16.7	50.0	100	
16. Patience when you are not in control*	students	0.0	14.3	0.0	71.4	14.3	0.0	100	0.01*
	teachers	0.0	14.3	0.0	0.0	14.3	71.4	100	
17. Ability to deal with the stress of new situations	students	0.0	14.3	28.6	14.3	28.6	14.3	100	0.686
	teachers	0.0	16.7	0.0	16.7	33.3	33.3	100	
18. Sensitivity to nuances of differences	students	0.0	0.0	14.3	14.3	57.1	14.3	100	0.56
	teachers	0.0	16.7	0.0	33.3	33.3	16.7	100	
19. Respect for others	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	14.3	71.4	100	1.0
	teachers	0.0	0.0	0.0	14.3	14.3	71.4	100	
20. Willingness to change yourself as you learn and grow	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	28.6	57.1	14.3	100	0.65
	teachers	0.0	16.7	0.0	33.3	33.3	16.7	100	
21. Empathy	students	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	57.1	42.9	100	0.06
	teachers	0.0	0.0	40.0	20.0	0.0	40.0	100	
22. Sense of humor	students	0.0	14.3	28.6	28.6	0.0	28.6	100	0.17
	teachers	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.7	50.0	33.3	100	

Note. Rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (does not apply to at all) to 6 (applies very much); $n = 7$ students; $n = 7$ teachers.
*$p < .05$

This section presents in detail the results for three traits: two of them showed statistically significant differences between teacher and student ratings (tactfulness and patience when not in control), and one showed nearly statistically significant difference (empathy).

Trait 11: Tactfulness. Table 7 shows the responses of the students and teachers for the question regarding "tactfulness." An ANOVA for categorical data revealed a significant difference between the students' and teachers' responses ($p = .03$), as shown in Figure 7. Table 7 shows that 71.4% of the teachers marked students very high (score 6), whereas the students marked themselves lower (score 5).

Table 7. Students' and teachers' ratings of students' "tactfulness"

Ratings				
Score	Student		Teacher	
	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	0	0.0	1	14.3
3	0	0.0	0	0.0
4	1	14.3	1	14.3
5	5	71.4	0	0.0
6	1	14.3	5	71.4
Totals	7	100	7	100.0

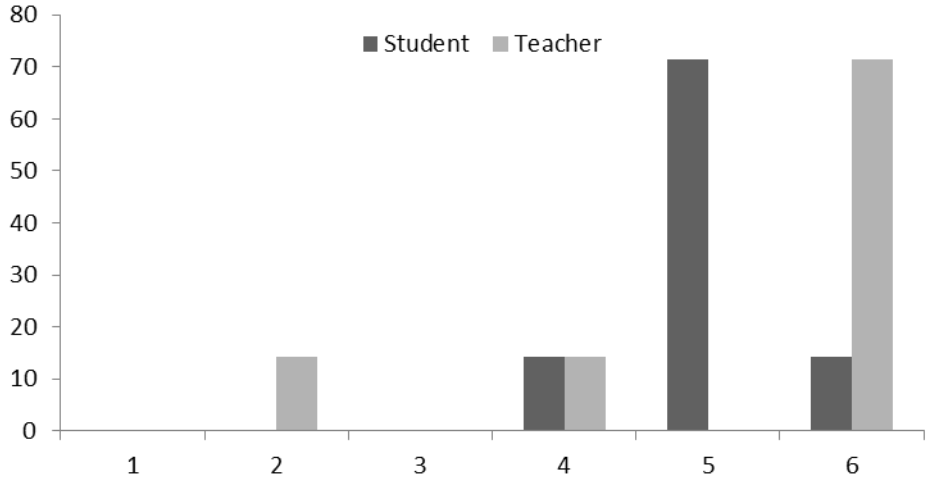

Figure 6. Students' and teachers' ratings of students' "tactfulness"

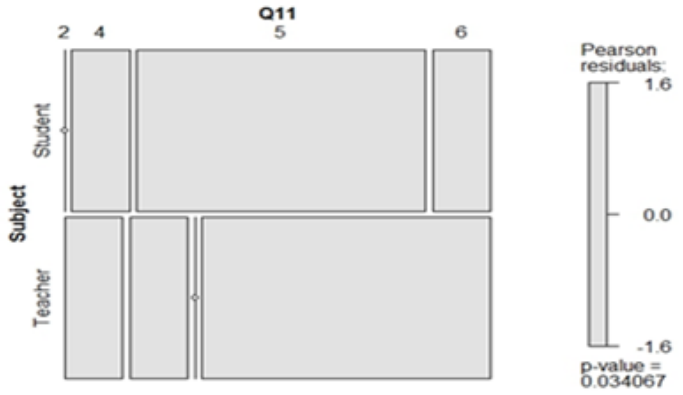

Figure 7. P-value for "tactfulness"

Trait 16: Patience when not in control. Table 8 shows the responses of the students and teachers for the question regarding "patience when you are not in control." An ANOVA for categorical data showed significant differences between the students' and teachers' responses (p = .018), as shown in Figure 9. This result is probably caused by the fact that 74% of the students selected score 4, whereas 0% of the teachers selected score 4; and 0% of the students selected score 6 versus 74% of the teachers.

Table 8. Students' and teachers' ratings of students' "patience when not in control"

Ratings				
Score	Student		Teacher	
	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	1	14.3	1	14.3
3	0	0.0	0	0.0
4	5	71.4	0	0.0
5	1	14.3	1	14.3
6	0	0.0	5	71.4
Totals	7	100	7	100.0

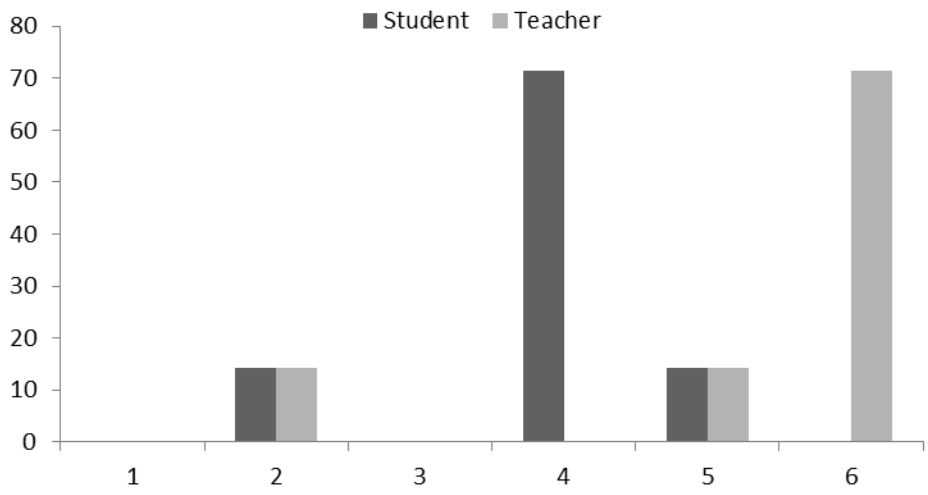

Figure 8. Students' and teachers' ratings of students' "patience when not in control"

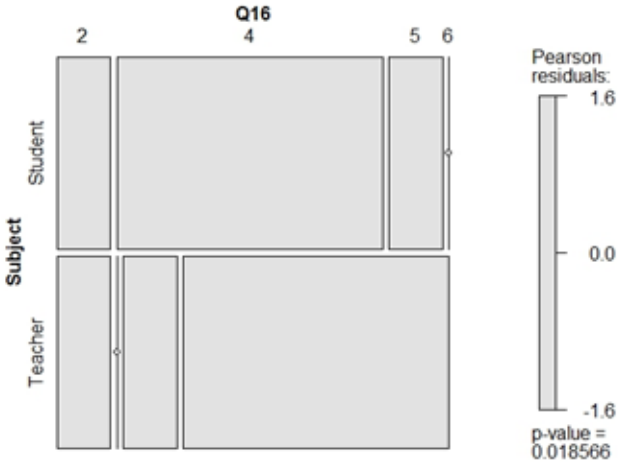

Figure 9. P-value for "patience when you are not in control"

Trait 21: Empathy. Table 9 shows the responses of the students and teachers for the question regarding "empathy." An ANOVA for categorical data showed a difference between the students' and teachers' responses that was approaching significance (p = .06). Eighty percent of the teachers were equally divided between varying scores 3 and 6. This result could be caused by

the fact that each teacher was asked about one specific student and that two teachers chose not to answer based on lack of context to assess students' empathy.

Table 9. Students' and teachers' ratings of students' "empathy"

Score	Ratings			
	Student		Teacher	
	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	0	0.0	0	0.0
3	0	0.0	2	40.0
4	0	0.0	1	20.0
5	4	57.1	0	0.0
6	3	42.9	2	40.0
Totals	7	100	5	100.0

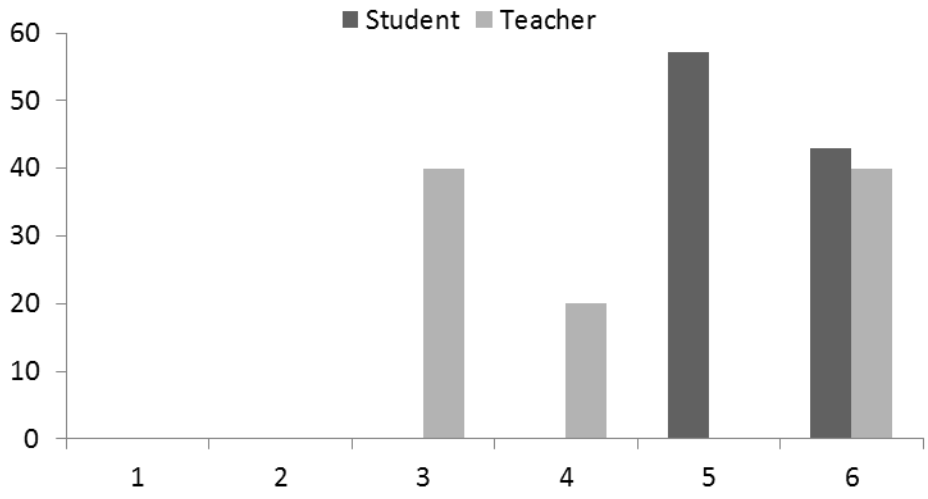

Figure 10. Students' and teachers' ratings of students' "empathy"

The most important findings from the comparison of teachers' and students' perceptions can be summarized as follows: Teachers' and students' perceptions of students coincided

roughly for most ICC attributes. However, they also differed in three cases: The teachers thought that the students were much more "patient when not in control" and more "tactful" than the students themselves did. They also felt that some students were less empathetic than the students perceived. Realizing such differences in perception between students and teachers may be important for pedagogical implications.

Intercultural Competence: Responses of Teachers

This section presents the analysis of the data from five teachers' interviews based on Deardorff's ICC model (Figure 2) to gain more insight into students' ICC from an emic view. Moreover, these specific teachers' responses to the post-survey were also compared with these specific students' responses to the same post-survey.

Five students agreed to have their teachers interviewed about them. They represented different levels. Malik (Student 2) and Rawan (Student 3) were in the beginning levels of 20, Hadi (Student 6) in the intermediate level of 50, and two students in the advanced levels of 60, Waheed (Student 5), and 70, Hala (Student 7). (Note that student names were changed to ensure anonymity.) For easy reference, each teacher was assigned the same number given to the student interviewed about (e.g., T5 interviewed S5).

Tables 10, 11, and 12 below show scores from teachers' and students' responses to the study's quantitative post-survey. Each table represents one level and its components from Deardorff's pyramid model (Figure 2) and the items that match them from the quantitative survey. They are listed here to relate the data from the teachers' interviews to the students' and teachers' scores from the survey. The scores from teachers' and students' surveys were added,

where possible in the analysis, to see how they correspond to interview comments. Based on Deardorff's model, the components are referred to in the analysis below. Wherever an attribute in the survey clearly/nearly represents the components, it was selected to draw a more substantiating comparison between teachers' comments and scores and scores of students in the survey. To interpret the scores of teachers and the corresponding scores of students, similar perceptions/ratings were assumed if scores were identical or varied only by 1 point, and different perceptions were assumed if ratings varied by 2 or more points. The scores and the corresponding comments of teachers on students' degrees of components are presented to reach a better assessment of students on these components under each level of the model.

Level of attitudes. Level of attitudes is composed of three components: "respect," "openness," and "curiosity and discovery," as shown in Table 10. The table below shows the scores of teachers and students that match the components of the requisite attitudes level in Deardorff's pyramid model. The scores and the corresponding comments of teachers are presented to reach a better measurement of these components.

Overall, the teachers believed that the students showed manifestations of the requisite attitudes albeit to varying degrees. The teachers perceived that the students possessed higher degrees of "respect" and "openness," whereas "curiosity and discovery" appeared to apply only to two of the students, as will be discussed below. Moreover, while Table 10 shows more similarities between teachers' and students' responses to the items of both component of "respect" and component of "openness," it shows big differences between teachers' and students' responses to the items of the "curiosity and discovery" component.

Table 10. Responses of teachers and students to survey items matching components of the pyramid model's requisite attitudes level

Component	Respect (Valuing other cultures; cultural diversity)	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings: Students	Lower ratings: Teachers
Survey items	4. Appreciation of differences	6	6	6	5	4	NA	3	5	5	NA	1/3		1
	7. Win-win attitude	6	6	6	4	5	5	4	3	6	NA	3/4	1	2
	8. Humility	6	6	6	4	5	6	5	6	6	6	1/5	1	
	19. Respect for others	6	6	6	5	6	6	6	5	6	6	0/5		
	Note. 17 ratings; 12 similar and 5 different													

Component	Openness (to intercultural learning and to people from other cultures; withholding judgment)	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7	Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings: Students	Lower ratings: Teachers
Survey items	1. Open-mindedness	4	6	4	5	5	5	4	3	5	6	1/5		1
	12. Willingness to have own views challenged	5	5	6	4	4	NA	3	5	6	6	3/4	2	1
	14. Being invigorated by differences	5	2	5	4	4	NA	4	4	5	NA	1/3	1	
	20. Willingness to change yourself as you learn and grow	5	6	5	5	4	4	4	5	6	NA	1/4		1

	Note. 16 ratings; 10 similar and 6 different														
Component	Curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty)	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Differences	Lower ratings: Students	Lower ratings: Teachers
survey items	5. Comfort with uncertainty	3	6	5	4	4		5	4	5	5	NA	2/4	1	1
	6. Ability to trust when dealing with unfamiliar	5	4	5	4	4		5	4	5	5	NA	0/4		
	9. Extroversion	4	5	5	4	3		4	3	1	5	4	2/5		2
	16. Patience when not in control	4	4	4	4	5		6	5	6	6	6	3/5	3	
	17. Ability to deal with the stress of new situations	5	6	3	3	4		5	4	6	6	NA	3/4	2	1
	Note. 22 ratings; 12 similar and 10 different														

Note. Rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (does not apply at all) to 6 (applies very much).

The similarities and differences of the responses, coupled with excerpts from teachers' interviews, are presented below to provide some examples for each component.

Component of respect. This component from the model matches attributes 4 ("appreciation of differences"), 7 ("win-win attitude"), 8 ("humility"), and 19 ("respect for others"), as shown in Table 10. The ratings provided by the teachers and students with regard to the component "respect" are overall similar. Teachers' comments also highly correspond to the overall scores they provided students on the component "respect." They perceived the participants to have been highly respectful.

The majority of teachers' scores and corresponding students' scores (Table 10) seemed to show identical or similar ratings (12 similarities). However, differences were found in only five ratings. Attribute 7 ("win-win attitude") showed the most diverging scores between teachers and students because they showed three differences out of four corresponding scores (one teacher did not respond), followed by attribute 4 ("appreciation of differences") because they showed one difference out of three corresponding scores (two teachers did not respond). In attribute 7 ("win-win attitude"), two teachers ranked students lower, while one student rated himself lower. As for the other subjects, only one teacher rated a student remarkably lower than the student did. Attribute 8 ("humility") comes next with one difference out of five corresponding scores. In attribute 8 ("humility"), one student rated himself lower. Only attribute 19 ("respect for others") showed nearly identical corresponding ratings although all participants (teachers and students) responded. Teachers' comments, in general, supported their ratings of students on the "respect" component. Although Teacher 2 did not provide scores for one item, she and Student 2 (Malik) provided similar high ratings for the other three items. Teacher 2 noted that "Malik is very

respectful of me and of other students from other gender and cultures represented in the classroom." As shown in Table 10, the ratings of Teacher 3 and her student (Rawan) differed in two of the four items. In all the items, Rawan ranked herself very high. This was supported by her teacher (3) who commented that "Rawan was always respectful." The scores of Teacher 5 and Student 5 (Waheed) seemed to differ only on one item corresponding to the respect component, attribute 7 ("win-win attitude") in which the teacher rated Waheed 3 whereas Waheed rated himself 6. They gave similar high ratings for the remaining items. Teacher 5 commented on Waheed's degree of respect, saying, "I definitely would say that he seemed to have respect." The scores given by Student 6 (Hadi) and Teacher 6 differed in two items. It was Hadi, here, who ranked himself lower than his teacher did. Teacher 6 spoke highly of Hadi's attitude of respect, commenting that "as far as respect and openness and curiosity, he was very receptive to the kinds of things we were reading." Although Teacher 7 did not give scores for two items, she gave scores of 6 to Student 7 (Hala) in the two items left. Teacher 7 also emphasized that "Hala was able to show her respect to the fact that there were other values, even amongst people of her own culture, and she did seem quite open to these new ideas in class" and that "Hala always showed respect in class and she had linguistic skills to back this up."

***Component of openness*.** This component from the model matches attributes 1 ("open-mindedness"), 12 ("willingness to have own views challenged"), 14 ("being invigorated by differences"), and 20 ("willingness to change yourself as you learn and grow") in the survey. The component "openness" was also overall perceived to have applied to the students with relatively high degrees based on the teachers' comments. This result is also reflected by the scores given by the teachers and corresponding students' ratings. Personality factors, however, could be

somewhat related to the students' degree of openness because some teachers pointed out that some students were shy or lacked an outgoing personality. Only two students (5 and 3) were rated with low scores of 3 in two items in the survey, attributes 1 and 12. Teacher 5 commented on Waheed's (Student 5) personality, saying that "he certainly was very quiet, so I can't judge his interactions with everyone in the class." On the other hand, Rawan's degree of "openness" and "willingness to change" was commented on by her teacher (3) who suggested that the fact that Rawan and her husband (Malik) studied together might have had some influence on her openness based on the students' own frame of reference that does not accept females mixing with males.

Of the 16 scores responded to by the teachers and students, the majority of ratings showed similarity (10 ratings), whereas 6 ratings showed differences. Attribute 1 ("open-mindedness") showed only one difference as one teacher rated her student lower. As for attribute 12, "willingness to have own views challenged," two students gave themselves lower ratings and one teacher gave a student a lower rating. Regarding attribute 14, "being invigorated by differences," one student ranked herself remarkably lower. On attribute 20, one teacher rated her student lower. "Willingness to have own views challenged" (attribute 12) seemed to show the most diverging scores between teachers and students because it showed three differences out of four corresponding scores (one teacher did not respond), followed by these attributes: "willingness to change" (20), "being invigorated by differences" (14), and "open-mindedness" (1), which showed one difference each out of three corresponding scores (excluding teachers who did not respond).

Regarding their scores, Teacher 2 did not respond to two items (12 and 14). Teacher 2 and Student 2 (Malik) showed similar high ratings for the other two (1 and 20) items. In commenting on how much open-minded Malik was, Teacher 2 commented, "In general Malik was very open and receptive to me as a teacher as far as classroom activities. . . . He never gave any opposition to doing anything different or new." With regard to their scores, Teacher 3 and Student 3 (Rawan) showed differences on all the four items. Rawan ranked herself higher in all but one item than the teacher's corresponding rating for item 14, "being invigorated by differences." She gave a score of 2, which could be explained by the fact the Rawan was accompanied by her husband (Student 2, Malik) and they were always teaming up for in-class activities. Teacher 3 described this as possibly related to lack of openness in general. Teacher 3 commented about Student 3 on openness: "Rawan is always friendly and polite but we never had an interaction where I could see if she was judging or not just because of the nature of the class. That being said, I never saw her being negative towards people or ideas." Both ratings of Teacher 5 and Student 5 (Waheed) were similarly high except for one item: attribute 1, "open-mindedness." Waheed was rated 3 by the teacher and 4 by himself. This rating could be related to Waheed's reserved character, as Teacher 5 commented. Similarly, Teacher 5 stated that "the time we did do interactive things, Waheed certainly worked well with everyone in class, and it was a class of speakers of Arabic, Portuguese, and one Chinese speaker and some Spanish speakers from Mexico." Regarding their ratings, Hadi (Student 6) and his teacher's (6) scores were similarly high in three items. They only showed a difference in item 12 in which Student 6 rated himself lower (albeit still relatively high, score 4) than score 6 given to him by the teacher. Teacher 6 commented that as far as openness is concerned, "Hadi was very receptive to the kinds

of things we were reading. There was a lot of popular American literature so we were reading Bradbury and Shirley Jackson and at the end we read *V for Vendetta*, and so those are very rooted in a Western Anglo-American culture, and he responded well to all those stories." As far as Teacher 7 and her Student 7 (Hala) are concerned, Teacher 7 did not respond on two items: 14 ("being invigorated by differences") and 20 ("willingness to change as you learn and grow"). On the remaining two items, they showed one difference on item 12, "willingness to have own views challenged," as Hala rated herself lower than the teacher's rating (albeit relatively high, score 4). Teacher 7 commented that Hala "was able to show her respect to the fact that there were other values, even amongst people of her own culture, and she did seem quite open to these new ideas in class."

Component of curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty). This component from the model matches attributes 5 ("comfort with uncertainty"), 6 ("ability to trust when dealing with unfamiliar"), 9 ("extroversion"), 16 ("patience when not in control"), and 17 ("ability to deal with the stress of new situations") in the survey.

Given that three items were not responded to by Teacher 7, a total of 22 ratings by teachers and corresponding ratings by students were collected. The ratings of students by teachers and students were nearly split into two halves because 12 similar ratings and 10 different ratings were obtained. Item 17, "ability to deal with the stress of new situations," came first with differences between ratings given by teachers and students because it showed three different ratings out of four. Two students rated themselves lower, whereas one teacher rated a student lower. Item 16, "patience when not in control," came next because it showed three differences out of five ratings. In all the three diverging ratings, the students rated themselves

lower. Item 5, "comfort with uncertainty," showed two differences out of four ratings. One teacher and one student rated the students lower. Item 9, "extroversion," follows with two differences out of five scores compared. Two teachers rated the students lower in this item. Item 6, "ability to trust when dealing with unfamiliar," showed no differences of ratings between teachers and students (one teacher did not participate). Based on teachers' comments regarding the component of curiosity and discovery, two patterns emerged: (1) students have degrees of it or (2) students lack it.

1. *Students have degrees of curiosity and discovery.* Teacher 5 mentioned that "coz certainly there're students who ask is this gonna be in the test . . . Waheed (Student 5) wasn't asking those kinds of things. He pretty much accepted what I gave and worked independently. So, he definitely seemed that he's comfortable with a certain amount of ambiguity." As for scores, Teacher 5 and Student 5 (Waheed) showed identical high ratings (score 5) in two items (5 and 6). They, however, showed diverging ratings in the remaining three items. In items 16 and 17, the teacher rated Waheed very high (score 6) compared with Waheed's lower rating of himself with scores 4 and 3, respectively. By contrast, Teacher 5 rated Waheed's "extroversion" (attribute 9) very low (score 1), whereas Student 5 (Waheed) gave himself score 5 on this item, which coincided with her comment: "But it didn't seem to be in his nature to be very extraverted with the teacher." This comment suggests that Teacher 5 was assessing based on the context of the classroom, which might have led to these diverge ratings of three items. She (Teacher 5) also commented on Waheed's curiosity and discovery, saying, "He didn't ask a lot of questions. Waheed's very quiet, certainly not the person who's always raising their hands to ask questions."

As far as scores are concerned, the ratings of Teacher 6 and Hadi (Student 6) were similarly high for three items (5, 6, and 9). However, they showed differences in items 16 ("patience when not in control") and 17 ("ability to deal with the stress of new situations") in which the teacher rated Hadi with score 6 whereas Hadi gave himself 4 and 3, respectively. As suggested above, the context might have affected the assessment. Teacher 6 supported her high ratings by commenting that "to speak to the curiosity and discovery, Hadi was always interested in the stories and in why things happen the way that they did . . . you know he put forward his explanations." Teacher 7 responded only to two items (9 and 16) showing no difference between her ratings and Hala's (Student 7) ratings. Teacher 7 commented, "As far as tolerating ambiguity, there are times when I had to change the directions, and Hala seemed to take that in stride while some students get exasperated and overwhelmed but she seemed fairly stable and very thoughtful."

2. *Personality traits.* Some students were suggested to lack curiosity and discovery because of personality traits. It was mentioned above that Teacher 5 commented on the curiosity and discovery of Waheed (Student 5), arguing that his lack of curiosity is related to his quiet personality. Teacher 2 also commented, "I think it was whatever I brought to the table Malik (S2) is willing to do but there is not any kind of asking me questions about culture differences." As for scores, the teacher and the students' ratings were identically high for all items except attribute 5, "comfort with uncertainty," perceived lower by Malik than his teacher perceived. As far as Teacher 3 and Rawan's (Student 3) scores are concerned, three items (5, 9, and 17) showed differences in their ratings. Rawan tended to give herself higher scores of 6, 5, and 6, respectively. Teacher 3 emphasized her assessment in this comment: "In terms of curiosity and

discovery, Rawan (S3) was not one who was likely to engage with other partners . . . and that is maybe personality, maybe she is more reserved, but I did not get the sense that she's particularly curious about other cultures."

Knowledge level. The knowledge level consists of four components. These components are cultural self-awareness, *deep understanding and knowledge of culture, sociolinguistic awareness, and culture-specific information.* Only the first three of them have matching items in the survey, as shown in Table 11. The table below shows the scores of teachers and students that correspond to the components of the knowledge and comprehension level in Deardorff's pyramid model.

Table 11. Responses of teachers and students to survey items matching components of the pyramid model's requisite knowledge level

Component	Cultural self-awareness	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings: Students	Lower ratings: Teachers
Survey item	15. Ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points	3	2	4	6	5		NA	3	6	6	6	1/4	1	
	Note. 4 ratings; 3 similar and 1 different														
Component	Deep understanding and knowledge of culture (including contexts, role, and impact of culture and others' worldviews)	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings: Students	Lower ratings: Teachers
Survey item	18. Sensitivity to nuances of differences	5	5	3	4	6		NA	4	5	5	6	1/4	1	
	Note. 4 ratings; 3 similar and 1 different														

Component	Sociolinguistic awareness	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings	
														Students	Teachers
Survey item	11. Tactfulness	5	6	5	4	5		6	4	6	6	6	2/5	1	1
	Note. 5 ratings; 3 similar and 2 different														

Note. Rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (does not apply at all) to 6 (applies very much).

Component of cultural self-awareness. This component from the model matches item 15, "ability to see familiar situations from unfamiliar vantage points," in the survey. The ratings of teachers and students were similarly high for all students except for Rawan (Student 3) and her teacher who gave similarly low scores of 2 and 3, respectively. The only difference was between Waheed (Student 5) who rated himself score 4 and his teacher who gave him score 6. On the other hand, only Teachers 7 and 3 commented on this component. Teacher 2, however, stated, "I don't have a lot of context to know whether Malik (Student 2) does have knowledge or not; as far as American classroom norms, yes he has that knowledge. He seems to be aware of them." Based on both teachers' comments, this component was found by teachers to have manifested itself occasionally.

Teacher 7 commented on how her Student 7 (Hala) showed some degree of cultural self-awareness as "Hala was the only Arabic speaking woman in the class and there were eight either Saudi or Kuwaiti men in the class. So, I feel like she was couching her comment because of that but I'm not sure. But she was very much aware of their perceptions of the world and how hers may have differed or may not, but she seemed quite aware, quite self-aware." As for ratings of the matching item, both ratings by Teacher 7 and Hala were similarly high. Teacher 3 related this to the limited classroom context, recalling, "Knowledge and comprehension . . . so, because of the nature of the class I never had an opportunity to see this; I do remember one time we were talking about folk tales and Rawan was able to give an example of a folk tale; so what it was in the textbook there was an African folktale, and we were talking about what is a folk tale? Give

me examples of folk tales from your culture, so Rawan (S3) was able (to) say one and that helped the other Arab students to say oh yeah oh yeah." In the survey, both Teacher 3 and Rawan gave similarly low ratings (scores 3 and 2, respectively) on the matching survey item "ability to see familiar situations from unfamiliar vantage points".

In both examples, teachers' comments and scores were consistent with regard to this component and its equivalent attribute. While the former showed a high level of cultural self-awareness, the latter showed a limited but emerging development thereof as Teacher 3 noted that this was the only occasion at which Rawan seemed to show an emerging cultural self-awareness. Both examples could also indicate the students' possession of varying degrees of skills to analyze, evaluate, and relate which are essential "for acquiring and processing knowledge about other cultures as well as one's own culture" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 194).

Component of deep understanding and knowledge of culture (including contexts, role, and impact of cultures and others' worldviews). This component matches item 18, "sensitivity to nuances of differences." Teachers' comments and scores are also consistent with this component.

Teacher 5 said, "Waheed (S5) didn't seem to be offended openly by Brazilian students entering the class and joking around, but he wouldn't do it himself. But certainly he understood that it would be ok to do that . . . but it didn't seem to be in his nature to be very extraverted with the teacher." The rating of Teacher 5 and the corresponding rating by Waheed showed a difference as Teacher 5 gave a high score of 5 compared with a low score of 3 selected by Waheed. Teacher 6 similarly commented, "Hadi (S6) would work with other students to discuss the themes and ideas in the stories, so I guess analyzing, relating, he would bring up issues of

things that were in his life" and "Hadi (S6) will consider the ideas that come up through our readings whether or not they possibly coincide with his personal beliefs, and I have never got the idea that he's rejecting an idea because of some cultural reasons which doesn't mean he didn't explore it. I mean his feedback is thoughtful, he would notice details that other people didn't notice." As for the survey item of "sensitivity to nuances of differences", they gave similarly high ratings. Teacher 7 stated, "Yeah I would say that Hala (S7) has a very high understanding of others' world views. She was always willing to engage with students from other cultures." The scores highly correspond as both Teacher 7 and Hala gave a score of 6.

Component of sociolinguistic awareness. This component matches attribute 11, "tactfulness." With the exception of Teacher 3, all teachers gave their students score 6 on this item. Two differences were observed out of five ratings, although all scores are high. The students are perceived by the teachers to have been aware of the relation between the language they used and the meanings they expressed in such societal contexts and to have been able to convey their messages effectively and appropriately, which is the definition of "sociolinguistic awareness" by Deardorff (2006).

In support of the similarly high ratings of the matching item 11, Teacher 2 described Malik (S2) as capable of "speaking [and] very skilled and you could tell that he's very motivated and that aided in his linguistic abilities." The teacher added, "As far as I can tell, anything I can see as an American classroom norm Malik adhered to . . . I honestly cannot think of one time where he went outside of what I see as a typical American behavior in the classroom culturally." Similarly, Teacher 5 commented on Waheed (Student 5): "I took two days off because [a relative] died and didn't hide that from the class, I told them about it, and they were very

sympathetic but Waheed came up afterwards and made some comments to me and was very nice about it and expressed condolences very appropriately." As far as scores concerned, they showed similarly high scores. Teacher 6 commented on Hadi's sociolinguistic awareness: "He seems to have the norms of in-classroom interactions established. Hadi interacts well with other students. He'll lead discussions in small groups. His interactions with me were always appropriate." There was, however, a difference between Teacher 6 and her student on the ratings as Hadi gave himself a lower score of 4. The ratings given by Teacher 7 and her student (Hala) were also similarly high. Teacher 7 supported this by stating, "Sociolinguistic awareness: yes, Hala (S7) had a high linguistic ability to be respectful and tactful."

Based on Deardorff's model, "knowledge" is acquired and processed by the skills to observe, listen, evaluate, analyze, interpret, and relate (2008, p. 1). This is also supported by the results of the present study that showed a remarkable overlap between the two levels of knowledge and skills. Simply put, one of the skills is the ability of the learner to relate. Learners need some knowledge to relate to, and this will be clear in the relative examples given in the Skills section below.

Skills level. This level consists of a combination of skills as follows:

Component of skills to listen, observe, and interpret and skills to analyze, evaluate, and relate. This component matches attributes 10 ("creativity") and 15 ("ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points"). It must be noted here that the model acknowledges the overlap between level of knowledge and comprehension and level of skills. Hence, survey

item 15 is repeated here because teachers' comments also suggested this overlap. Table 12 illustrates students' and teachers' ratings of the two skills.

Table 12. Responses of teachers and students to survey items matching components of the pyramid model's skills' level

Component	Skills to listen, observe, and interpret Skills to analyze, evaluate, and relate	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings	
														Students	Teachers
Survey items	10. Creativity	3	6	4	4	4		NA	4	6	5	5	2/5	1	1
	15. Ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points	3	2	4	6	5		NA	3	6	6	6	1/4	1	
	Note. 8 ratings; 5 similar and 3 different														

Note. Rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (does not apply at all) to 6 (applies very much).

The matching survey items 10 and 15 showed more similarity in ratings (5) than differences (3). Item 10 ("creativity") showed two differences as Rawan (Student 3) rated herself higher than the teacher did (6 vs. 4), whereas Waheed (Student 5) rated himself lower than his teacher did (4 vs. 6). Item 15 showed one difference as Waheed (Student 5) rated himself lower (4 vs. 6). The comments by teachers also seemed to reflect the ratings they gave in the survey.

One difference was found between the ratings given by Teacher 3 and Rawan (albeit high ratings for item 10). They showed one similarly low rating for item 15, which is consistent with the teacher's comment. Teacher 3 indicated Rawan's limited ability to relate in this excerpt: "I do remember one time we were talking about folk tales and she (S3) was able to give an example of a folk tale; so what it was in the textbook there was an African folktale, and we were talking about what is a folk tale? Give me examples of folk tales from your culture, so Rawan (Student 3) was able to say one and that helped the other Arab students to say oh yeah oh yeah." According to teacher 3, this was the only case in which Rawan showed she was able to relate things. Similarly, Teacher 5 noted Waheed's ability to observe as "Waheed (Student 5) is the kind of the student who's watching everything." Teacher 5 also commented that Waheed's observation skill suggested that he was "not self-centered, [since] he is at last observing other people." However, Teacher 5's assessment was explicitly based on the classroom norms and should not be generalized beyond the classroom walls. As for ratings, the two showed differences with Waheed ranking himself lower than his teacher did (albeit high ratings for both items). Teacher 7 noticed that "Hala (Student 7) has the personality where she listens more than speaks, so I would say that she had a high skill in that regard, and as I said in her presentation she had a very high level of the ability to analyze." Similarly high ratings were given to both items by both Hala and her teacher.

Teacher 6 and Student 6 (Hadi) showed similarly high ratings for both items. With regard to the skill to interpret, Teacher 6 said, "We talked about dystopian kind of things, the roles of governments, the ways governments can oppress people. You know that can be kind of sensitive area to a lot of people, but I didn't meet any opposition there . . . At the end of the session, Hadi

(S6) did seem to be better in interpreting themes in the literature we were reading." She (Teacher 6) explained how reading stories that are rooted in the Anglo-American culture helped her see the skills of Hadi as he "(S6) would work with other students to discuss the themes and ideas in the stories, so I guess analyzing, relating, Hadi would bring up issues of things that were in his life." This observation also indicated Hadi's knowledge and understanding of culture specifics and his awareness of his own culture, in addition to his ability to decenter and mediate between the two cultures, demonstrating what Byram (2000) described as interculturally competent individuals who are "conscious of their own perspective, of the way in which their thinking is culturally determined, rather than believing that their understanding and perspective is natural" (p. 3). Teacher 6 expressed how Hadi would provide thoughtful feedback and analytical skill, commenting, "I have never got the idea that Hadi's (S6) rejecting an idea because of some cultural reasons which doesn't mean he didn't explore it. I mean his feedback is thoughtful, he would notice details that other people didn't notice."

Desired internal outcome (informed frame-of-reference shift). This level of the model consists of four components: adaptability, flexibility, ethnorelative view, and empathy, as shown in Table 13. Matching items in the survey are also shown in Table 13.

Table 13. Responses of teachers' and students' assessments corresponding to the pyramid model's desired internal outcome (informed frame-of-reference shift)

Component	Adaptability (to different communication styles and behaviors; adjustment to new cultural environments)	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower ratings: Students	Lower ratings: Teachers
Survey item	3. Ability to adapt your behavior	6	6	6	5	5		3	4	3	6	6	3/5		3
	13. Ability to make independent decisions when far from usual resources	5	4	5	3	5		na	4	5	5	na	1/3	1	
	Note. 8 ratings; 4 similar and 4 different														

Component	Flexibility (selecting and using appropriate communication styles and behaviors; cognitive flexibility)	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower rating: Students	Lower rating: Teachers
Survey item	2. Flexibility with attitudes and behaviors	6	6	6	4	5		4	4	3	5	6	3/5		3
	Note. 5 ratings; 2 similar and 3 different														

Component	Ethnorelative view; empathy	Student 2	Student 3	Student 5	Student 6	Student 7		Teacher 2	Teacher 3	Teacher 5	Teacher 6	Teacher 7	Diff.	Lower rating: Students	Lower rating: Teachers
Survey item	21. Empathy	6	6	6	5	5		NA	4	3	6	NA	2/3		2
	Note. 3 ratings; 1 similar and 2 different														

Note. Rated on a six-point Likert scale from 1 (does not apply at all) to 6 (applies very much).

Component of adaptability (to different communication styles and behaviors; adjustment to new cultural environments). This component from the model matches attributes 3 ("ability to adapt your behavior") and 13 ("ability to make independent decisions when far from usual resources") in the survey. Given that two teachers did not respond to item 13, 8 ratings were left that were split into two halves: four similar and four different. Item 3 showed three differences out of five ratings as three teachers gave students lower scores than the students did. Item 13 showed one difference out of three ratings (two teachers did not respond). Hadi (Student 6) gave himself a lower score than his teacher did.

As for their ratings, Teacher 2 did not respond to item 13 in which Malik (Student 2) rated himself very high. The ratings differed for item 3 as this time the teacher rated Malik very low compared with Malik's high rating. Teacher 2 commented on Malik's limited adaptability, saying, "I would say that he has the internal desired outcome. Flexibility and adaptability to classroom norms were there except in times he would talk only with his spouse in speaking activities, but other than that . . . that is the only area where flexibility was not demonstrated." As for Teacher 3 and her student (Rawan), their scores showed one difference on item 3 as the teacher rated Rawan lower (4 vs. 6). Item 13 showed similarly high ratings by both (score 4). Teacher 3 commented on Rawan's lacking adaptability: "Internal outcome—I would say that she struggled with adaptability as indicated by her always working with her husband, and even if she was doing that because she was not comfortable working with other Saudi males, she'll have to do that as she continues in classes here, and so she may need to become more adaptable in order to succeed, and that may come when she is in a different mix of people." The ratings of Teacher 5 and Waheed (Student 5) for item 3 showed a difference. The teacher rated Waheed very low (3

vs. 6), although they gave similarly high ratings for item 13. Teacher 5 believed this component to have been manifested in Student 5 as in the following excerpt: "Waheed didn't seem to be offended openly by Brazilian students entering the class and joking around, but he wouldn't do it himself. But certainly he understood that it would be ok to do that, but it didn't seem to be in his nature to be very extraverted with the teacher." As for Teacher 6 and her student Hadi, they showed diverging ratings for item 13 in which Hadi rated himself lower (score 3). Item 3 showed similarly high ratings. Teacher 6 also found that Student 6 would shift the frame of reference mindfully as she said, "Hadi will consider the ideas that come up through our readings whether or not they possibly coincide with his personal beliefs, and I have never got the idea that he's rejecting an idea because of some cultural reasons which doesn't mean he didn't explore it I mean his feedback is thoughtful, he would notice details that other people didn't notice."

Component of flexibility (selecting and using appropriate communication styles and behaviors; cognitive flexibility). This component matches attribute 2, "flexibility with attitudes and behaviors." Of the five ratings for item 2, three differences were found between teachers' and students' ratings. The three teachers rated their students lower in item 2 than the students did. Four out of the comments of the five teachers corroborated with the scores they gave to the students. Only the comment by Teacher 5 appeared to contradict the low score she gave to her student.

Regarding their ratings, Teacher 2 and her student (Malik) showed diverging ratings as the teacher rated him lower (albeit still a high score). Teacher 2 emphasized Malik's flexibility and adaptability within the American classroom norms with one exception, commenting, "I would say that Malik (S2) has the internal desired outcome. Flexibility and adaptability to

classroom norms were there except in times he would talk only with his spouse in speaking activities. That is the only area where flexibility was not demonstrated." Teacher 3 commented on Rawan, "As far as appropriate communication styles and behaviors, I never saw inappropriate communication styles and behaviors, but I can specifically cite sometime when I really saw the flexibility." This comment shows a limited degree of the flexibility component, and it is consistent with the ratings as the teacher gave Rawan (Student 3) a lower score of 4 compared with the very high score Rawan rated herself. The scores of Teacher 5 and her student, Waheed, showed diverging ratings with the teacher rating Waheed lower (score 3) than the student's rating of 6. The teacher's comment appears to be inconsistent with the score, which could be caused by the limited context of the teacher in making a sound assessment. Teacher 5 commented, "I do see flexibility in that there were times that I forced them to do some speaking and he joined in these activities and I know some students are not comfortable with that, and clearly even if that seemed a little outside of his comfort zone, Waheed was willing to do it." Teacher 6 showed how Hadi (Student 6) was internalizing flexibility and being able to shift his frame of reference in saying, "I (T6) have never seen any conflicts or any kind of tension or friction in Hadi's communication with anyone. He's (S6) actively involved when he's in small groups or when he's in full class mode with me." Their ratings also showed similarly high scores. Similarly, Teacher 7 saw flexibility in Hala (Student 7), as "she showed flexibility in her ability to get through a class that was often changeable." The teacher continued, "We had a mid-session addition of six or seven Mexican students, so the class dynamic changed quite a bit, but Hala didn't really change her behaviors per se. She was still participating at the same level [of flexibility]." The ratings were similarly high for the matching item 2.

Components of ethnorelative view and empathy. This component matches attribute 21, "empathy." Only two examples were provided by Teacher 7 about Student 7 (Hala) and Teacher 6 about Student 6 (Hadi) seemed to represent this important component. Two teachers did not respond to this item in the survey. The remaining three showed two differences with the teachers rating the students lower (scores 4 and 3) than the students' high ratings of themselves (score 6), and one similarly high rating.

Teacher 7 did not provide a rating, whereas Hala (Student 7) rated herself high (score 5) on "empathy". Teacher 7, however, commented, "I would say that Hala has a very high understanding of others' world views. She was always willing to engage with students from other cultures," and "She realizes that in order to become educated in a more global sense, women and men have in some effect work together, and that she would choose a coeducational model because of that, so for her to say that showed a remarkable critical thinking skills and flexibility to the realities of the world, but she did so in a very respectful manner." But the teacher continued, "When someone is introverted, it is not always quite easy to know who they are when you only interact with them in a group context," indicating the difficulty of making an accurate assessment in such a limited context. Similarly, Teacher 6 showed how informed frame-of-reference shift was exemplified by Hadi (Student 6), stating that "there was a lot of popular American literature so we were reading Bradbury and . . . , Shirley Jackson and at the end we read *V for Vendetta*, and so those are very rooted in a Western Anglo-American culture, and Hadi responded well to all those stories." Hadi and his teacher's ratings were similarly high.

Desired external outcome. In Deardorff's (2004) model (Figure 1), the desired observable outcome is "behaving and communicating effectively and appropriately (based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes) to achieve one's goals to some degree" (p. 184). All the teachers perceived that the students either already have developed this outcome or were still developing it. This finding supports Deardorff's (2004) claim that "it is possible to go from attitudes and/or skills/knowledge directly to the external outcome but the appropriateness and effectiveness of the outcome may not be nearly as strong as when the entire cycle is completed and begins again" (p. 197). This claim is more clearly presented in her process model that "while containing the same elements as the first, depicts more of the movement and process orientation that occurs between the various elements" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 197). The process visual model is shown in Figure 10 below.

Two students, Hala (Student 7) and Hadi (Student 6), have developed the external outcome as perceived by their teachers. In her description of Hala regarding the desired external outcome, Teacher 7 said, "Hala was always effective in her communication and interaction in the classroom as well as with me . . . if she had a question or a point to make she was able to come across respectfully and also showing an open mind. She will be a very successful student." A similar description was given of Student 6 with regard to his desired external outcome. Teacher 6 said, "That's a good descriptor of Hadi. He is an effective communicator and active one."

The other three students were perceived by teachers to be developing the desired external outcome. Teacher 5 commented, "For this particular setting which is grammar, I didn't have the chance to observe those students in their speaking class, it would be nice to see how they were doing in a much more extroverted setting, but certainly I (T5) could say that Waheed (S5) was

interacting with students and teachers appropriately, but of course to succeed in an American university you have to be more extraverted. I don't think he's fully there with the desired external outcome but certainly part way." The remark that these students are still in the process of gaining the desired external outcome was also repeated by Teacher 3, who said, "External outcome—Rawan (S3) is developing it. I don't think she is there . . . I would say in the early stages of developing that outcome," and Teacher 2 also commented, "I (T2) would say that Malik (S2) is in the process of gaining the external outcome."

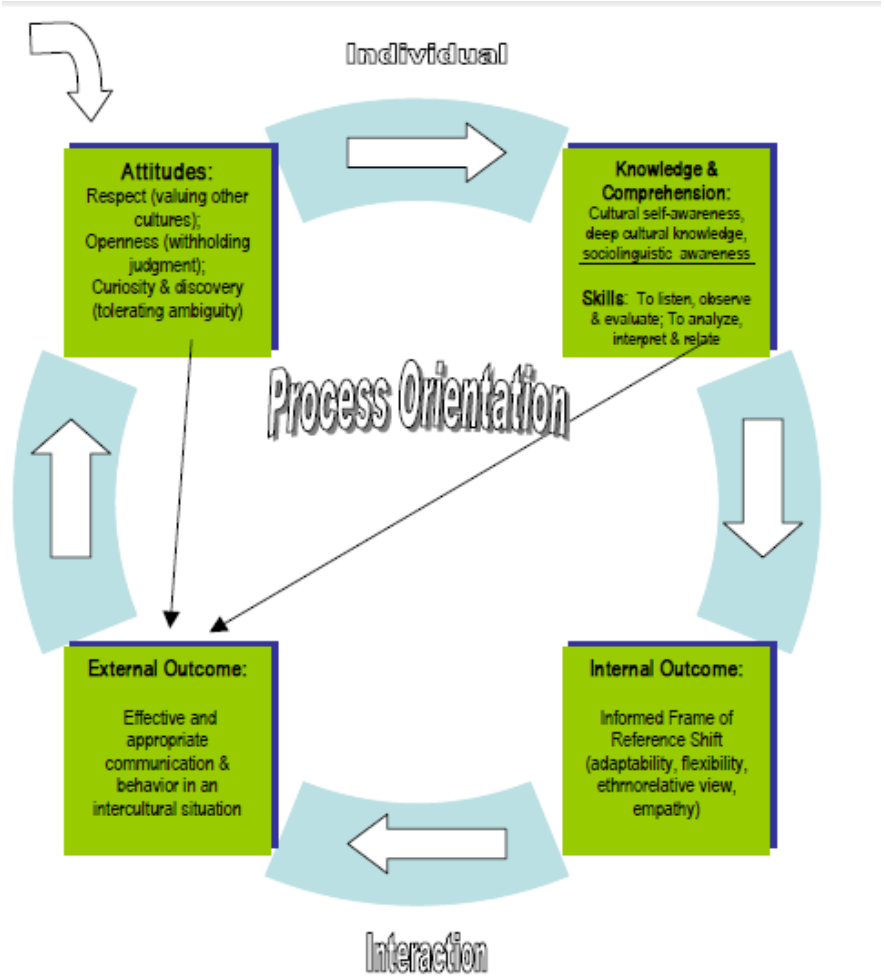

Figure 11. Process model of intercultural competence (Deardorff, 2004, p. 198)

Discussion

The results from the quantitative data obtained from the students' perception about their pre- and post-self-assessment of ICC traits, student-teacher perceptions about students' ICC, and the qualitative data from teachers' interviews about students' ICC have been presented thus far. These results are discussed in this section.

The main findings of this study are as follows: There was (1) no substantial change from pre- to post-survey in attributes that were suggested to facilitate ICC, (2) a considerable agreement in ICC assessments between the teachers and the students, and (3) some disagreement in ICC assessments and a noticeable overestimation of some attributes by both teachers and students.

No Substantial Change in ICC Attributes

The quantitative analysis showed that no significant changes were found between the students' pre- and post-perceptions. The students in this study appeared to be nearly satisfied, as can be seen in their self-rating of their own language proficiency in which 53% of the participants in the post-survey rated themselves as upper- or lower advanced compared with only 19% in the pre-survey who rated themselves as lower advanced, with none rating themselves as upper advanced. This relative satisfaction with linguistic competence could have a negative effect on students' ICC represented by sociolinguistic awareness. Similarly, Vande Berg et al. (2009) found that the intercultural development of those who stayed more than a semester abroad "plateaued significantly." Engle and Engle (2004, p. 234) also found that the students considered "'roughly successful communication' adequate" and that "if students are more or less

comfortable in their language usage, and can make themselves understood, they may become complacent." In both studies, they claimed that this attitude could be for intercultural reasons since the US American communication style does not give importance to competence beyond efficient communication at which their message is practically conveyed. Engle and Engle suggested on-site intervention for those who stay more than one semester, and Vande Berg et al. (2009) built on that, arguing that "a cultural mentor on site would be able to guide them towards an understanding that 'getting the point across' in ways that may be acceptable in classes in the US may not be culturally appropriate at the program site" (p. 20).

Moreover, the stagnation of the levels of the traits could be attributed to the fact that many of them are personal traits that are unlikely to change during relative short-term SA, as argued by Ecke (2012). This observation is supported by this study's qualitative data in which the teachers indicated that the students' low levels in several components could be, in part, caused by personality. The teachers suggested that the students lack curiosity and discovery because as Teacher 3 commented, "maybe Rawan is more reserved," or as Teacher 2 mentioned, "Malik is very quiet, not the person who's always raising their hands to ask questions." Teacher 7 also noticed that "Hala has the personality where she listens more than speaks." These findings appear to support Ecke's (2012) claim.

In the present study, although students in the pre-test seemed to rate themselves higher, in the post-survey, they downgraded themselves in 13 traits from score 5 to lower levels, selected score 5 for themselves again in 5 traits, but upgraded themselves on score 5 in only 4 traits, as shown in Table 3 in the results section. Although these changes were insignificant, they may suggest that SA students tended to be more realistic in self-assessments after they have lived the

reality of SA contexts. One student anecdotally noted that she thought herself to be open-minded before coming to the USA when she discovered the opposite, and it was not until months later that she managed to find herself more open-minded.

This stagnation of ICC-related attributes could also suggest that one semester is insufficient to affect the ICC of SA students. Given that the period of the study was only the first four months from the students' SA program, the results showed that the stability of the traits, as discussed above, corroborates research that emphasized the time factor in fostering ICC development (Bennett, 1993; Medina-Lopez-Portillo, 2004; Leong and Ward, 2000, as cited in Medina-Lopez-Portillo, 2004; Dwyer, 2004). Bennett (1993, p. 55), for example, indicated that individuals might require at least two years to develop basic levels of adaptation to the host culture, depending on the quality of the experience. This issue should be investigated more in the future.

Teachers and Students' Overestimation of ICC-Related Attributes

The students ranked themselves relatively high in all traits, suggested to foster ICC, at the beginning of the program except the trait "comfort with uncertainty." They also did so in the post-survey, and no significant differences were found in ratings over the period of four months. This possible overestimation of ICC-related attributes arguably supports the finding by Jackson (2011) and Medina (2008). Jackson (2011) drew attention to the reality that when self-reporting about their ICC, students may tend to overestimate their levels significantly (pp. 181–182). She argued that the fact that they were overestimating their self-perceived competence may have

been the reason why students' intercultural communication skills reached a plateau (Jackson 2011, pp. 181–182).

The trait of "comfort with uncertainty" was the only attribute for which scores the low scores 1, 2, and 3 were selected by the majority of students in the pre-survey (56%); similarly in the post-test, nearly half of the students (44%) selected scores 1, 2, and 3. This finding contradicts Ecke's (2012) study of US students in Germany. He found that the only significant increase in the traits was in "comfort with uncertainty," arguing for a positive effect of SA on the participants' personalities and adjustment in the new environment. However, this result could be interpreted by Hofstede's (1983) national culture dimensions that placed Saudi Arabia and the USA at odds with each other in terms of the dimension of "uncertainty avoidance," which categorized Saudi Arabia as a "strong uncertainty avoidance" society, whereas the USA is categorized as a "weak uncertainty avoidance" society. A "strong uncertainty avoidance" is "trying to beat the future because the future remains essentially unpredictable, and there will be a higher level of anxiety in people, which becomes manifest in greater nervousness, emotionality, and aggressiveness" (Hofstede, 1983, p. 83). This will be further discussed below because it probably suggests a disparity between values held by Westerners and Arabs. Ecke (2014) rightly indicated that "findings, for example, from a study on US students' reading skill development in Japan or a study on cultural adaptation in Egypt would most likely only have limited implications for US students' development of reading skills and cultural adaptation in Germany or Austria" (p. 121).

Agreement in ICC Assessment between the Teachers and the Students

The results from the comparison of teachers' and students' quantitative assessment and teachers' comments showed a remarkable overlap. However, when the missing dimension in the literature of ICC assessment was investigated, that of the "appropriateness of communication and behavior" (Deardorff, 2014), two significant and one approaching significant differences were found in the qualitative responses between teachers and students in assessing three traits: tactfulness (trait 11), patience when not in control (trait 16), and empathy (trait 21).

These three traits could arguably represent the three main components in Deardorff's model. Attribute 16, "patience when not in control," could be related to "tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty" in the requisite attitudes level in the model; attribute 11, "tactfulness," could be related to "sociolinguistic awareness" in knowledge and comprehension level in the model; and attribute 21, "empathy," is central to adaptability that forms the core of the desired internal outcome level in the model. Below is the discussion of these traits with reference to Deardorff's model.

Attitudes. When students' self-assessment about their perception of their own "patience when not in control" was examined, no significant change was found between the pre- and post-tests. Score 4 ("applies sometimes to me") for pre- and post-tests was also the most chosen for "patience when not in control," and scores 3 and 4 for pre- and post-tests, respectively, were the most chosen by the participants for "comfort with uncertainty." The trait "patience when not in control" and the relevant "comfort with uncertainty" could be interpreted using Hofstede's (1983) dimensions. Hofstede mentioned that a society like the Saudi Arabian, unlike the US

American, may resort to religion to find ease because it is a "strong uncertainty avoidance" society. Resorting to religion to avoid uncertainty and show patience is pervasive and entrenched in the Saudi society because the Quran repeatedly orders Muslims to exercise patience, as in "And seek assistance through patience and prayer" (Al-Baqarah chapter, 2:45).

However, a discrepancy emerged when the responses of teachers and students were compared. The teachers in the current study tended to overestimate the students in this regard. The majority of teachers (71%) perceived that "patience when not in control" applied to students all the time (score 6) compared with the majority of students (71%) who perceived that "patience when not in control" applied to themselves only sometimes (score 4). This result contradicts Jackson's (2011) and Medina's (2008) findings that when self-reporting about their ICC, students may tend to overestimate their levels significantly.

Notably, no significant difference was found between students' and teachers' perception with regard to "comfort with uncertainty." However, the majority of teachers (67%) perceived that "comfort with uncertainty" applied to students most of the time (score 5), whereas the majority of students (71.5%) perceived that this attribute applied to them only sometimes or less (scores 4, 3, and 2). These results can be explained further using the qualitative data.

In the interviews, the teachers expressed difficulty in assessing how tolerant of ambiguity the students were because of constraints of nature and scope of the classes taught. Moreover, the qualitative data showed that the students possessed variable degrees of those components that support Deardorff's ICC model (Figure 1) that "allows for degrees of competence; the more components acquired/developed increases probability of greater degree of intercultural competence as an external outcome" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 193). This result coincides with the

findings from the interview that showed that according to the teachers, students who were perceived by teachers to have achieved the external outcome of the model were those who acquired/developed degrees of components of attitudes. In this case, Teachers 5, 6, and 7 (results of qualitative data above) specifically showed examples of the students who indicated their being tolerant of ambiguity and uncertainty. This finding also corroborates Byram's (1997) argument that attitudes of openness and curiosity, and suspension of judgment of others' cultures are "pre-condition for successful intercultural interaction" (Byram 1997, p. 34). These attitudes could be launched by organized intervention, as will be discussed in the conclusion section.

Knowledge and comprehension. "Tactfulness," as mentioned above, could be related to "sociolinguistic awareness" in the knowledge and comprehension level in the model. Based on the examination of the students' pre- and post-tests, no significant difference was found. However, 48% of students perceived "tactfulness" to have applied to them all the time (score 6) in the pre-test, compared with only 19% in the post-test, downgrading themselves remarkably, albeit not statistically significant. When compared with teachers, however, students seemed to have underestimated themselves in this trait because the difference between the two groups was significant (p = .03). A total of 71% of teachers perceived that "tactfulness" applied to students all the time (score 6) compared with 71% of students who perceived that "tactfulness" applied to them most of the time (score 5) as shown in Table 6. Again, this finding contradicts the findings of Jackson (2011) and Medina (2008) who found that when self-reporting about their ICC, students may tend to overestimate their levels significantly. Another possibility is that in the post-program survey, they felt they had to adapt somewhat to US teaching and interaction styles that may be inappropriate and not/less tactful in Saudi culture. Students may have experienced

conflicts between the notion of tactfulness in their original culture and expected interaction routines in the US that in part run counter the Saudi expectation and norms of tactfulness. However, cautiousness should be observed in interpreting this because it could also be that the teachers may be the ones who overestimate here.

Thus, students are perceived by teachers to be quite aware of the relation between the language they use and the meanings they express (at least in American classroom contexts) and are usually able to convey their messages effectively and appropriately, which is the definition of "sociolinguistic awareness" by Deardorff (2006).

Desired internal outcome. "Empathy" is central to adaptability that forms the core of the informed frame-of-reference shift (Bennett, 1993, p. 53). Upon investigating the students' pre- and post-tests, the majority of students (52% in pre and 63% in post) ranked themselves in score 6. However, in the student-teacher comparisons, a difference approaching significance was found between the two groups (p = .06). The percentages showed that 43% of students and 40% of teachers ranked students on score 6 and that 60% of teachers ranked students on scores 3 and 4, whereas 57% of students selected score 5. This finding is supported by qualitative data. "Empathy [which is] experiencing some aspects of reality differently from what is given by one's own culture" (Bennett, 1993, p. 53) was perceived to be possessed by two students who were able to show examples of ethnorelativism in their informed frame-of-reference shift (see the analysis of qualitative data above). Teacher 7 showed how her student, Hala, was able to advocate a coeducational model in a class full of her compatriot males whose culture is intolerant of such advocacy. Yet the teacher said, "She realizes that in order to become educated in a more global sense, women and men have in some effect to work together, and that she would choose a

coeducational model because of that. So for her to say that showed a remarkable critical thinking skills and flexibility to the realities of the world, but she did so in a very respectful manner." Student 6 (Hadi) was also perceived by his teacher (6) to experience the reality of the world differently when they were discussing stories that were "very rooted in a Western Anglo-American culture, and he responded well to all those stories."

Conclusion

This study has revealed some insights into the complex phenomenon of ICC and its development in Saudi students during their first four months of study in the US. The findings, based on self-assessment, suggested that the students were, to some extent, overestimating their ICC and did not show substantial change during the four-month period in the US. However, if the reason for little or no change and a continued high estimation of their ICC was complacency about language and interaction skills, then on-site intervention is to be recommended. SA learners' ICC would only develop more appropriately and effectively when educators go beyond immersing learners (if this happens at all) in the new SA context to intentionally equip them with the strategies to reflect on the experiences that immersion affords to them (Vande Berg, Paige, & Lou, 2012). Cultural mentoring is one intervention that could be of great benefit. It is defined by Engle and Engle (2003, p. 13) as "guided reflection on students' direct cultural encounters." They found it to be the most predictive of ICC. The present study showed that SA learners would still use their home cultural frame of reference even after four months of studying abroad. Thus, learners' awareness should be raised about the existence of worldviews that differ from those of the participants'.

Once SA program goals are set, carefully designed and theoretically based interventions should be applied, as did Sample (2013) who adopted both Deardorff's (2004) and Bennett's (1993) models to make informed decisions about the sequence and timing for the introduction of specific interventions. SA programs should include a course of ICC and create opportunities for learners to access the local community. Opportunities can be tailored based on learners' hobbies and matching them to groups or partners with similar interests. A course could also be developed using a textbook that introduces to learners cultural patterns, such as American cultural patterns (an example is presented later for a pedagogical intervention). An ICC course should be delivered by a teacher well-versed in ICC theories and applications. This course should present to learners the various worldviews, train them in ICC skills, and provide sessions to reflect on learners' experiences in light of the ICC model (e.g., Deardorff' model) and different cultural patterns (e.g., Hofstede's dimensions).

On the other hand, teachers of such a course should be interculturally competent. This means that teachers should also be trained for ICC courses. Teachers play an influential role in promoting ICC development. However, ESL teachers cannot be assumed to be interculturally competent by default. Furthermore, teaching ICC courses should not be assigned only to ESL teachers who have passion for ICC. Those who do not should also be introduced to the ICC concept and its significance through presentations, orientations, and workshops. However, both groups, who have passion and who don't, should be well prepared.

Lack of context to assess the components of ICC was a remarkable limitation yet a feasible opportunity for programmatic implication. The participating teachers repeatedly mentioned that lack of context hindered them from assessing students' levels for some aspects of

ICC in the survey and the interview. Based on the teachers' comments, assessing some components of ICC in Deardorff's model was difficult. The teachers claimed that the components "curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity and uncertainty)" and "culture-specific knowledge" were difficult to assess because of the nature of their classes. The lack of context was expressed by all teachers who taught grammar, reading, and oral communication. The teachers also repeatedly mentioned that ICC is not among the objectives of the classes they taught. One of the teachers of reading (T6) raised this important issue when she commented, "I guess because I focus more on the skills and the analysis he was doing, I didn't pay a whole lot of attention to the intercultural stuff that was going on there," alluding to the non-existence of ICC as an objective in the curriculum.

The absence of ICC from SA programs and lack of context to measure ICC, as mentioned above, require more attention from SA programs as well as ESL teachers. Given that ICC does not occur naturally and require more intentional procedures, relevant parties should include ICC in the objectives to match the expectations with this regard; and assessment thereof should be planned accordingly, using pre-post measures, observations, interviews, and journals. However, students should not be left to their own devices. They should be introduced to the ICC models and different value systems to raise their awareness and encourage them to develop their ICC.

In their textbook *Beneath the Tip of the Iceberg: Improving English and Understanding of US Cultural Patterns*, Deardorff and Bowman (2011) introduced an OSEE tool. It is a beneficial tool that can be utilized to increase learners' cultural sensitivity. OSEE stands for Observe, State objectively, Explore explanations, and Evaluate the most likely explanation. In this textbook, SA learners are introduced to real stories that are representative of general US

American patterns. These patterns are discussed using the OSEE tool. Outside-of-the-classroom activities also need to be created to help SA learners interact with US Americans (e.g., interviewing local people) and report back to their class. Cultural awareness is more likely to be heightened through such intentional intervention that is based on a theoretical model (e.g., Deardorff's model).

The present study found a disparity between the American teachers and the Arab students in some attitudes, and this finding suggests that different values held by each group could lead to different assumptions because each group, apparently, relied on its own worldviews. This should be further investigated since Deardorff (2004) stated that "curiosity and discovery (tolerating ambiguity) are viewed as fundamental to intercultural competence" (p. 193). Thus, the interpretation with regard to the Arabs' strong avoidance of uncertainty suggests that this model is potentially biased toward Westerners' perspective and hence not valid from an Arab's perspective. Deardorff (2011, p. 47) acknowledged that her model "is primarily a US-based view of intercultural competence" and earlier stated that "there are, of course, adaptations that can and will be made to these models and it will remain to future research to determine the usefulness of these models" (Deardorff, 2004, p. 199). The model has been widely used in the Western society; but the present study is, to the best of my knowledge, the first study to analyze ICC using this model and linking it to the Arab value system.

Curiosity and discovery as one component in the requisite attitudes level is problematic based on the findings of the present study and in light of Hofstede's dimensions of values (Hofstede, 1983). Does being a strong uncertainty avoiding society make it more difficult for Arabs to be interculturally competent compared with US Americans, who are members of a

weak uncertainty avoiding society? Bennett (2009, p. 128) argued that in order for "curiosity to thrive," two things are necessary: openness to others' worldviews and increasing "tolerance of ambiguity, an essential characteristic for working effectively across cultures." Bennett (2009) provided the following example:

> In a training context, Americans will often (not always) exhibit a relatively high tolerance for uncertainty in adjusting to vague directions or generalized case studies with few details. People from some other cultures may seek every detail of the instructor's expectations and the case study context before agreeing to proceed. (p. 128)

Paradoxically, in their quest to help SA students develop ICC, ICC scholars appear to base their arguments on ethnocentric views. The literature repeatedly underscored that ICC is not a naturally occurring phenomenon (Bennett, 1993; Deardorff, 2009; Paige et al., 2002). However, the requisite attitudes in the literature necessary for enhancing/developing ICC suggest that individuals who come from certain societies are likely to be more affectively ready than their counterparts who come from other societies. This requires further research that considers non-Western societies.

In conclusion, the SA context may be a promising setting for developing ICC. This study, however, emphasized that this will not be the case when SA students are left to their own devices. Moreover, in response to calls from previous research to examine the others' perspective about ICC (Pusch, 1994; Deardorff, 2014), the present study investigated SA students' ICC from the perspective of their teachers, investigating the appropriateness aspect of

ICC. Adding teachers' perspectives and assessments of students to students' self-reporting about ICC proved to be a promising approach to elicit data on ICC development. Using Deardorff's model to obtain teachers' perspectives, as done in this study, could guide future research as well as SA program administrators in building curricula and materials for the sake of developing ICC in both students and teachers. To the best of my knowledge, this study adopted Deardorff's widely used model for the first time in assessing Arab SA students' ICC, coupled with Hofstede's dimensions of values (Hofstede, 1983), which could pave the way for further research to come up with a non-biased universal ICC model.

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CHAPTER 3: SAUDI STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF MEMBERS OF THE SAUDI AND US CULTURES

Abstract

This longitudinal study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to gain insight into Saudi students' perception of members of their own national culture as well as members of the US American culture. This study aimed to determine potential changes of perception during the first four months of study in an ESL program at a Southwestern university in the USA. The study used pre- and post-surveys, interviews, and journals. Results showed that members of the two cultures (Saudis vs. Americans) were perceived by the Saudi SA participants to be remarkably different with respect to two domains, namely, work-related and relationships-related attributes. It also found that the perceptions of Saudis and US Americans reported in the pre-survey were mostly confirmed in the post-survey at the end of the semester-long period of study. Findings suggest that the Saudi students still used their home frame of reference after four months of study in the US.

Introduction

The English proverb "What do they know of England who only England know" captures the essence of what is usually sought by study abroad (SA) programs that endeavor to promote intercultural competence (ICC) for their SA students in the quest for more understanding between people of different cultures.

Perceptions become realities to the people who hold them, and people who lack cross-cultural experience can easily misunderstand the attitudes and behaviors they confront. Americans, for example, are notoriously ill-informed about the Mideast. In turn, the average Mideastern individual may be keenly interested in American political policies but actually knows very little about Western societies. Each side has enormous misconceptions about the other (Nydal, 2002, xi).

This is further explained by Coleman (1998, p. 46) who stated that

> underpinning many of the tacit assumptions concerning student residence abroad is the belief that "to know them is to love them": that residence will inevitably lead to cultural understanding and that this in turn will lead to more positive attitudes, which will feed into improved language acquisition in a virtuous spiral.

Kinginger (2011) sees a significant value in SA for ICC by arguing that "if one goal of language learning is to see things from the point of view of others, that is, to develop true intercultural understanding, then study abroad has much to be recommended" (p. 63).

Saudis Studying in the US

After the 2005 meeting between King Abdullah and George W. Bush, a joint statement was issued. The statement emphasized that "we [Saudis and Americans] must work to expand dialogue, understanding, and interactions between our citizens" (as cited in Shaw, 2009, p. 60). The King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) was established afterward, and it increased the number of Saudi students in the USA from 4,000 to almost 53,919 in a decade (Institute of International Education, 2014). However, this population is still under-researched in the literature of ICC.

The Open Doors report of 2014 also shows that Saudi Arabia ranked fourth in the origin of international students in the US but ranked first in the origin of international students in Intensive English Programs in the US. This sheer number of SA Saudi students in the US underscores the significance of the current study that attempts to contribute to the literature of ICC with regard to a population that is under-represented. This lack of studies on Saudi students was recently emphasized by US researchers (Heyn, 2013; Hall, 2013; Shaw, 2009).

This study primarily focused on Saudi students' perceptions of and attitudes toward their own culture and that of US Americans and whether their perceptions change over the period of their first four months of SA at the university's intensive English language program.

This study is a replication of Ecke's (2013) study on a short-term SA program in Germany and differs in terms of the population investigated, SA Saudi students, and that these students study abroad for a longer period of time with the ultimate goal of earning degrees. They are sponsored by KASP, which is run by the Ministry of Education. KASP covers SA students' tuitions, grants them monthly allowances, and provides them with a superior medical insurance.

The following section reviews the relevant literature that investigated the experiences of SA students—with a focus on Saudi students—with regard to their perceptions of their own culture and the host culture. Investigating these perceptions and attitudes is important because they may have an important effect on students' success in learning the target language and their functioning in the target culture.

Literature Review

Stereotyping

Despite the dominant belief that studying abroad is the panacea for language and culture problems, some research (Coleman, 1998; Perrefort, 2008; Ogden, 2008; Ecke, 2013) found that SA may reinforce stereotypes about either the own or the host culture. Several studies regarding the experiences of SA students in Western countries suggest that being abroad for a relatively long-term period does not automatically lead to L2 gains and cultural understanding (Coleman, 1996, 1998; Jackson, 2013; Willis, Doble, Sankarayya, & Smithers, 1977). Coleman (1998) concluded that

> Firstly, language students have clear national stereotypes; secondly, extended residence in the target language community will not influence these stereotypes except to reinforce them; and thirdly, on many qualities a proportion of students will return from residence abroad with a more negative view of the target language community than is held by those who have not undertaken residence abroad (p. 59).

Coleman (1998) found that "extended residence abroad tends to increase the ethnocentricity of some students of French" (p. 53). He also found that upon their return, British students marked people of the host culture down on positive characteristics (e.g., patient, helpful, and friendly) and marked them up on negative characters (e.g., arrogant and impatient). This situation reflected a strengthening of the national stereotype since the trend Coleman found was that "all changes in students' perception of their compatriots seem to have their origin in a changed perception of foreigners" (p. 55). Jurasek (1995) claimed that when "faced with too

much complexity too soon, they [SA students] may fall back on superficial or stereotypical interpretations, dismiss or demean the 'other' as irrelevant or insignificant, or defer to authorities who tell them what to think" (as cited in Ogden, 2008, p. 50). Especially relevant to the current study is the finding of Coleman's (1998) study related to learners of Russian who harshly judged the Russians on all qualities possibly because the latter were the least known to the British students according to Coleman (p. 54). For instance, a study found that because of lack of knowledge about each other, Saudis and US Americans have formed enormous misconceptions about each other (Nydal, 2002, xi).

Some studies indicated that lack of contact with members of host cultures in SA programs could result in negative stereotyping (Perrefort, 2008; Ogden, 2008, Jackson, 2013) or "cultural misunderstandings, disappointment or frustration, more negative perceptions of/attitudes towards the members of the other culture, a decrease in integrative motivation" (Coleman, 1998; Conacher, 2008; Masgoret et al., 2000; Wilkinson, 2000). According to Perrefort (2008) and Ogden (2008), SA students described themselves as "spectators," indicating their frustration of their inability to engage in meaningful local interactions (as cited in Kinginger, 2013, p. 346). Jackson (2013, p. 200) found that her Asian subject's negative stereotyping and perceptions of the Canadian people led him to limit his interactions with them (p. 199). By contrast, Langley and Breese (2005) found that "most students reported that their attitudes toward other cultures have become less judgmental and that they stereotype people of other cultures less" (p. 320).

SA programs may be used as a counter-stereotyping educational experience. Hilal (2013, p. 203) found that "25% of Saudi students presume that KASP is assisting non-Arabs, in the

hosting countries, to correct the false stereotype of Islam and of Saudi Arabia. That seems to be a goal for Saudi Arabia to achieve through its students as its ambassadors." This is represented in the speech given by Sulaiman Abal-khail, the (then) rector of Imam Saud Islamic University and former minister of Islamic Affairs, to the Saudi students who are in the USA as he urged them to focus on their studies first and then to "participate in the American's activities that may increase the awareness of those people about the tolerance, flexibilities and good manners that Muslims and Saudis acquire." This piece of advice is of related importance since understanding of the other is seen to come through the gate of attitudes (Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2004). Parker (1976) "confirms Middle Eastern students' need for others to respect their people, religion, country and customs" (as cited in Hofer, 2009, p. 211).

Similarly, Aboummoh, Smith and Duwais (2014) argued,

> Studying in North America allows Saudi students to communicate the nature and values of Arab culture and society to North American peers in a positive and unambiguous manner, thus lessening the negative perceptions held by some Americans and Canadians about Arabs and Muslims (p. 48).

Perception of and Attitude to Own Culture

Previous longitudinal studies (Ecke, 2013; Bicknese, 1974) found that SA students tended to show more positive attitudes toward their own culture at the end of SA than before SA. Ecke (2013) found that the participants' generally positive attitudes toward people of their own culture significantly changed at the end of the summer program as the participants "revalued and appreciated certain attributes of their own culture much more at the end of the program." Ecke

(2013) argued that "learning about oneself, accepting, and appreciating traits of one's own culture (without depreciating the other) could and should be an important learning outcome of study abroad" (as cited in Ecke, 2014, p. 127).

Langley and Breese (2005) found that "some [students] reported a more critical and, at the same time, more appreciative view of their own culture" (p. 320). This was the case in the study that Hall (2013) conducted on Saudis in the USA. Interestingly, Hall found that because of their interactions with other Saudis of a different sect or opposite gender, which is "atypical in Saudi Arabia" (p. 72), Saudis' perceptions and attitudes were significantly affected toward more positive attitudes/perceptions of other Saudis. Hall noted that Saudis' ghettoization reinforced such changes in attitudes and perceptions. It however resulted in lack of contact with Americans, although this lack of contact was essentially a result of students' low proficiency, discomfort using English, and significant reliance on their compatriots upon their arrival and throughout their stay to face continued difficulties (Hall, 2013, p. 77). Having said that, Hall noted that this does not suggest that SA Saudis are "failing to learn about American culture and change because of it, rather they are also experiencing a great deal of intra-cultural learning and are changing their ideas and values about members of their own culture as well," but at the same time posed a question about whether KASP achieved its goal of cultural exchange (2013, p. 116).

Some studies also found that Saudi/Gulf students positively changed their perception/attitude toward gender roles because of their SA (Alhazmi & Nyland, 2010, 2013; Akhtarkhavari, 1994; Alshaya, 2005; Al-Sawad, 1991; El-Banyan, 1974; Hall, 2013; Heyn, 2013). Alhazmi and Nyland (2013), for instance, found that studying in a mixed-gender environment helped students develop "self-confidence, self-reliance and sense of freedom."

Heyen (2013) and Alshaya (2005) found that Saudis had a positive shift in their attitude toward women's rights of driving and employment. El-Banyan (1974) and Heyn (2013) found a change in Saudis' traditional values concerning women and that after studying in the United States, participants showed "more favorable attitudes about women's emancipation."

Perception of and Attitude to Host Culture

A number of SA studies suggested that participation in relatively long-term programs abroad "does not automatically result in more positive attitudes towards members of the target culture" (Coleman, 1996, 1998; Conacher, 2008; Willis et al., 1977), although mostly an overall positive experience abroad is reported by their participants (as cited in Ecke, 2014, p. 127). Furthermore, counter-intuitive lack of language proficiency and contact with people of the host cultures may result in cultural misunderstandings, more negative perceptions of/attitudes toward the members of the other culture, and a decrease in integrative motivation (Coleman, 1996, 1998; Conacher, 2008; Masgoret et al., 2000; Wilkinson, 2000).

On the other hand, Langley and Breese (2005) found that "most students reported that their attitudes toward other cultures have become less judgmental and that they stereotype people of other cultures less. Others expressed an increased desire to learn of other cultures" (p. 320). In a longitudinal study on Americans who studied for a summer program, Ecke (2013) found that the participants' (mostly positive) attitudes toward the people of the host culture did not change during SA, whereas Bicknese's (1974) study on Americans who participated in a one-year long program abroad suggested that in general more favorable attitudes existed toward the host culture (as cited in Ecke, 2014, p. 126). Conacher's (2008) study of year-abroad participants

found that although SA students characterized the people of the host culture as friendly and helpful, they were disappointed because they were treated as foreigners (as cited in Ecke, 2014, p. 127). An interesting finding in SA research was that "work placement might be linked to more favorable judgments, and a studentship to less favorable judgments" (Coleman, 1998; Willis et al., 1977; Meara, 1994).

Saudi SA students' negative perception of US Americans before coming to the USA was found to have changed into more positive ones (Al-Khedaire, 1978; Heyn, 2013; Jammaz, 1972). More specifically, Heyn (2013) and Jammaz (1972) found that Saudi SA participants found that the US Americans were friendlier than they had originally perceived. Saudi SA students also believed that they had become more respectful for other cultures and more open-minded (Heyn, 2013; Akhtarkhavari, 1994).

In addition, Saudi SA students' attitudes toward US Americans were found to have changed to favorable ones as a result of SA (Al-Khedaire, 1978; Almorshedi, 2011; Heyn, 2013; Hofer, 2013; Akhtarkhavari, 1994; Alreshoud & Koeske, 1997). Al-Khedaire (1978) attributed Saudis' changed perceptions and attitudes to their ability to engage into the local community and their higher level of study that helped them form more sophisticated perceptions. Similarly, Akhtarkhavari (1994) found that the Saudi SA participants noted that their SA experience had positively affected their perceptions of US Americans and helped them understand other cultures more. Almorshedi (2011) found that Saudi SA participants "appreciate that Americans respect other people. Positive communication with American classmates strengthens Emirati and Saudi students' relationships with Americans, which facilitates cooperation and assistance" (p. 166).

Some studies with different lengths (Conacher, 2008; Ecke, 2012; Hall, 2013) found that SA participants held favorable attitudes/perceptions about the other, but at the same time those who studied in long-period programs (one year and more than two years) felt disappointed because of lack of contact with the people of the host culture (Conacher, 2008; Hall, 2013). This situation suggests that when left to their own devices, students are much less likely to benefit from this intercultural experience. Hofer (2009) noted that Saudi SA students ranked lack of contact with the host culture as one of the major concerns for adjustment in the USA. Other studies (Alreshoud & Koeske, 1997; Al-Jasir, 1993; Jammaz, 1972) reported low level of interaction of Saudi SA students with US Americans. This may result in more stagnation of original perceptions and attitudes or even to more negative ones.

In Hall's (2013) study, some Saudi SA students would state that they would change perceptions and attitudes only temporarily and would "abandon some of their changed attitudes upon returning home" because fears and concerns of the Saudi society (p. 123). At the time of writing this literature review, a Saudi religious and influential scholar harshly criticized people who would send their children abroad claiming that this would negatively affect the way they think, alluding to a recent heated debate in Saudi Arabia about the right of women to drive and to uncover their faces. Peculiarly enough, it was claimed that in the Saudi society, "the extra open-mindedness can be negative from the religion's perspective" (Hilal, 2013, p. 207). This type of social or ideological authority may require certain attitudes toward the other.

Summary of Research

The review of the literature shows that studying abroad can, in different ways, affect the participants' attitudes and perceptions toward both their own culture and the host culture. Research showed that studying abroad may reinforce stereotyping (Coleman, 1998; Ecke, 2012, 2013; Perrefort, 2008; Ogden, 2008) either positively (Langley & Breese, 2005) or even negatively (Coleman, 1998). However, in research focusing on Saudis, studying abroad was a means for counter-stereotyping (Hilal, 2013; Aboummoh et al., 2014).

Research showed that studying abroad has changed perceptions of and attitudes toward their own culture in a way that is critical but favorable (Ecke, 2012, 2013; Bicknese, 1974; Langley & Breese, 2005; Hall, 2013) with some perceptions/attitudes revolving around gender roles in the case of studies on the Saudis (Alhazmi & Nyland, 2010; Akhtarkhavari, 1994; Alshaya, 2005; Al-Sawad, 1991; El-Banyan, 1974; Hall, 2013; Heyn, 2013).

Research also showed that studying abroad has sometimes changed perceptions of and attitudes toward the host culture, albeit not automatically (Coleman, 1996, 1998; Conacher, 2008; Willis et al., 1977). Some research on Saudis found that their perceptions/attitudes toward the US Americans changed into more positive ones (Al-Khedaire, 1978; Almorshedi, 2011; Heyn, 2013; Hofer, 2013; Akhtarkhavari, 1994; Alreshoud & Koeske, 1997).

Forming negative stereotypes, perceptions, and attitudes could be a result of lack of contact between sojourners and local communities (Coleman, 1996, 1998; Perrefort, 2008; Ogden, 2008; Conacher, 2008; Masgoret et al., 2000; Wilkinson, 2000), and some research

found that "work placement might be linked to more favorable judgments, and a studentship to less favorable judgments" (Coleman, 1998; Willis et al., 1977; Meara, 1994).

Research Question

The literature review has shown considerable variation in the effects of SA on participants' perceptions of and attitudes toward members of their own culture and members of the target culture. Given that such perceptions and attitudes are potentially important factors that affect learning, communication, and appropriate functioning in the target culture, the present study explores them at the beginning of Saudi students' SA stays in the USA and after four months. This study particularly investigates the following research question related to the Saudi students' perception of/attitude toward their own culture/the host culture:

2. To what extent do Saudi students' attitudes toward and assumptions about the US culture and their own culture change during the first four months of study in the USA?

Methodology

This longitudinal study used both quantitative and qualitative methods to gain more insight into Saudi students' change of perception during their first four months of study at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) in Tucson, Arizona. The study used pre- and post-surveys, interviews, and journals to collect data, as described in detail below.

Participants

The participants in this study were 27 Saudi learners studying at CESL and composed of 5 females (19%) and 22 males (81%). Of those students, six kept journals (Student 24 excluded for writing off topic), and five were interviewed. The participants were quite heterogeneous with respect to their English language proficiency. Table 1 provides information about the participants' self-rated proficiency in English as a second language. Upon their arrival, the students also took a placement test administered by CESL and were placed as follows: 18 students (67%) were placed at the beginning levels (10–30), 8 (30%) were placed at the intermediate levels (40–50), and only one student (3%) was placed at the advanced level (60). After four months of study, 10 students (37%) were at the beginning levels (10–30), 13 (48%) were at the intermediate levels (40–50), and 4 (15%) were at the advanced levels (60–70).

As for their levels of education, 14 students (52%) are expected to enroll in undergraduate studies, whereas 13 students (48%) will complete their graduate studies after fulfilling the language requirements necessary for admission.

Regarding their experience with SA before joining CESL, the majority of the participants (81%) have had no experience studying abroad prior to coming to the USA. Eleven percent of the students came to CESL transferring from other US-based ESL programs after studying for an average of around six months, whereas 7% reported having studied in the United Kingdom for ESL summer programs for two months before joining the scholarship program.

As for students' L2 proficiency, Table 14 below summarizes the students' L2 proficiency self-rating level.

Table 14. Participants' self-rated proficiency in English as a second language

		Score						Totals
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Pre	Count	2	4	5	11	5	0	27
	% of total	7%	15%	19%	41%	19%	0%	100%
Post	Count	0	2	0	11	12	2	27
	% of total	0%	7%	0%	41%	44%	7%	100%

Note. Scale ranges from 1 to 6: 1 = lower beginner, 2 = upper beginner, 3 = lower intermediate, 4 = upper intermediate, 5 = lower advanced, 6 = upper advanced.

Materials and Procedure

Surveys. A first survey inquired about the participants' language and cultural background (Appendix A), and pre- and post-surveys were administered to the participants upon their arrival and after four months to investigate potential changes in their perception of the Saudi and American cultures (Appendix C). This survey adopts a semantic differential technique to measure the participants' attitudes toward their own culture and the US American culture. It consists of 23 adjectives, and the participants rate the people of their own culture and the people of the host culture on a rating scale of 1 to 4 (1 = does not apply at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently). The survey was adapted from Ecke (2012). This tool is originally adapted from

Pickett (1993). The instruments were translated into Arabic by the researcher, and the translation was double-checked by a fellow PhD candidate who is a native speaker and a teacher of Arabic. The first round of surveys was also used as a pilot.

Data from the pre-surveys and the post-surveys were collected, coded, and analyzed. A comparison of mean scores of pre- and post-survey assessments via paired t-tests was conducted to test for significance of changes of perceptions and attitude. Items that showed significant changes were also displayed as percentages of responses given to each score in both pre- and post-data.

Journals. A total of 65 journal entries (3,135 total words) on students' perceptions of their own culture and the host culture were collected. The students used Google Docs to write their entries and shared them with the researcher. Six students agreed to participate in keeping journals for the period of study (Student 24 was excluded for writing off topic). They were sent e-mails stating simply that they need to write how they see people of their own culture and people of the host culture and to note whether their pre-perceptions changed over the four months of study in the USA.

Interviews. Around four hours (237 minutes) of semi-structured interviews were conducted with five Saudi SA participants four months after their first arrival to check for any changes of perceptions/attitudes about their own culture and the target culture. The students were asked to reflect on how their perceptions of/attitudes toward their own culture and the host culture were before arrival compared with their perception after four months of study in Arizona. Three participants were interviewed in person, one using Skype and the only one female participant

using a synchronous Google doc. Interviews were recorded, transcribed, and coded as described below.

Data Analysis. MAXQDA software was used to collect the qualitative documents which were then exported as Excel document to code segments from both interviews and journals based on the quantitative results from the post-survey.

Data generated from the Saudi SA participants' interviews and journals were analyzed. The texts were searched multiple times to investigate the research question under study, that is, whether changes were found in the perception and attitude after four months of studying in Arizona in relation to perception of and attitude to the host culture and the home culture. Drawing on the quantitative survey, students' perceptions were categorized wherever they expressed a perception of or an attitude toward their own culture or host culture. Categories were similar to the attributes from the quantitative survey. They were "hardworking," "efficient," "serious," "lazy," "helpful," "friendly," and "tolerant." These categories were intended to ascertain whether the qualitative findings support the quantitative findings or not.

Results

To answer the research question about the changes of perceptions that the participants could show after four months of SA, examining the general picture of the results is important before getting into the details.

Perception of Own Culture and Host Culture Pre-Program

Table 15 and Figure 11 show that at the beginning of the SA program, SA Saudi participants ranked their own people significantly higher than US Americans in eight attributes mostly related to stereotypical images of Arabs and personality-related attributes (emotional, lazy, impatient, honorable, generous, shy, stubborn, and loud). By contrast, the participants ranked US Americans significantly higher than Saudis in eight work-related attributes (calm, hardworking, thrifty, confident, serious, efficient, competent, and patient). In seven other attributes, no significant differences were found between how the participants perceived Saudis and US Americans (friendly, logical, helpful, good-humored, tolerant, honest, and arrogant).

Table 15. Mean scores of attributes that best describe members of both cultures at the beginning of the study abroad program

Attributes	Saudi sig. higher		Attributes	US sig. higher		Attributes	Saudi = US	
	Saudi *M*	US *M*		US *M*	Saudis *M*		Saudis *M*	US *M*
Emotional**	3.5	2.8	Calm**	3.0	2.5	Friendly	3.1	3.3
Lazy***	2.7	1.9	Hardworking***	3.6	2.8	Logical	2.9	3.1
Impatient***	3.4	2.4	Thrifty***	3.9	2.2	Helpful	3.5	3.5
Honorable***	3.7	2.8	Confident***	3.5	2.6	Good-humored	3.4	3.3

Generous***	3.9	1.9	Serious***	3.7	2.6	Tolerant	3.1	2.7
Shy**	2.7	1.8	Efficient***	3.7	2.7	Honest	3.2	2.9
Stubborn**	3.3	2.6	Competent***	3.7	3.0	Arrogant	2.7	2.3
Loud**	3.2	2.6	Patient**	3.1	2.5			

Note. Attributes were rated on a four-point scale from 1 = not at all to 4 = frequently.

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

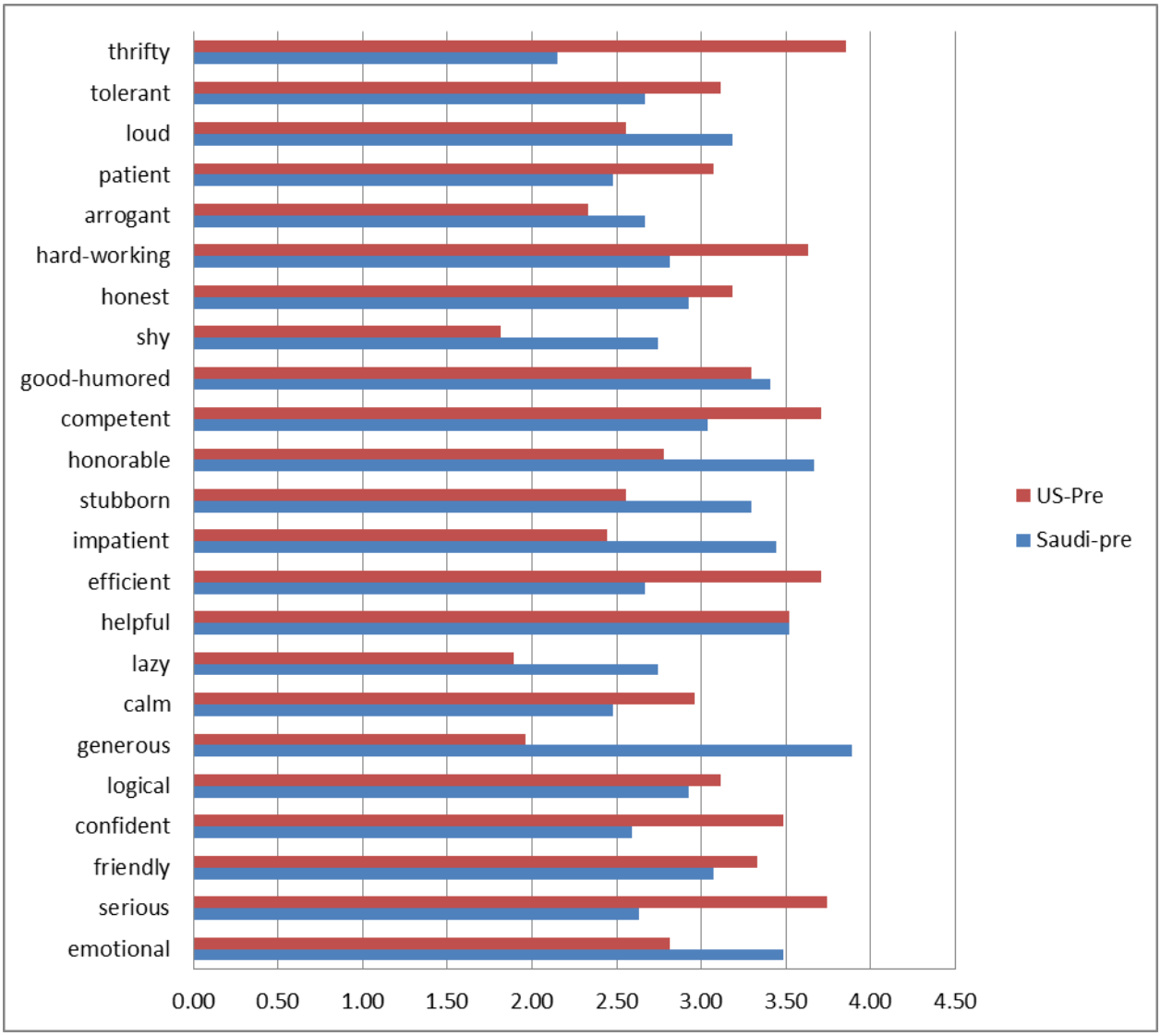

Figure 12. Graphic illustration of mean scores of attributes that best describe members of own and other at the beginning of the SA program

Perception of Own Culture: Quantitative Analysis

After four months of study, the participants showed no significant changes in their perceptions of attributes shared by members of their own culture. However, four changes were approaching significance, namely, confident (p = .057), shy (p = .083), lazy (p = .083), and loud (p = .088). Table 16 presents the pre- and post-survey data from paired sample t-tests. The percentages of score distributions in pre- and post-surveys are presented only for changes that approached significance.

Changes of Perception

Table 16 and Figure 13 show the attributes on which Saudi SA students rated their fellow Saudis in both the pre- and post-surveys. Table 16 shows that no statistically significant changes were found in perceptions during the first four months of study. In other words, overall, the participants' perceptions of members of their own culture are stable. However, out of the 23 attributes investigated, only four showed differences that approached significance. After four months of studying abroad, Saudis were perceived to have been shyer (p = .083) but more frequently louder (p = .088), more confident (p = .057), and lazier (p = .083). Notably, the two former attributes are more of personality traits that are linked to interaction between individuals and relationship with others, whereas the latter, "confident" and "lazy," are probably more linked to work-related attributes.

Table 16. Mean scores of attributes that best describe members of own (Saudi) culture in pre- and post-program surveys

Attributes	Pre-program		Post-program		*t*	*p*-value
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Friendly	3.07	.7299	3.22	.6980	−.891	0.381
Confident	2.59	.7473	2.96	.7586	−1.991	0.057
Efficient	2.67	.6202	2.74	.7121	−.440	0.663
Stubborn	3.30	.7753	3.26	.7642	.238	0.814
Good-humored	3.41	.6360	3.56	.6405	−.848	0.404
Shy	2.74	.9443	3.07	.7299	−1.803	0.083
Honest	2.93	.6752	3.11	.7511	−1.412	0.170
Arrogant	2.67	.9199	2.56	.8473	.500	0.621

Patient	2.48	.8024	2.67	.7338	−1.095	0.284
Tolerant	2.67	1.0377	2.89	.8006	−1.295	0.207
Generous	3.89	.3203	3.89	.4237	0.000	1.000
Logical	2.93	.6752	2.89	.8006	.273	0.787
Lazy	2.74	.7121	3.07	.7808	−1.803	0.083
Helpful	3.52	.5798	3.33	.6794	1.224	0.232
Impatient	3.44	.6980	3.56	.5064	−.593	0.558
Honorable	3.67	.4804	3.52	.6427	1.280	0.212
Competent	3.04	.6493	2.93	.6752	.721	0.477
Hardworking	2.81	.6815	2.67	.7338	1.000	0.327

Loud	3.19	.7863	3.48	.6427	−1.772	0.088
Thrifty	2.15	.7698	2.11	.8473	.205	0.839
Serious	2.63	.6877	2.63	.6877	0.000	1.000
Calm	2.48	.6427	2.48	.8490	0.000	1.000
Emotional	3.48	.6427	3.37	.7917	.901	.376

Note. Attributes were rated on a four-point scale from 1 = not at all to 4 = frequently.

$N = 27$, $*p < .05$

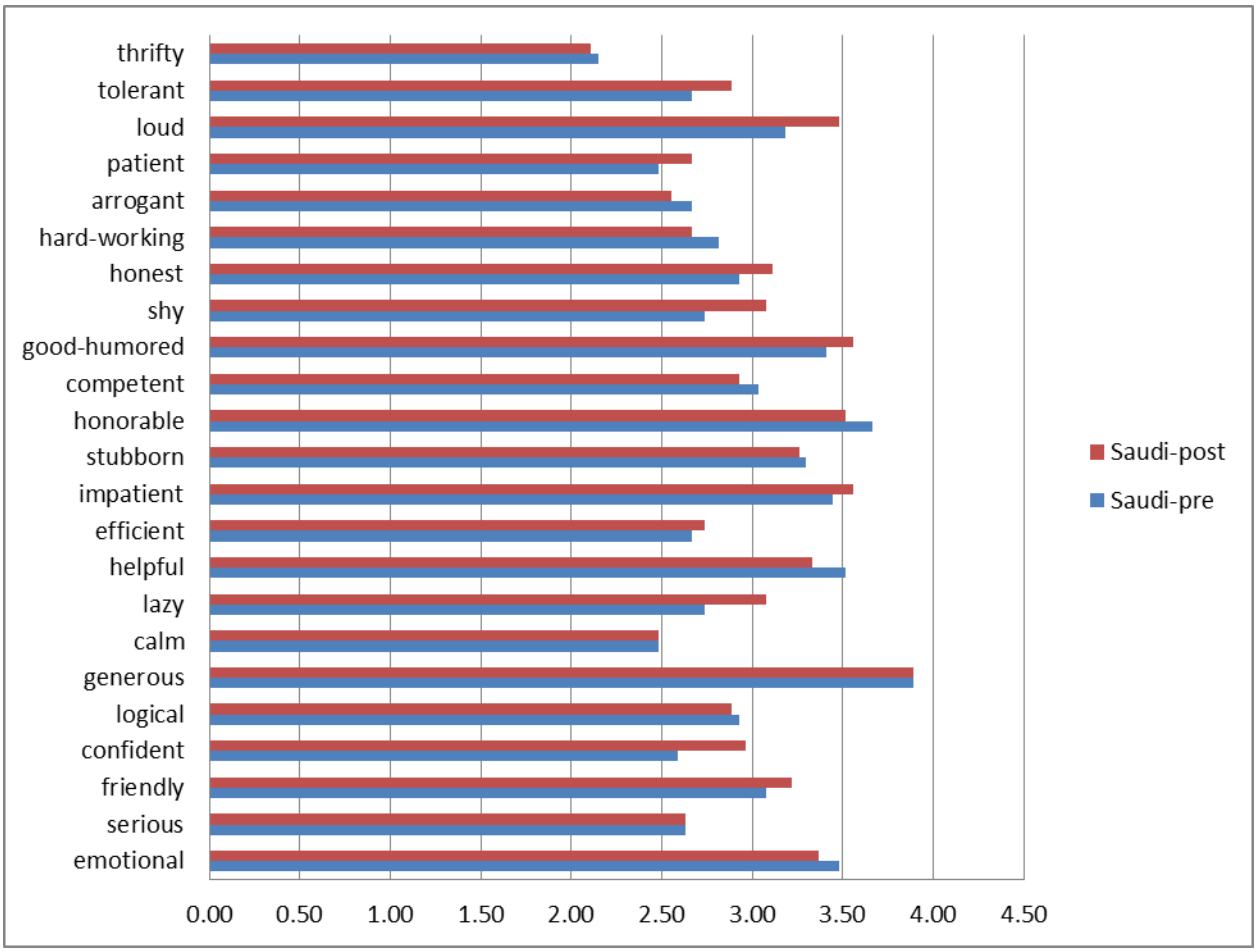

Figure 13. Graphic illustration of mean scores of attributes that best describe members of own culture in pre- and post-program

Confident. Saudi SA students' perception of fellow Saudis to be "confident" showed a nearly significant increase (p = .057), moving the mean of perception of Saudis up to be sometimes "confident" (M = 2.96) in the post-survey from less so (M = 2.59) in the pre-survey. A closer look at the percentages of each score given for "confident" could shed some more light upon this nearly significant change in the perception, as shown in Table 17.

Table 17. Scores given to attribute “confident”

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of total	Count	% of Total
1	1	4%	0	0%
2	12	44%	8	30%
3	11	41%	12	44%
4	3	11%	7	26%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

*Note.*1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Table 17 shows how participants perceived fellow Saudis’ confidence in the pre- and post-tests with regard to each score given. The vast majority of students (70%) in the post-survey perceived that fellow Saudis are sometimes or frequently “confident” compared with 52% upon their arrival, showing more appreciation of Saudis’ confidence.

Shy. Saudi SA students’ perception of fellow Saudis to be “shy” was another change that approached significance (p = .083). The perception of Saudis to be sometimes “shy” increased from the pre survey (M = 2.74) to the post-survey (M = 3.07) . Table 18 below illustrates the changes of scores in detail.

Table 18. Scores given to attribute “shy”

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	3	11%	0	0%
2	7	26%	6	22%
3	11	41%	13	48%
4	6	22%	8	30%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

*Note.*1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Table 18 shows that the vast majority of students (78%) in the post-survey perceived that fellow Saudis are sometimes or frequently “shy” compared with 63% in the pre-survey.

Lazy. Saudi SA students’ perception of member of the own culture to be “lazy” increase somewhat but not reaching significance (p = .083). The mean of perception of Saudis to be sometimes “lazy” increased to M = 3.07 in the post-survey from M = 2.74. in the pre-survey Table 19 shows the percentages of each score given for “lazy”.

More students (74%) in the post-survey perceived that fellow Saudis are sometimes or frequently “lazy” compared to fewer students (67%) upon their arrival, showing an increased unfavorable perception of Saudis’ laziness.

Table 19. Scores given to attribute “lazy”

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of total	Count	% of total
1	1	4%	0	0%
2	8	30%	7	26%
3	15	56%	11	41%
4	3	11%	9	33%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

*Note.*1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Loud. Another attribute that showed a nearly significant increase (p = .088) was “loud”. Saudis were more frequently perceived as loud in the post-survey (M = 3.47) than in the pre-survey (M = 3.19). The percentages of each score given for “loud” are shown in Table 20.

A percentage of 93% of participants in the post-test perceived that Saudis were either sometimes or frequently loud compared with 85% of participants in the pre-test.

Table 20. Scores given to attribute “loud”

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	1	4%	0	0%
2	3	11%	2	7%
3	13	48%	10	37%
4	10	37%	15	56%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

*Note.*1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

The participants appeared to hold nearly stable perceptions after four months of SA with regard to the attributes investigated in general. Only four qualities approached significance as presented above. After four months of studying abroad, the students’ perception of their compatriots appeared to have increased nearly significantly for “lazy” and “shy” but increased also for “confident” and “loud.” In the pre-program survey, the participants had rated members of the Saudi culture as being more frequently “lazy,” “loud,” and “shy” than Americans. In the post-program survey, these ratings were confirmed and strengthened, that is, preconceptions about Saudis were reinforced. Only the attribute “confident” appears to reflect beginning change. Saudis who were initially rated less “confident” than Americans were rated somewhat higher with respect to being “confident” in the post-program survey.

For the majority of the qualities, the means showed that scores apply sometimes or frequently. However, in the pre-program survey, three qualities showed means representing "this quality rarely applies." These qualities were "thrifty," "patient," and "calm." In the post-program-survey, only two qualities showed means representing "this quality rarely applies." These qualities were "thrifty" and "calm." "Generosity" is ranked the highest with no change after four months.

Perception of Host Culture

Table 21 shows the attributes at which Saudi SA students rated people of the host culture (US Americans) in both the pre- and post-surveys. The table shows that only three statistically significant changes and one change that approached significance in perceptions were found at the end of the first four months of study. Therefore, again, the overall result demonstrates that the majority of pre-perceptions had stayed stable over a semester. The differences in perception of Americans and Saudis persist also in the post-program survey. However, some changes with respect to attributes shared by Americans were found at the end of the program compared with the beginning that suggests some revision of perceptions. Compared with the beginning of the program, Americans were perceived to have been somewhat more shy (p = .010) and more lazy (p = .031) but less thrifty (p = .010) and less good-humored (p = .058). The attributes "shy" and "good-humored" are more of personality traits that are linked to interaction between individuals and relationship with others, whereas "thrifty" and "lazy" are more of work-related attributes. At least in these attributes, the participants appeared to start revising their initial preconceptions of Americans based on their experiences in the host country.

Table 21 and Figure 14 present the pre- and post-survey data. Table 21 includes the results from paired sample t-tests. The percentages of score distributions in the pre- and post-surveys are then presented only for changes that showed/approached significance.

Table 21. Mean scores of attributes that best describe members of host (US American) culture in pre- and post-program surveys

	Pre-program		Post-program			
Attributes	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*-value
Friendly	3.333	.7338	3.222	.8006	.648	.523
Confident	3.481	.5798	3.593	.5724	−.901	.376
Efficient	3.704	.5417	3.815	.3958	−1.000	.327
Stubborn	2.556	.7511	2.778	.6980	−1.185	.247
Good-humored	3.296	.7753	3.000	.7845	1.986	.058
Shy*	1.815	.8338	2.333	.7338	−2.762	.010
Honest	3.185	.7357	3.407	.6360	−1.237	.227
Arrogant	2.333	.6202	2.370	.8389	−.189	.852

Patient	3.074	.7808	2.963	.7061	.681	.502
Tolerant	3.111	.9740	3.259	.7642	−.642	.527
Generous	1.963	.7586	1.852	.8640	.648	.523
Logical	3.111	.6980	3.259	.7121	−.848	.404
Lazy*	1.889	.6405	2.296	.9121	−2.275	.031
Helpful	3.519	.5092	3.333	.7338	1.412	.170
Impatient	2.444	.7511	2.481	.5798	−.225	.823
Honorable	2.778	.7511	2.815	.6815	−.225	.823
Competent	3.704	.5417	3.630	.4921	.527	.602
Hardworking	3.630	.5649	3.704	.5417	−.493	.626
Loud	2.556	.8006	2.519	.7530	.205	.839
Thrifty*	3.852	.3620	3.519	.6427	2.793	.010
Serious	3.741	.5257	3.667	.5547	1.000	.327
Calm	2.963	.7586	3.148	.6015	−1.224	.232

Emotional	2.815	.7863	3.000	.6794	−1.308	.202

Note. Attributes were rated on a four-point scale from 1 = not at all to 4 = frequently.

$N = 27$, $*p < .05$

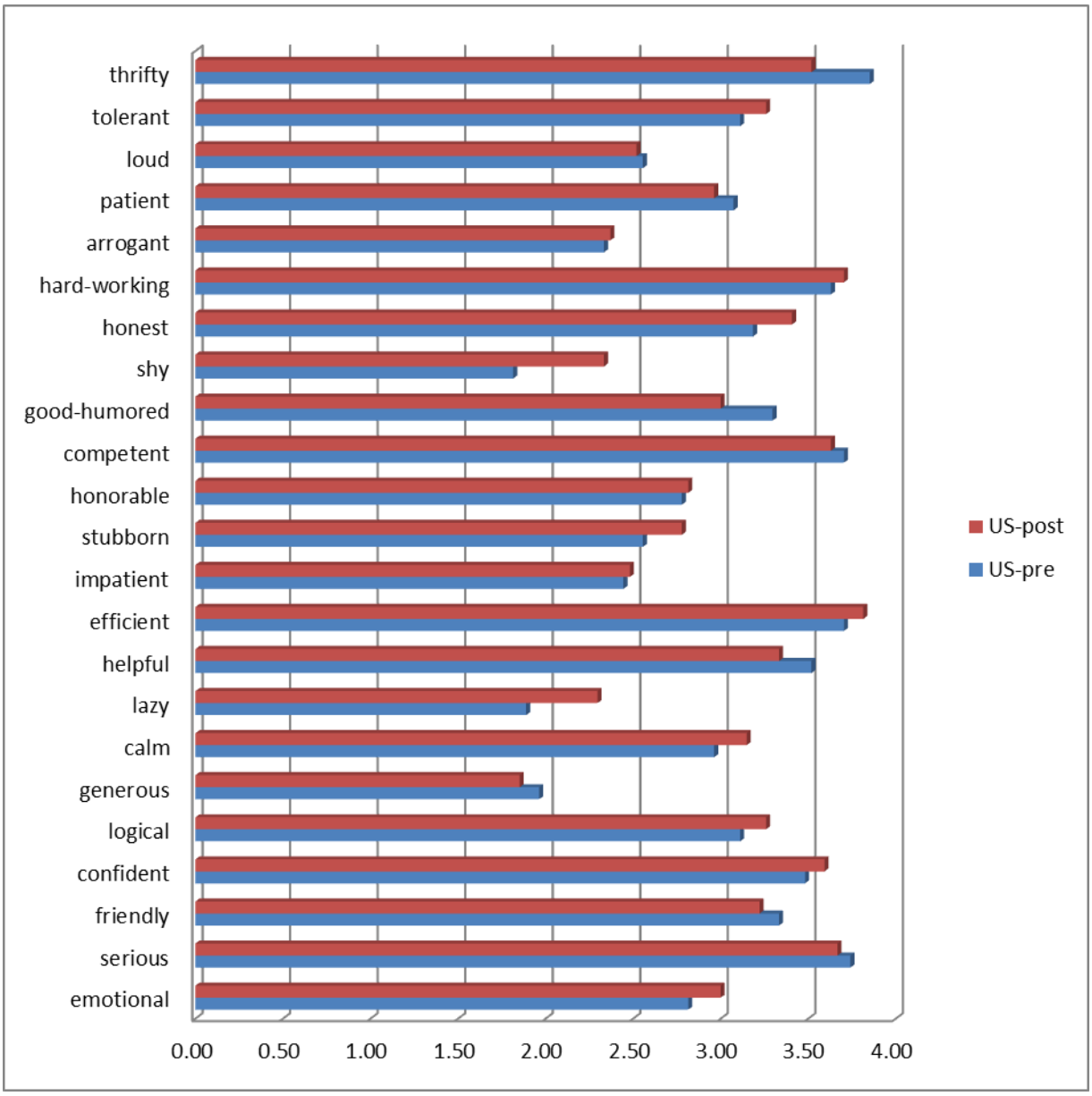

Figure 14. Graphic illustration of mean scores of attributes that best describe members of host culture in pre- and post-program

Changes of Perception

As mentioned above, only three significant changes and one nearly significant change in perceptions were shown by the Saudi participants. The attributes are investigated more by examining the percentages of score distributions in the pre- and post-surveys.

Shy. Saudi SA students' perception of US Americans to be "shy" showed a significant increase (p = .01). While the overall perception of US Americans in the post-survey as "shy" was rare (M = 2.33), the perception of US Americans in the pre-survey as "shy" was even lower (M = 1.81). Table 22 provides a closer look at the percentages of each score given for "shy". It shows that most students (59%) in the post-survey still perceived that US Americans are not at all or rarely "shy." This percentage, however, decreased from 82% in the pre-survey.

Table 22. Scores given to attribute "shy"

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	11	41%	3	11%
2	11	41%	13	48%
3	4	15%	10	37%
4	1	4%	1	4%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

Note. 1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Lazy. Saudi SA students' perception of US Americans to be "lazy" showed a significant increase (p = .03). However, the perception is still that US Americans are rarely "lazy" in the post-survey

(*M* = 2.30) compared with US Americans perceived as more rarely "lazy" in the pre-survey (*M* = 1.89). Table 23 shows how the Saudi participants perceived US Americans' laziness in the pre- and post-tests with regard to each score given. The result demonstrates that the number of participants who perceived that US Americans are sometimes or frequently "lazy" has more than doubled from only 15% upon their arrival to 37% after four months, a change that suggests a more realistic perception of US Americans' work attitudes.

Table 23. Scores given to attribute "lazy"

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	7	26%	5	19%
2	16	59%	12	44%
3	4	15%	7	26%
4	0	0%	3	11%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

Note. 1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Thrifty. Saudi SA students' perception of US Americans to be "thrifty" showed a significant decrease (p = .01). However, US Americans are still perceived to have been frequently "thrifty" in the post-survey (*M* = 3.52) compared with having been perceived as more frequently "thrifty" in the pre-survey (*M* = 3.82). Table 24 shows how Saudis perceived US Americans' thriftiness in the pre- and post-tests with regard to each score given. Saudi students appeared to be adjusting

their stereotype of Americans being frequently "thrifty." A total of 85% perceived US Americans as frequently thrifty in the pre-survey compared with 59% doing so in the post-survey. Although the majority of participants still perceived US Americans as frequently "thrifty," this result is an indication of a significant change in a national stereotype.

Table 24. Scores given to attribute "thrifty"

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	0	0%	0	0%
2	0	0%	2	7%
3	4	15%	9	33%
4	23	85%	16	59%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

Note. 1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Good-humored. Saudi SA students' perception of US Americans to be "good-humored" showed a nearly significant decrease (p = .058) from M = 3.30 in the pre-survey to M = 3.00 in the post-survey.

Table 25 shows that, although the majority of participants still hold more positive perceptions of Americans' humoredness after four months of study, a growing number of participants appear to re-evaluate this quality. Nearly one-third of participants ranked US Americans as rarely "good-humored" in the post-survey compared with 19% in the pre-survey. This result could suggest that

sense of humor is culture-specific and that students might have had difficulty grasping what could be considered humorous in the host culture.

Table 25. Scores given to attribute "good-humored"

	Pre		Post	
Score	Count	% of Total	Count	% of Total
1	0	0%	0	0%
2	5	19%	8	30%
3	9	33%	11	41%
4	13	48%	8	30%
Totals	27	100%	27	100%

Note. 1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently.

Post-Program Perceptions of Own Culture and Host Culture

Quantitative results. After four months of SA, the SA Saudi participants mostly kept the same ranking of attributes to each group with only three changes in how they perceived attributes of "emotional," "patient," and "good-humored." In the pre-survey, the participants perceived that Saudis and US Americans are similar in being good-humored. However, after four months, the participants perceived their own people to have been significantly higher than US Americans in "good-humored," which could be attributed to the more freedom and flexibility they experienced in the classrooms compared with the strict setting in Saudi classrooms that exemplify the value of hierarchical order. The attributes of "emotional" and "patient" were now perceived to have

"applied sometimes" to Saudis as well as to US Americans, compared with the pre-perceptions that Saudis were significantly more emotional whereas US Americans were significantly more patient. Table 26 and Figure 14 show the comparison of the means of the qualities investigated demonstrating post-perceptions. They show that pre-perceptions of both Saudis and US Americans are mostly confirmed in the post-data, suggesting that the people of the two cultures are perceived by the Saudi participants to be remarkably different

Table 26. Mean scores of attributes that best describe members of both cultures after four months of the study abroad program

Attributes	Saudi sig. higher		Attributes	US sig. higher		Attributes	Saudi = US	
	Saudi *M*	US *M*		US *M*	Saudis *M*		Saudis *M*	US *M*
Lazy**	3.1	2.3	Calm**	3.15	2.5	Friendly	3.2	3.2
Impatient***	3.6	2.3	Hardworking***	3.7	2.7	Logical	3.3	2.9
Honorable***	3.5	2.8	Thrifty***	3.5	2.1	Helpful	3.3	3.3
Generous***	3.9	1.9	Confident**	3.6	3.0	Emotional	3.4	3.0
Shy**	3.1	2.3	Serious***	3.7	2.6	Arrogant	2.6	2.4
Stubborn*	3.3	2.8	Efficient***	3.8	2.7	Honest	3.4	3.1
Loud***	3.5	2.5	Competent***	3.6	2.9	Patient	3.0	2.7
Good-humored*	3.6	3.0				Tolerant	3.3	2.9

Note. Attributes were rated on a four-point scale from 1 = not at all to 4 = frequently.

*$p < .05$, **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$

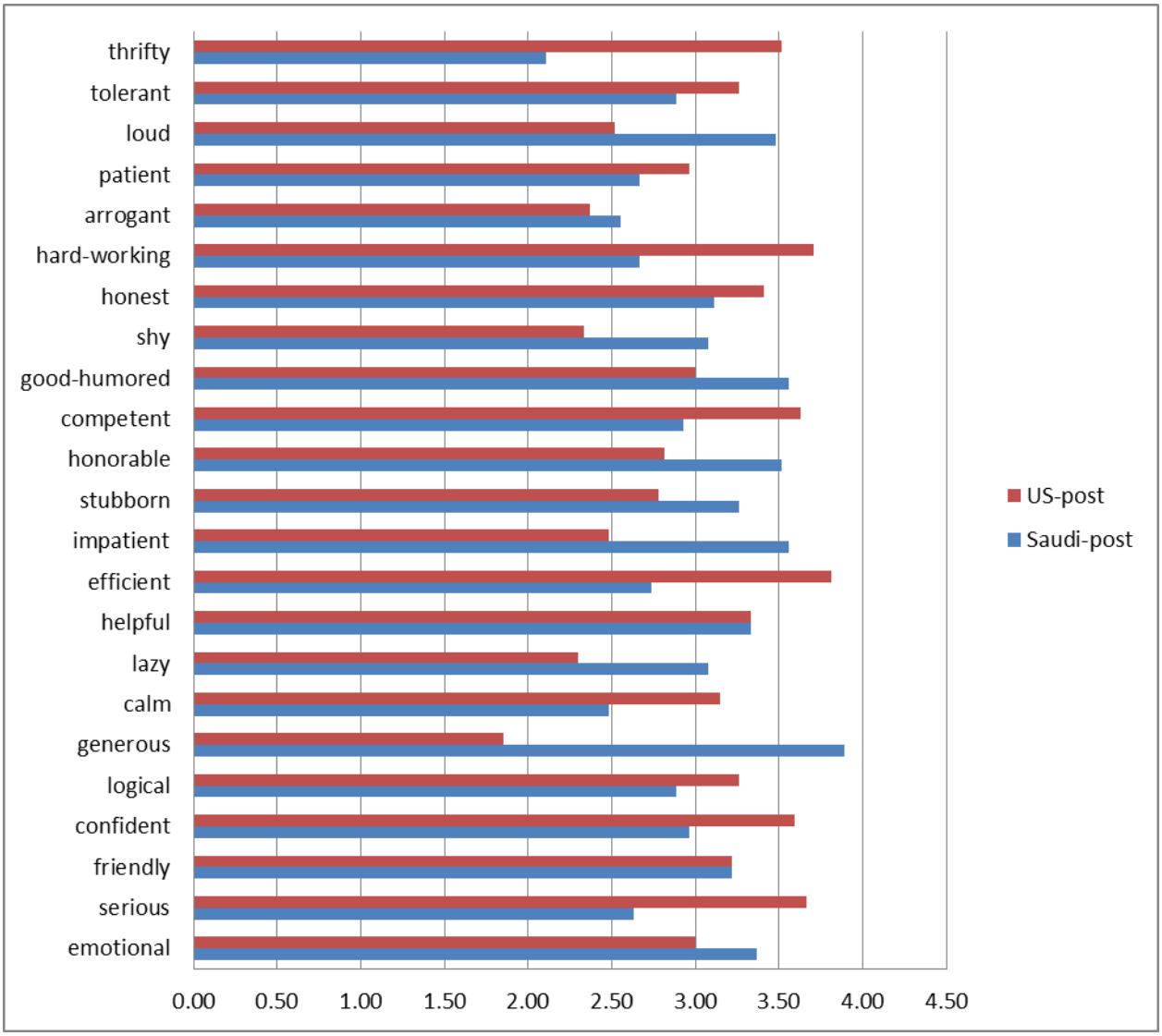

Figure 15. Graphic illustration of mean scores of attributes that best describe members of own, other, and both cultures after four months of the study abroad program

The participants' pre-perceptions appeared to have been reinforced over the four-month period of SA. Saudis are still perceived to be valued more in terms of attributes related to an Arabian frame of reference. They were still perceived to have been frequently generous, good-humored, and honorable but frequently impatient, stubborn, and loud. By contrast, US Americans are still considered way better in work-related attributes. They were perceived to have been frequently hardworking, serious, efficient, competent, thrifty, and rarely lazy. Some of these findings of perceptions are supported by the qualitative data as presented below. Only slight revision and change of perceptions has been observed during the participants' stay abroad.

Qualitative results. The participants' assumptions, comments, and statements about Saudis and US Americans were consistently compared in the interviews and journals. With respect to work-related attributes, US Americans were obviously regarded higher than Saudis. However, when it came to social interactions, Saudis tended to be ranked higher on related values based on the Arabian frame of reference that pays considerable emphasis on human relationships.

Work-related attributes. In this section, excerpts that relate to the quantitative results are presented from both interviews and journals. On "hardworking," for instance, Student 23 highlighted how he perceived the American worldview by saying, "Hard-working people who view things through practical lenses" (interview, 117). This perception was repeatedly mentioned in the students' comments. Similarly, Student 20 stressed that "their country [US Americans'] is that of equality and hard work" (interview, 50).

Another example of this dominant perception was related to another practice that Student 23 attempted to explain in this excerpt: "When I first came here [USA] I used to avoid giving

tips to workers until I read and came to the conclusion that the society sympathizes with individuals who work hard and give them tips, so I respected this and started to do so especially that such practice does not contradict my own culture" (interview, 105).

Comments on the "hardworking" attribute was also associated with other related qualities like being not lazy and being efficient, serious, and competent, as in the following excerpts.

As for being not lazy, Student 23 noticed that "they [US Americans] are self-dependent people who try their best before they seek help" (interview, 99). Student 22 also emphasized that "they love to play sports a lot. Sport is clearly integrated in their life, in their culture" (interview, 171).

As for the attribute "serious," Student 20 noted that "they are serious when it comes to deal with contracts and know what their rights and obligations are" (journal, 36). Likewise, Student 23 stated that "American people are serious and love to work" (interview, 90). Americans were also perceived as "efficient." Student 20 noticed that "staff members do not talk to another person until they are finished talking to you! This is unlike what happens in Saudi Arabia where clerks leave to talk to another one, or answer the phone while you are talking to them" (journal, 39). Student 23 also underscored that "their (US) system is efficient and does not discriminate" (interview, 71). Student 20 also noted that US Americans "are competent in their work at all levels" (journal, 37).

Interestingly, when the participants recognized Americans as hard workers, they were not always in favor of this work-oriented American lifestyle. An example was that one indicated by Student 20: "Women are disadvantaged because of equality between men and women at work as they are naturally not equal. I know a teacher who had to take an unpaid leave to give birth,

whereas in Saudi Arabia, female teachers are given a paid leave for this purpose." Even though Student 20 appeared to judge based on his own frame of reference, he seemed to be showing his sympathy to American women.

Student 25 also underscored that US Americans are "hard-working people who give priority for work over human relationships" (journal, 12). She used this argument to explain an incident she had witnessed in this excerpt: "Two days ago, I saw a woman who seemed to be having psychological issues, and she was screaming and crying hysterically for help, but nobody seemed to care at all! So, I think people did not seem to care because they think that she has her own problems that she needs to solve herself, and that they do not want to waste their time" (journal, 12).

On the work-related attribute "thrifty," the participants' qualitative comments supported the quantitative finding that they perceived Americans as significantly thriftier than Saudis. The comments, however, shed more light on the attribute. Student 23, for instance, said, "There is something I consider as negative and they [US Americans] consider it as positive, that is being thrifty, very thrifty" (interview, 71). This perception was also held by Student 3 who commented, "Life here [in the USA] is materialistic and I do not like this. I do not understand why. Could it be that they do not have oil like we do? This led them to raise their kids and educate them to be thrifty." However, when he contrasted this practice to the Saudi culture, he changed his view to categorize thriftiness as positive practice as he continued, "Their kids can make many things out of a hundred dollars, but give Saudis like my brothers a hundred dollars and they would spend it in no time. We do not have this culture of thriftiness" (interview, 50).

Attributes of human relationships. The participants provided comments that showed unequivocally that people of their own culture (the Saudis) are remarkably rated higher than the people of the host culture (US Americans) with respect to aspects of human relations and interactions. These comments from students' interviews and journals appeared to partially show some discrepancy with the quantitative results that indicated that Saudis and US Americans are rated equally with respect to being "friendly," "helpful," and "tolerant." However, these comments supported the quantitative results that showed that Saudis are rated significantly higher than US Americans in being "honorable" and "generous," values that they consider intricately woven into the Arabian culture.

In commenting on the attribute "friendly," the participants expressed that US Americans are not as friendly as they originally perceived before they started their SA. Student 20 said, "The media portrayed the Americans as friendly, but I found that they have phobia of Saudis; I noticed this when I got a taxi once and when the driver knew that I am Saudi, he was like 'oh' and kept turning and looking at us every minute in a weird way as if he's thinking 'terrorists'!" (interview, 7). He continued, "I stopped telling people that I am Saudi. They think that I am Mexican and that helped me a lot in talking to people" (interview, 11). Student 25 also noted, "Upon my arrival, I expected that Americans are friendly and tolerant but what I have seen is the opposite. Or could it be the concept of friendliness is different between the two cultures? So, I would say they are not friendly by the Arabian standard that means to be open and helpful to the others whether you know them or not" (journal, 25). She mentioned this perception again in the interview, "I thought that I would blend in easily and make friends of Americans but this turned out to be way difficult than my expectations" (interview, 41). Student 3 has similarly

commented, “Some states have racist people who do not talk to foreigners. Some of my Saudi friends say they could not socialize with Americans as those see them as strangers” (interview, 20).

As for “helpful,” the students provided comments that showed that Americans are not helpful as they originally perceived, taking into consideration that they are not helpful by the Arabian frame of reference. Saudis, by contrast, were perceived as people who extend a hand to help anybody. The excerpts below show examples of such perception. Student 25 narrated, “I once asked my teacher about a city (X) that was one option for me to study in. I asked him whether it was safe or not. I sought his advice, but he simply replied: I visited this city for three days last year and it was a quiet place.” She continued, “If it was an Arab, he would have told me everything about this city since my decision to go or not might depend on this advice” (journal, 30). She then explained, “Americans avoid giving advice unless you are a close friend.” Student 25 then made a contrast between Americans and Saudis, “We (Saudis) help those we know and we do not know. We provide help, be it materially or morally even without the person asking. In the American culture, this is interference in others’ affairs” (interview, 54). Student 25 also narrated an example above about a woman who nobody cared about while she was screaming, adding, “If she were in Saudi Arabia, everyone would jump in to try to help since human relationships to us come before anything else. Our culture and religion put the human being on top of everything” (journal, 17).

Student 20 also stated, “In Saudi Arabia, we help strangers and foreigners” (interview, 53). He continued, “You live in the States and you will stay years without getting to know your

neighbor. It is good that nobody interferes in your own business, but not to the extent that you do not say hi to the person next to you or offer help."

These results indicate that this study's participants are still using their home frame of reference. The missing shift of frame of reference could be caused by the lack in the underlying element of ICC (attitudes, knowledge, and skills). The previous section noted that although US Americans are recognized for work-orientedness, this was by no means an endorsement of such an attitude. The participants provided judgmental comments that criticized this US American lifestyle. By contrast, they kept praising the people of their own culture (Saudis) with respect to values related to human relationships, especially the ones that are inherently found in the Arabian culture, such as helping others and being nice and friendly to other people.

Based on the quantitative data, Saudis and US Americans were perceived to have been similarly tolerant "sometimes." The qualitative data, however, showed comments exemplifying US Americans as way better in being tolerant of intercultural differences compared with the Saudis as perceived by the Saudi participants in the excerpts below.

Student 3 noted, "I knew that study abroad involves coeducation, but when you set your boundaries, they (US Americans) understand that, for instance Saudis do not shake hands with women. They are totally tolerant" (interview, 76). Similarly, Student 23 commented, "I like in the American culture their openness to other cultures, and their tolerance of differences. Compared to us, they are much more tolerant than we are" (journal, 24). He commented in the interview, "They are respectful and tolerant of other cultures" (interview, 71). Student 25 summed it up, "The American culture is based on tolerance, openness, dynamicity and accepting changes" (interview, 51). By contrast, Saudis were perceived to be intolerant. Student 23 noted,

"Tolerating and respecting the other is weak in our country although it is recommended in religion [Islam]" (interview, 88). Likewise, Student 3 mentioned how he was anxious when they visited the Jewish community because as he stated, "I was anxious fearing that Saudis will not respect the Jews there" (interview, 56).

Tolerance stood out in the comments as an attribute that applied more to US Americans than to Saudis. This could be attributed to the fact that Saudi Arabia is not as culturally diverse as is the case in the USA. Moreover, the fact that SA students in the United States notice how people from different faiths and races co-exist may lend itself as a factor that affects the way US Americans and Saudis were perceived with respect to "tolerance."

Discussion

The results from both quantitative and qualitative data are discussed in this section. Before getting into details, it is imperative to indicate that pre-perceptions/stereotypes of both Saudis and US Americans are mostly confirmed in the post-data. This result supports what has been found in the literature that studying abroad may reinforce stereotyping (Coleman, 1998; Ecke, 2012, 2013; Perrefort, 2008; Ogden, 2008) either positively (Langley & Breese, 2005) or even negatively (Coleman, 1998).

The discussion is divided into two main sections: perception of own culture and perception of host culture. The results from both quantitative and qualitative data generally support each other, as discussed below, although some discrepancies arose.

Perception of Own Culture

The results from the quantitative data showed that the participants' perceptions of the people of their own culture did not show any significant change after spending four months in the USA. Moreover, four months from their arrival, the participants appeared to continue ranking the people of their own culture higher in qualities that are mostly related to interactions within a social relationship. This result might suggest that perceptions and attitudes are quite persistent, as supported by the comments from the abovementioned qualitative data.

This study found that the Saudi SA participants appreciated personality attributes of their own culture, such as generous, honorable, good-humored, and shy. The qualitative analysis supported the interpretation that positive perception revolves around human relationships. Contrary to what has been found in the quantitative findings that US Americans and Saudis were ranked similarly on "friendly" and "helpful," the qualitative findings specifically showed that these two human relation attributes ("friendly" and "helpful") apply to Saudis more than US Americans whose lifestyle is assumed, by the participants, to be work-oriented. The discrepancy could be caused by the tool used to collect data. Interviews and journals allow for more contextual narratives in which participants can justify their judgments, whereas the quantitative survey limits this ability.

The qualitative findings showed that the perception of the interaction between members in the Saudi society is positively reinforced, as mentioned by Student 23: "The Saudi community help each other; this is one of the most positive thing we have" (interview, 95). Student 22 also underscored that "our community is socially cohesive" (interview, 108).

The qualitative results also showed that Arabian values were positively reinforced as stated by Student 23 who showed appreciation of values and qualities related to interaction within social relationships: "We have great values like hospitality, sympathy, and brotherhood" (interview, 94). This appreciation is also repeated by Student 25, who mentioned that "in our country, we help people whether we know them or not, and whether it is moral or material assistance even if they did not ask for help" (interview, 54). On the value of familial relationships, Student 3 emphasized that "in Saudi, family relationships are stronger" (interview, 36). This worldview that considers the importance of helping others is deeply rooted in the Arabian society as a result of a blend between religion and tribal virtues. Baroni (2007) suggested that "in relation to the Saudi international students in Australia, there are three 'types' of identities that interact to constrict the students' cultural identity: tribal identity, religious identity and the national identity" (as cited in Alhazmi & Nyland, 2010, p. 7).

Moreover, it might be indicative to note that the hashtag "the citizen ambassador" is used on Twitter, and the Saudi Ministry of Foreign Affairs tweets to encourage Saudi citizens abroad to be good ambassadors. An example tweet was "Our values encourage us to respect the elderly, and support the needy."

However, indications that national stereotypes were reinforced after four months of study at this SA program exist, as found by previous studies (Coleman, 1998; Ecke, 2013; Ogden, 2008; Perrefort, 2008). The current study found that with regard to qualities like "lazy" and "loud," the majority of the participants showed increasingly unfavorable perceptions with nearly significant increase, reinforcing the national stereotype of Saudis as "lazy" and "loud." Moreover, in comparison with the people of the USA, the participants appeared to rank their

compatriots significantly lower in all work-related qualities of "serious," "calm," "logical," "efficient," "competent," "hardworking," and "thrifty." Based also on the qualitative analysis, Saudis are perceived to be less interested in keeping the places they go to clean, suggesting some kind of laziness and indifference. Saudis were also perceived as rarely thrifty compared with Americans. It was also found in the qualitative analysis that Saudis were perceived as lacking seriousness and not being punctual. A discrepancy that was found between quantitative and qualitative findings was that related to the attribute "tolerance." Tolerance was found to apply sometimes to Saudis in the quantitative study similar to the US Americans. In the qualitative analysis, however, the participants showed that Saudis lack tolerance compared with US Americans.

Perception of Host Culture

The quantitative results showed that the participants' perceptions of the people of the host culture did not show any significant change except in 3 qualities out of the 23, while another quality showed a nearly significant change. Overall, this study found that the participants still hold favorable perceptions of US Americans with respect to various attributes. This result concurs with Ecke (2013) who found that participants' (mostly positive) attitudes toward the people of the host culture did not change during SA and Bicknese (1974) who found that in general more favorable attitudes existed toward the host culture (as cited in Ecke, 2014, p. 126). It also supports Akhtarkhavari (1994) who found that the Saudi SA participants noted that their SA experience had positively affected their perceptions of US Americans.

US Americans have been rated significantly higher than Saudis in work-related qualities. Moreover, despite the fact that Saudis ranked US Americans down (albeit not significantly) on some positive work-related qualities ("serious," "competent," and "patient") in the post-program survey, their ranking is still within higher score ranges (sometimes or frequently). As for the negative quality "lazy," it significantly increased (although it is still within the lower scores "rarely"), contradicting Alkhedaire (1978), Heyn (2013), and Jammaz (1972) who found Saudi SA participants' negative perception to have changed into positive.

Although Heyn (2013) and Jammaz (1972) found that Saudis' perception was that Americans were friendlier than originally perceived, the current study found that US Americans were perceived to be less "friendly" than originally perceived, which could be related to the fact that the participants were all ESL learners who did not have the chance to access the local community or have had limited access that in turn could have subjected SA students' judgments to the variable experiences they could have had. This possible interpretation is supported by the qualitative results that showed that some of the participants have had negative interactions with local people, like the participant's excerpt about the taxi driver's bad attitude to him when he learned that he was Saudi or the other participant's quote that "before coming to the USA, my expectation was that Americans are friendly but what I have witnessed is different," and she was even considering the possibility that the concept of friendliness could be different from culture to culture. However, it is important to note that these two students come from different levels. The former was a beginner, whereas the latter was an advanced student.

The overall positive perception could be explained by the increasingly developing language proficiency as the majority of the participants (63%) were either at the intermediate

levels (40–50) or at the advanced levels (60–70) at CESL after four months, and the vast majority (93%) self-rated themselves to be upper-intermediate and above. Therefore, the overall perception is mostly positive, supporting previous research that found that lack of language proficiency may result in more negative perception of the members of the host culture (Coleman, 1996; Conacher, 2008; Masgoret et al., 2000; Wilkinson, 2000). The overall positive perception could also be attributed to the fact that those participants were always surrounded by helpful US citizen teachers who reinforced positive perceptions or changed negative perceptions into positive ones; it could also be that the Saudi participants were impressed by the American values and practices in service encounters, at airports, or even in streets. One excerpt from the qualitative results can sum them all up, as one participant stated that "there are so many negative practices in the Saudi community and that's why Saudis become impressed with the American society when they come here" (Student 23, interview, 113).

As with any other study, some limitations might have had some effect on the present study. The duration of four months might not be sufficient for developing ICC. With respect to the methodology, keeping journals is not a Saudi cultural behavior/habit, and hence, it could be difficult for the participants to keep writing on a regular basis. However, the entries the participants have written have shed light on their experience.

Conclusion

This study supported the literature that found that studying abroad may reinforce stereotyping (Coleman, 1998; Ecke, 2012, 2013; Perrefort, 2008; Ogden, 2008). However, this study found that not only might SA reinforce national stereotypes, but also it could provide no

change to the pre-perceptions and attitudes when SA students are left to their own devices. SA students' value system or their own frame of reference appears to be of remarkable relevance to research on SA. The findings of this study showed that Saudi participants' perceptions were divided into two categories. Work-related attributes were perceived to apply to US Americans, whereas relationship-related attributes were perceived to apply to Saudis. These two patterns persisted even four months of the participants' entry to the program.

Previous research found that studying abroad does not automatically lead to L2 gains and cultural understanding (Coleman, 1996, 1998; Jackson, 2013; Willis, Doble, Sankarayya & Smithers, 1977). This finding is substantiated in the current study, and as such, it might be important for students to prepare for the SA experience at home and be exposed to the new culture through at-home orientations that go beyond the superficial orientations that are usually provided. This will help students set realistic perceptions about both their own culture and the host culture because such perceptions and attitudes are potentially important factors that affect learning, communication, and appropriate functioning in the target culture. SA students should also be supported during their study. Students need resources they can trust during their study to reach a level they can confidently shift their frame of reference based on knowledge, skills, and attitudes that provide the basis for ICC. One example of such resources is holding ongoing orientations. This could be useful to introduce to SA students' different value systems and expose them to diverse perceptions on issues so they can develop awareness of the existence of frame of references that can be different from theirs.

A key point to developing ICC is to raise learners' awareness about the existence of different (and may be conflicting) worldviews. The introduction of carefully designed and

theoretically based interventions showed good results as in Sample (2013) who used Deardorff's (2006) model and Bennett's (1993) model as guides to informed decisions about when and what to introduce to SA learners. This, however, should start with clarifying that ICC is a desired goal that is equally important with linguistic competence as Engle and Engle (2003) argued. The present study showed that the participants would still use their home cultural frame of reference even after four months of studying abroad. This result necessitates that a first step toward developing ICC is heightening awareness of the existence of different (valid) worldviews. To reach this goal, some pedagogical implications are presented here for SA programs to use. Activities should be organized and supervised by teachers who are themselves interculturally competent and are well-versed in ICC theories and applications.

In their textbook on ICC, Deardorff and Bowman (2011) introduced Deardorff and Deardorff's (2000) OSEE tool that could be utilized to increase learners' cultural sensitivity. The OSEE tool is to Observe, State objectively, Explore explanations, and Evaluate the most likely explanation. In the textbook mentioned, SA learners are introduced to authentic stories representative of general US American patterns around which discussion is held using the OSEE tool. Other outside-of-the-classroom activities are meant to help learners interact with US Americans by having learners interview locals and report back to their class. Such activities have the potential of heightening cultural awareness through attitude, knowledge, and skills represented in Deardorff's model. Moreover, the data of the present study should also be used as bases for ESL classrooms. ESL teachers can make discussions around these data to heighten SA learners' awareness of the co-existence of other worldviews. The significance of this finding to ESL teachers should be further investigated.

Moreover, SA learners could be put in contact with their old-timer SA compatriots/other international students who show a developing cultural competence because exposure to different worldviews is important. To exploit such a context, critical incidents could be used for those who are already abroad. Sample (2013) defined a critical incident as "an episode in which a student engaged in what, for them, was culturally acceptable behavior, only to have members of the host culture make it very clear that the behavior was not appropriate in this cultural context" (p. 12). These episodes can be used with their teachers by sharing them, reflecting on them, and providing explanations for the discrepancies between worldviews to learn from such incidents for future intercultural situations.

Teachers play an influential role in promoting ICC development. However, one cannot assume that ESL teachers are interculturally competent by default. If one goal of SA programs is to promote ICC in learners, teachers should be up to the task. They should be encouraged to have intercultural training. Not only should those who have passion for ICC be supported, those who do not should also be introduced to the ICC concept and its significance through presentations, orientations, and workshops.

SA programs should be intentionally prepared to be proper contexts at which ICC is promoted. This study concluded that being abroad is insufficient so learners can develop ICC. Instead, SA programs should organize interventions that are supported by ICC theories.

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CHAPTER 4: SAUDI STUDENTS' EXPECTATIONS AND PERCEIVED GAINS IN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE LEARNING

Abstract

This longitudinal quantitative study investigated the relationship between Saudi students' intercultural competence (ICC) and their learning the second language (L2) and gaining a deeper understanding of the second culture (C2) over a period of four months of studying in the US. The study investigated SA students' expectations and perceived gains with respect to language and culture learning. Furthermore, it explored the relationship between L2 usage frequencies and expected/perceived gains in L2/C2 learning, level of L2 proficiency upon entrance in the SA program and perceived gains in L2/C2 learning, and participants' pre- and post-ICC scores and expected/perceived gains in L2/C2 learning. The study found that SA students' perceived gains with regard to skills of speaking, listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary were significantly lower than their expectations at the beginning of the program. SA students' expectations were relatively low for culture learning. Moreover, this study did not find a significant relationship between SA students' L2 usage frequencies and L2 learning and between L2 usage frequencies and C2 learning. The level of L2 proficiency upon entrance into the SA program was shown to have a strong relationship with perceived gains in L2 learning. Interestingly, no relationship was found between ICC and L2 learning and between ICC and C2 learning.

Introduction

The relationship between language and culture and the role each one plays in acquiring the other is a contentious subject that has been thoroughly discussed in the literature. In study abroad (SA) contexts, the situation appears to be more complex partly because of an assumption that sending students abroad will automatically lead to second language/culture acquisition.

Studying abroad has much to afford learners on the condition that reasonable expectations are set and intentional learning is appropriately designed so SA students are not left to their own devices. Achieving the goals of the stakeholders always takes good planning and clear objectives. Kinginger (2011) found a significant value in SA for developing intercultural competence (ICC) by arguing that "if one goal of language learning is to see things from the point of view of others, that is, to develop true intercultural understanding, then study abroad has much to be recommended" (p. 63).

This study primarily focused on Saudi students' ICC and its relationship to learning the second language (L2) and gaining a deeper understanding of the second culture (C2) over the period of their first four months of SA at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL).

Literature Review

Second Language/Second Culture Learning in the SA Context

The widely held belief that SA experience is the panacea for all the problems of SA learners is not necessarily true (Kinginger, 2009). This belief has always been perceived because of the notion that the SA context affords interaction opportunities with people of the host culture and SA students will consequently improve their L2. In her study of American summer SA students in France, Wilkinson (1998) pointed out that linguistic and cultural gains are "not inevitable in the study-abroad setting" (p. 33). She also maintained that cultural understanding will not be attained if learners depend only on one frame of reference: that of their home culture. Wilkinson (1998) argued that "it is the responsibility of study abroad practitioners to convey as accurately as possible the multidimensionality of the overseas context to potential participants so that programs themselves are not encouraging false expectations" (p. 34). Furthermore, Salyers, Carston, Dean, and London (2015) noted in their study on Canadian SA students in multiple destinations in long-term programs that "it is critical to ensure that students' expectations are grounded and realistic. Developing realistic expectations might be accomplished through adequate student preparation as part of pre-departure activities and planning sessions" (p. 377). In her study on SA students, Mendelson (2004) found that US participants in summer and semester programs in Spain shared expectations for L2 learning and gaining cultural understanding by immersion in the host culture. However, after completing the SA program, the participants in her study admitted that they realized that the SA context is "often very different from the glossy image advertised in program materials, and that there is another side that needs

to be faced in order to learn effectively and live in the host culture." Mendelson (2004) introduced five basic learning strategies that should be employed before, during, and after SA: information, where SA students learn about the target culture and adjust their expectations; integration, where students "avoid the third culture" by not turning to their compatriots (creating a third culture) to avoid the host culture; interaction, where students have contact with target language people; intention, where the comfort zone is expanded; and introspection, where learners keep reflecting on their experiences (p. 54).

Similarly, in exploring SA students' expectations for learning gains at the beginning of the program compared with reported learning gains at the program end, Badstübner and Ecke (2009) found that US students' perceived progress at the end of a short-term SA program in Germany was significantly lower for all skill areas except one when compared with students' expectations at the beginning of the program. They found that "only cultural understanding improvement did not fall short of what students expected for gains" (p. 47).

In her study, Williams (2005) compared the intercultural communication skills of a group of US students who had studied abroad for a semester in different countries to another group of students who had remained on campus. She found that the students who studied abroad showed a greater increase in intercultural skills compared with those who did not study abroad. She found that exposure to different cultures was the greatest predictor of intercultural adaptability and sensitivity (p. 368), confirming that "the experience of being abroad in and of itself is not enough—students must interact in the culture to receive the gain of increased intercultural communication skills" (p. 370). She recommended that program administrations endeavor to

facilitate students' interaction with people from different cultures, whether studying abroad or even in their own country (Williams, 2005, p. 370).

In another study on the ICC expected from a semester-long abroad program for US students in Belgium, Clark, Flaherty, Wright, and McMillen (2009) found that "students who study abroad are more likely to have higher levels of intercultural proficiency than students who do not study abroad" (p. 178).

Cadd's (2012) study of US SA participants in a semester-long program in a wide-ranging number of countries found that students had benefitted from the tasks in which they were engaged, including ethnographic and reflective activities. The participants reported that their anxiety had decreased and that their willingness to interact with natives in non-task-related communications had increased. They also reported developing deep understanding of the target culture and starting to examine their own culture and beliefs, in addition to developing their linguistic abilities (p. 11). Cadd noted that this "indicates that students perceived that they had made gains in oral proficiency and cultural understanding" when forced to interact with the community (p. 11). Similarly, in her study of Chinese SA students in short-term SA program in England, Jackson (2011) found that as her "participants developed a more complex and sophisticated understanding of cultural differences, their intercultural competence grew" (p. 181).

Second Language Usage Patterns

Research has documented the correlation between the time factor and the development of ICC or lack thereof. Bennett (1993), for instance, pointed out that at least two years might be

required for individuals to develop basic levels of adaptation to the host culture, though he underscored that this depends on the quality of the experience. Leong and Ward (2000) maintained that longer periods in the host culture afford more opportunities for exposure to that culture (as cited in Medina-Lopez-Portillo, 2004, p. 179). In the study of US SA students in one summer program and one semester program in Mexico, Medina-Lopez-Portillo (2004) considered the time factor as a predictor for cultural gains. Similarly, Cubillos and Ilvento (2012) investigated US students participating in both short-term and semester-long programs in France and Spain, and they found that "participation in a SA program (regardless of its length or destination) had a significant impact on self-efficacy perceptions in all FL subskills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking)," but stressed that higher linguistic benefits were associated with longer periods of SA (p. 505). Moreover, they found "some evidence that students' level of cultural engagement had an impact on their linguistic self-efficacy perceptions" (p. 505).

In their large-scale study of US SA students from 61 SA programs of many types in a broad variety of locations, Vande Berg, Connor-Linton, and Paige (2009) found that program duration was significantly associated with Intercultural Development Inventory (IDI) gains abroad. However, Vande Berg et al. found that the intercultural development of those who stayed more than 18 weeks abroad "plateaued significantly recalling the suggestion of Engle and Engle (2004, p. 234) who found that the students considered 'roughly successful communication' adequate," and thus "if students are more or less comfortable in their language usage, and can make themselves understood, they may become complacent" (Vande Berg et al., 2009, p. 20), suggesting on-site intervention for those who stay more than one semester.

Magnan and Back (2007) investigated US SA student in France in a semester-long program. They also indicated that a common belief in the SA context is that social interaction is related to linguistic gain. This interaction was pointed out earlier by Isabelle (2004); Coleman (1997); and Freed, So, and Lazar (2003). Other studies did not find evidence for this interaction because of the complexity of experience recognized and lack of development in L2 proficiency (Wilkinson, 1998; Dekyster, 1991; Magnan & Back, 2007; Mendelson, 2004; Segalowitz & Freed, 2004). Vande Berg et al. (2009) found that most SA participants, "when left to their own devices, failed to learn well even when 'immersed' in another culture," noting that "being exposed to cultures different from their home cultures turned out to be a necessary, though not a sufficient, condition for their intercultural learning" (p. 25). In their study of US students in different SA programs in terms of L2 learned and program length, Baker-Smemoe, Dewey, Bown, and Martinsen (2014) found ("most surprisingly," in their words) that "the amount of L2 use did not play a role in predicting significant language gains during study abroad" (p. 18). Jackson (2006) investigated students from Hong Kong in short-term study in England, and she found that SA students' opinions varied about their linguistic improvement but that the most satisfied were those most immersed in the host culture.

Intercultural Competence and Second Language/Second Culture

Deardorff (2011) pointed out that the role of language in ICC development is not yet agreed upon among US ICC scholars, noting that "language is a necessary but not sufficient skill for intercultural competence [and that it is a] vehicle through which to understand others' worldviews" (p. 37).

On the relationship between language and culture, Coleman (1998) conducted a large-scale study on English students studying in eight European countries in long-term SA programs. He suggested that a "close link is to be assumed between enhanced linguistic competence and enhanced cultural competence" (p. 46). As mentioned previously, Kinginger (2011) saw a significant value in SA for ICC "if one goal of language learning is to see things from the point of view of others, that is, to develop true intercultural understanding," maintaining that there is "much to be recommended" (p. 63).

Fantini (2009) stated that "it is interesting to note that target language proficiency is frequently ignored in many models of intercultural competence" (p. 459). He further argued that "proficiency in a second language at any level enhances all other aspects of intercultural competence in quantitative and qualitative ways" while "the lack of second language proficiency, even minimally, constrains us to think about the world and act within it entirely in our native system, a decidedly ethnocentric approach" (p. 459).

On the other hand, Bennett (1997) mentioned that the view of language as mere tool for communication could eventually lead L2 learners to be *fluent fools*, defining a fluent fool as "someone who speaks a foreign language well but does not understand the social or philosophical content of that language" (p. 16). Furthermore, he argued that understanding the cultural dimensions of the language well and intentionally raising L2 learners' awareness about cultures could help in avoiding turning out fluent fools.

Zahrana (2009) stated that the focus on the role of language in intercultural scholarship "as a determinant of communication competence" (p. 190) sometimes suggests that mastering the language means mastering the culture. However, she argued that

> It is possible to be fluent in the language yet ignorant of the culture. If someone speaks the language, there is often a corresponding expectation by the local people that the person is also familiar with the social customs and graces. Yet, people tended to be less forgiving of social gaffs from a linguistically competent individual than they are of linguistic gaffs from a culturally competent individual. (p. 190)

Cubillos and Ilvento (2012) found "some evidence that students' level of cultural engagement had an impact on their linguistic self-efficacy perceptions" (p. 505). Recently, Baker-Smemoe et al. (2014) also found a relation between levels of ICC and gains in L2 in an SA context. Their finding supported studies that have also shown a relationship between L2 learning and culture learning in SA contexts (Martinsen, 2010; Martinsen & Alvord, 2012; Vande Berg et al., 2009). Baker-Smemoe et al. (2014) maintained that "students' abilities to deal effectively with other cultures affects [*sic*] their L2 learning, at least in the study abroad context," emphasizing that "cultural instruction and interactions should play a meaningful role in all L2 teaching" (pp. 14–15).

Lambert (1999) concluded from his review of the literature that "we cannot assume that foreign language study will automatically produce intercultural competence" (p. 70). He cited a major study conducted on national college seniors in the USA (Barrows et al., 1981) that found "almost no correlation between past study of a foreign language and student scores on a large number of knowledge and attitudinal items measuring global understanding," suggesting that a better strategy would be to "look more closely at what the specific components of intercultural competence are and how they may best be promoted through foreign language instruction" (Lambert, 1999, p. 70).

In his review of relevant SA studies, Guo (2015) showed how they empirically supported the claim that "simply sending students to other institutions abroad might not be enough" (p. 62). Accordingly, scholars suggested implementing intentional pedagogy, including intercultural courses, cultural immersion and guided reflection (Jackson, 2008; Pedersen, 2010; as cited in Guo, 2015, p. 62).

In her study, Jackson (2011) concluded that the relationship between language and culture learning is more complex than Bennett et al.'s (2003) hypothesis that there is a "typical fit between language proficiency levels and developmental levels of intercultural sensitivity" (as cited in Jackson, 2011, p. 181). Jackson argued that "developmental sequence of intercultural competence does not necessarily parallel linguistic competence . . . especially [when students] have little contact with people outside their in-group." Jackson (2011) stated that her study reinforced the "observation of Kramsch (1998), Byram (1997), Park (2006) and other applied linguists who maintain that it is naïve to assume that intercultural competence will develop at the same rate as foreign language proficiency" (p. 181).

Methodology

This longitudinal study of Saudi SA students conducted at the Center for English as a Second Language (CESL) in Tucson, Arizona, used a quantitative method to gain more insight into the Saudi students' SA experience at the beginning of the program and after four months. This study used pre- and post-program surveys to collect data, as described in detail below, and specifically examined students' expectations and gains in language skills and cultural understanding, and students' expectations and gains with regard to aspects of the US culture.

Moreover, this study investigated the relationships between language usage patterns and initial L2 proficiency to reported/perceived progress in L2 learning and reported/perceived progress in cultural understanding. The study also investigated the relationship between ICC and reported/perceived progress in L2 learning, and reported/perceived progress in cultural understanding. The overarching research question for this study and the detailed sub-questions are as follows:

3. Is there a relationship between language proficiency and ICC?

3a. What are students' expectations for SA with respect to language and culture learning?

3b. What is their perceived learning progress in these areas?

3c. Are there differences between expectations and perceived learning progress?

3d. What are specific expectations and learning outcomes with respect to culture learning?

3e. What are the specific reported learning gains in culture learning?

3f. Are there differences between expectations and perceived learning?

3g. How do language usage frequencies relate to progress in reported/perceived progress in L2 learning, and progress in culture learning (C2)?

3h. How does level of L2 proficiency upon entrance in the SA program affect gains in L2 proficiency and gains in culture learning C2?

3i. How do the reported progress reports in culture learning (C2 score) and language learning (L2 score) relate to participants' ICC attributes?

Participants

The participants in this study were 27 Saudi learners studying at CESL and composed of 5 females (19%) and 22 males (81%). Of these students, only nine subjects participated in the study of language usage patterns. The participants were quite heterogeneous with respect to their English language proficiency. Table 27 provides information about the participants' self-rated proficiency in English as a second language. At the beginning of the program, the students also took a placement test administered by CESL and were consequently placed as follows: 18 students (67%) were placed at the beginning levels (10–30), 8 (30%) were placed at the intermediate levels (40–50), and only one (3%) was placed at the advanced level (60). After four months of study, 10 students (37%) were still at the beginning levels (10–30), 13 (48%) were at the intermediate levels (40–50), and 4 (15%) were at the advanced levels (60–70).

As for the levels of education they are seeking, 14 students (52%) are expected to enroll in undergraduate studies, whereas 13 students (48%) will complete their graduate studies after fulfilling the requirements necessary for admission. Table 27 summarizes the participants' L2 proficiency self-rating levels.

Table 27. Participants' self-rated proficiency in English as a second language

		Score						Totals
		1	2	3	4	5	6	
Pre	Count	2	4	5	11	5	0	27
	% of Total	7%	15%	19%	41%	19%	0%	100%

Post	Count	0	2	0	11	12	2	27
	% of Total	0%	7%	0%	41%	44%	7%	100%

Note. Scale ranges from 1 to 6: 1 = lower beginner, 2 = upper beginner, 3 = lower intermediate, 4 = upper intermediate, 5 = lower advanced, 6 = upper advanced.

Instruments

Surveys

Pre-program surveys. These surveys were administered to the participants at the beginning of the session (see Appendices). The surveys were adapted from the instruments used by Ecke (2012). The questionnaires on expectations and gains were based on instruments used by Badstübner and Ecke (2009). The instruments were translated into Arabic, and the translation was double-checked by a fellow PhD candidate who is a native speaker Arabic teacher in a US university. The first round of surveys was also used as a pilot. The surveys are divided into sections as follows:

- Demographic and background information, self-rated proficiency score, L2 usage patterns (Appendix A, part 1).
- Expectations with regard to language skills and cultural understanding (Appendix A, part 3).
- Students' expectations with regard to aspects of the US culture (Appendix A, part 4)
- Cultural intelligence (ICC) survey (Appendix B). This tool is originally based on the list of ICC-fostering attributes by Peterson (2004), but a one to six-point Likert scale was added as in

Ecke (2012). This self-rating survey consists of 22 personality traits that are considered potentially relevant to ICC or "cultural intelligence." The participants rated themselves on a scale from 1 to 6: 1 = does not apply to me at all, 2 = does not apply to me most of the time, 3 = does not apply to me sometimes, 4 = applies to me sometimes, 5 = applies to me most of the time, 6 = applies to me very much.

Post-surveys. These surveys were administered to the participants four months after the pre-surveys had been administered. They are the same surveys as the pre-surveys with the exception that students were asked to rate perceived learning gains instead of expected learning gains in the pre-survey. The cultural intelligence post-survey was identical to the pre-survey.

Procedure

Each group of participants was contacted for the first time at CESL's orientation for new students. The researcher introduced himself and explained the purpose of the study and then distributed the pre-surveys, along with the consent forms, to those who agreed to participate. The participants took them home and brought them to the researcher or to one of the administrative staff at CESL who generously agreed to collect some surveys for the researcher. After four months, e-mails were sent to the participants asking them to participate in the second round of data collection (post-surveys).

Data Analysis

Changes were evaluated using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Paired sample t-tests were used to test for statistical significance between pre- and post-tests. To test the relationship between the variables in question, Pearson's correlation coefficient was used.

Nine participants reported their language usage frequencies. To establish their progress or lack thereof, calculations were made for the differences between pre- and post-percentages of L2 usage, the difference between self-rated L2 proficiency in pre- and post-surveys, and the difference between scores of cultural understanding in pre- and post-surveys to check correlations as follows:

The students were asked to report the percentage of their L2 usage at the beginning of the program and after four months. They were asked to estimate how frequently they currently use Arabic (_%) and English (_%) on a normal day in percentages (see Appendix A). The L2 proficiency scores were participants' self-ratings of L2 proficiency on a 7-point scale from 1 (beginner) to 7 (native) (see part 1 in Appendix 1). The C2 score was elicited through question 11 in the pre-departure and post-program surveys about cultural understanding (see Appendix 1, part 3). Participants had to rate expected gains and perceived progress on a 6-point scale from 1 (not at all) to 6 (very much).

Progress for each category was calculated by subtracting the pre-score from the post-score. To obtain the value of increase in L2 usage, the percentage at the end was subtracted from the percentage at the beginning (post percentage – pre percentage = value of L2 usage progress). As for the progress value in their second language learning, the students' post-score in L2 was subtracted from their pre-score in L2 (post L2 – pre L2 = value of L2 progress). Similarly for their progress value in second culture understanding, the students' post-score in C2 was subtracted from their pre-score in C2 (post C2 – pre C2 = value of C2 progress). These variables were then examined for possible statistically significant correlations using Pearson correlations.

Results

Expectation/Gains Comparison (Overall)

This section presents the results of research question (3), whether there is a relationship between language proficiency and ICC development. Question 3a was concerned with students' expectations for SA with respect to language and culture learning whereas question 3b was interested in students' perceived learning progress in these areas. Results are displayed in Figure 16.

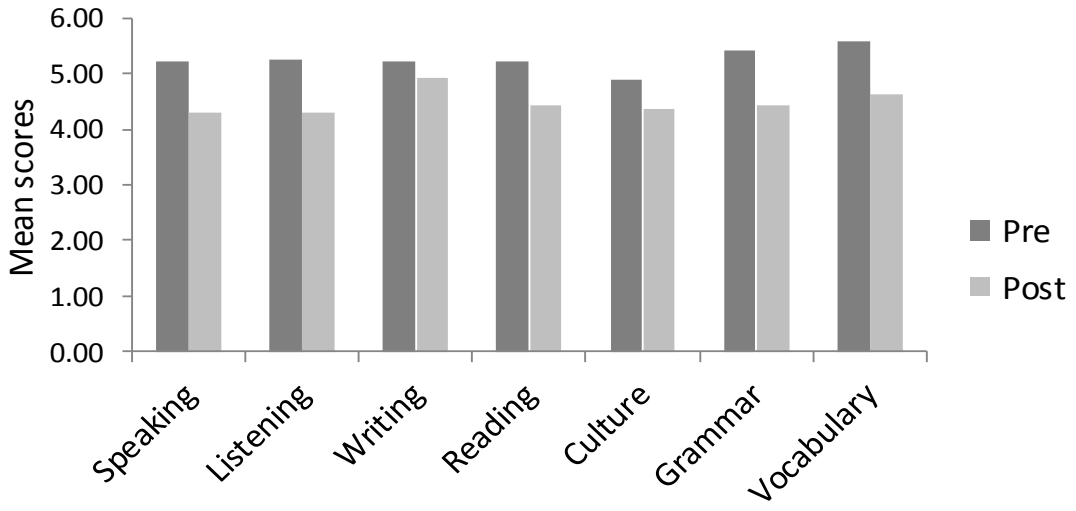

Figure 16. Expected progress and perceived improvement in proficiency on a scale from 1 (not at all) to 6 (very much)

At the beginning of the program, the students had high expectations for language learning and high but somewhat lower expectations for culture learning. The mean numbers of SA students' expectations ranged in order from highest to lowest as follows: vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing, and culture, as shown in Figure 16.

After four months, perceived gains in language and culture learning substantially differed from the expected learning progress at the beginning of the program. The mean numbers for SA students' perceived gains were in the order from the highest to lowest: writing, vocabulary, grammar and reading, culture, speaking, and listening. A comparison between students' expectations at the beginning of the program and their perceived gains after four months was conducted to explore if there were any differences between expectations and perceived learning progress (question 3c).

All expectation scores in the beginning of the program were higher than the gains perceived at the end of the four months. A paired sample t-test was used to compare expectations in the pre-survey to perceived gains in the post-program surveys. The results, shown in Table 28, illustrate that significant differences were found between pre- and post-scores of speaking, listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary, whereas no significant differences were found between scores of writing and cultural understanding. A more detailed analysis is provided next.

Significant differences were found in the speaking scores for pre- (M = 5.222, SD = 1.154) and post- (M = 4.296, SD = 1.0675) conditions; t (26) = 3.28, p = 0.003, the listening scores for pre- (M = 5.259, SD = .9842) and post- (M = 4.296, SD = 1.1030) conditions; t (26) = 3.723, p = 0.001, the reading scores for pre- (M = 5.222, SD = 1.0500) and post- (M = 4.444, SD = .974) conditions; t (26) = 3.017, p = 0.006, the grammar scores for pre- (M = 5.407, SD =

.9306) and post- (M = 4.444, SD = 1.1875) conditions; t (26) = 4.444, p = 0.000, and the vocabulary scores for pre- (M = 5.593, SD = .7971) and post- (M = 4.630, SD= .8835) conditions; t (26) = 4.741, p = 0.000.

Table 28. Mean scores of students' pre-program expectations and post-program perceived gains

Skill		M	N	SD	t	Sig (2-tailed)
Speaking**						
	Pre	5.222	27	1.1547	3.283	0.003
	Post	4.296	27	1.0675		
Listening**						
	Pre	5.259	27	0.9842	3.723	0.001
	Post	4.296	27	1.1030		
Writing						
	Pre	5.222	27	1.0127	1.494	0.147
	Post	4.926	27	0.9578		
Reading**						
	Pre	5.222	27	1.0500	3.017	0.006
	Post	4.444	27	0.9740		
Cultural Understanding						
	Pre	4.889	27	1.2195	1.548	0.134

	Post	4.37	27	1.1485		
Grammar***						
	Pre	5.407	27	0.9306		
					4.444	0.000
	Post	4.444	27	1.1875		
Vocabulary***						
	Pre	5.593	27	0.7971		
					4.741	0.000
	Post	4.63	27	0.8835		

* Significant at the 0.05 level.

** Significant at the 0.01 level.

*** Significant at the 0.001 level.

To sum it up, significant differences were found between what students expected at the beginning of the program and what they perceived to have gained in terms of their language and culture learning. Significant differences were found between pre- and post-scores of speaking, listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary, whereas no significant differences were found between scores of writing and cultural understanding. Their learning of specific cultural aspects was also investigated, and the results are reported in the next section.

Expectation and Gains of Culture

Additional analyses were carried out to explore more specific expectations and learning outcomes with respect to culture learning and whether these differed between pre- and post-surveys. (questions 3d-3f). The findings are illustrated in Table 29. Of the 32 aspects of culture,

only four showed a significant change. In these cases, the post-survey scores were significantly lower than those in the pre-surveys. The aspects that showed significant differences were "knowledge about literature" scores for pre- (M = 3.963, SD = 1.6048) and post- (M = 3.259, SD = 1.3754) conditions; t (26) = 2.375, p = .025, "how to live like Americans" scores for pre- (M = 4.296, SD = 1.4362) and post- (M = 3.593, SD = 1.3661) conditions; t (26) = 2.089, p = .047, "skills to interact with US Americans" scores for pre- (M = 4.481, SD = 1.3118) and post- (M = 3.630, SD = 1.2449) conditions; t (26) = 2.599, p = .015, and "US American thinking" scores for pre- (M = 4.667, SD = 1.4412) and post- (M = 3.889, SD = 1.2195) conditions; t (26)= 2.385, p = .025.

Table 29. Mean scores of students' pre-program cultural expectations and post-program perceived gains regarding knowledge and skills of specific cultural aspects

Culture Aspect		M	N	SD	Sig (2-tailed)
US Cuisine					
	Pre	3.37	27	1.6904	0.688
	Post	3.519	27	1.5031	
Customs, Traditions					
	Pre	4.63	27	1.1815	0.073
	Post	4.037	27	1.2552	
Economy					
	Pre	3.444	27	1.6718	0.752
	Post	3.333	27	1.3301	
Education System					
	Pre	4.704	27	1.4362	0.626
	Post	4.556	27	1.05	
How US Americans Make					

Friends					
	Pre	4.778	27	1.281	0.641
	Post	4.63	27	1.0795	
Environment					
	Pre	4.444	27	1.5021	0.894
	Post	4.407	27	1.1522	
Families					
	Pre	4.148	27	1.3785	0.084
	Post	3.519	27	1.451	
How US Americans See Foreigners					
	Pre	4.741	27	1.2888	0.103
	Post	4.148	27	0.9885	
Film					
	Pre	4.222	27	1.6486	1
	Post	4.222	27	1.1209	
History					
	Pre	3.963	27	1.4539	0.471
	Post	3.741	27	1.2276	
Interaction of US					
	Pre	4.444	27	1.2195	0.06
	Post	3.926	27	0.9971	
How to Like US Americans					
	Pre	4.333	27	1.3587	0.316
	Post	4.074	27	1.2066	
Literature*					
	Pre	3.963	27	1.6048	0.025
	Post	3.259	27	1.3754	
My Own Culture					
	Pre	4.222	27	1.5525	0.635

	Post	4	27	1.4142	
Feelings Expressed					
	Pre	4.333	27	1.3868	0.294
	Post	4.037	27	1.1923	
Gender Roles					
	Pre	4.63	27	1.4974	0.899
	Post	4.667	27	1.0742	
Music					
	Pre	3.556	27	1.6251	0.262
	Post	3.963	27	1.2552	
How Americans Party					
	Pre	4.593	27	1.4481	0.565
	Post	4.444	27	1.1875	
How to Live Like US Americans*					
	Pre	4.296	27	1.4362	0.047
	Post	3.593	27	1.3661	
Politics					
	Pre	3.37	27	1.713	0.83
	Post	3.296	27	1.4092	
Work Opportunities					
	Pre	3.519	27	1.5285	0.704
	Post	3.407	27	1.4212	
Recreation					
	Pre	4.444	27	1.6013	0.484
	Post	4.222	27	0.7511	
Skills to Interact with US*					
	Pre	4.481	27	1.3118	0.015
	Post	3.63	27	1.2449	
Sports					
	Pre	4.815	27	1.2721	0.143

	Post	4.37	27	1.3344	
Student Life					
	Pre	5	27	1.3587	0.246
	Post	4.63	27	1.2449	
US Thinking*					
	Pre	4.667	27	1.4412	0.025
	Post	3.889	27	1.2195	
Tourist Destinations					
	Pre	4.519	27	1.2821	1
	Post	4.519	27	1.3408	
Transport System					
	Pre	4.926	27	1.2066	0.185
	Post	4.481	27	1.3118	
US Americans about Saudis					
	Pre	4.333	27	1.4412	0.21
	Post	3.926	27	1.2987	
US Values					
	Pre	3.63	27	1.3053	0.527
	Post	3.481	27	1.2207	
Work in the US					
	Pre	3.815	27	1.5451	0.563
	Post	4	27	1.2089	
US Americans about Islam					
	Pre	4.037	27	1.6521	0.513
	Post	3.778	27	1.5275	

Note. * Significant at the 0.05 level. Expectations and gains were rated on a 6-poin scale from 1 = not at all to 6 = very much.

SA students had particularly high expectations (with scores of 4.6 or higher) for the following areas: customs and traditions, the education system, friends, how US Americans see

foreigners, gender roles, sports, student life, US thinking, and the transport system. Their expectations were particularly low (with scores of 3.7 or less) for the following areas: US cuisine, the economy, music, politics, work opportunities, and US values. Students' responses showed only four significant changes out of the 32 aspects of culture in the survey. Their scores in the post-surveys were significantly lower than those in the pre-surveys for the four aspects: "knowledge about literature," "knowledge about US American thinking," "skills to live like Americans," and "skills to interact with US Americans." Following up on these results, investigating the relationship between SA students' L2 usage patterns and their learning of second language/second culture is insightful. The results of this investigation are reported in the following sections.

Importance of Second Language Usage

Research question 3g was interested in whether and how language usage patterns relate to progress in reported/perceived progress in L2 learning, and progress in second culture learning (C2). In order to investigate this question, mean scores were computed for L2 usage, L2 proficiency and C2 cultural understanding competency. Table 30 illustrates the obtained mean scores in the pre- and post-surveys and table 31 shows correlations for L2 usage and L2 proficiency and cultural understanding.

Table 30. Language usage and progress in L2 usage, L2 proficiency, and C2 cultural understanding

		M	*SD*	*N*
Usage of English (%)				
	Pre	38.33	28.723	9

	Post	45.56	19.275	9
	Progress	7.2222	20.4803	9
Self-Rated Language Proficiency				
	Pre	2.89	1.616	9
	Post	3.78	1.093	9
	Progress	0.8889	1.2693	9
Self-Rated Cultural Understanding				
	Pre	5.111	1.0541	9
	Post	4.778	1.0929	9
	Progress	−0.3333	1.5	9

Note. Progress for each category is calculated by subtracting the pre-score from the post-score.

Table 31. Correlations for L2 usage and progress in L2 usage, L2 proficiency, and cultural Understanding

		Usage of L2		Self-Rated Language proficiency		Cultural Understanding		Usage of English Progress	Language Score Progress	Culture Score Progress
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post			
Begin English	Pearson Correlation	1	.702*	0.601	0.385	0.048	-0.013	-.742*	-0.434	-0.044
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.035	0.087	0.306	0.902	0.973	0.022	0.243	0.911
	N	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9
End English	Pearson Correlation	.702*	1	0.464	0.511	-0.034	-0.201	-0.043	-0.15	-0.122
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.035		0.209	0.16	0.93	0.604	0.912	0.699	0.754
	N	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9	9

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Second language usage and progress. Second language usage at the beginning and progress in L2 usage were significantly negatively correlated, $r = -.742$, $n = 9$, $p = .022$. This result suggests that SA students who used the L2 more frequently in the beginning tended to make less progress in L2 usage during their four-month stay abroad. This result supports complacency theory as described in the discussion section. In other words, SA students who spoke less English at the beginning were more likely to make more progress in their L2 usage during SA. As for the relationship between second language usage patterns at the beginning and at the end with progress in L2 learning and C2 learning, Table 32 shows no significant correlations.

Another way of examining potential relations between L2 usage and language and culture learning is to determine whether a correlation exists between L2 usage and post-L2 score or post-C2 score separately, i.e., to check for any relationship between SA students' second language usage and their perceived gains in C2/L2 after they had studied four months abroad.

Table 32. Correlations between L2 usage, L2 proficiency, and cultural understanding

		L2 Usage		Self-Rated L2 Proficiency		Cultural Understanding	
		Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
Begin English	Pearson Correlation	1	.702*	0.601	0.385	0.048	-0.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.035	0.087	0.306	0.902	0.973
	N	9	9	9	9	9	9
End English	Pearson Correlation	.702*	1	0.464	0.511	-0.034	-0.201

Sig. (2-tailed)	0.035		0.209	0.16	0.93	0.604
N	9	9	9	9	9	9

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The following two sub-sections report on the results of correlation between the factors pre-students' L2 usage, post-students' L2 usage, post-L2 score, and post-C2 score.

Second language usage at the beginning. Second language usage at the beginning significantly correlated with L2 usage at the end of the program, $r = .702$, $n = 9$, $p = .035$. In other words, those SA students who used English more at the beginning were more likely to maintain this pattern of using English more at the end of the program.

The correlation of second language usage at the beginning with L2 pre-proficiency scores ($r = .60$) was higher than with post-proficiency scores ($r = .38$), albeit insignificant for both. No significant correlations were found between L2 usage at the beginning and cultural understanding both at the beginning and at the end of the program.

Second language usage at the end. A correlation (though insignificant) was found between L2 usage at the end and self-rated L2 proficiency both in the beginning ($r = .464$) and at the end of the program ($r = .511$). L2 usage at the end was not correlated with pre-cultural understanding ($r = -.034$).

In sum, the only significant correlation was found between L2 usage at the beginning and L2 usage at the end. Second language usage frequency at the beginning and at the end showed no significant correlations with L2 learning and C2 learning at the beginning, nor at the end, of the program.

Relationship of Initial L2 Proficiency and Gains in L2 and C2

The relationship between SA students' initial L2 proficiency and their perceived gains in L2/C2 is investigated in this section. It presents findings to answer research question 3h: How does the level of L2 proficiency upon entrance into the SA program affect perceived gains in L2 proficiency and perceived gains in culture learning C2?

L2 proficiency was measured by (1) self-ratings of L2 proficiency on a scale from 1 to 7 (question 11 in Appendix A) and (2) CESL placement tests that assigned students to levels (10-70). Table 33 shows the correlations between initial L2 proficiency (placement level and self-assessment score) and perceived gains in L2 and C2 at the end of four months. The latter were self-assessed by students using a six-point Likert scale (see question 11 in Appendix 1).

Table 33. Correlations between initial second language proficiency measures and second language (Post L2)/second culture (Post C2) gains

		Pre L2 Level	Post L2 Self-Rated	Post C2 Self-Rated
Pre L2 Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.584**	−0.171
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.001	0.395
	N	27	27	27
Pre L2 Self-Rated	Pearson Correlation	.718**	.597**	−0.051
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0	0.001	0.8
	N	27	27	27

Note. Initial L2 proficiency was determined through placement test results (Pre L2 Level) and participants' self-ratings of L2 proficiency on a 7-point Likert scale (Pre L2 Self-Rated)
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The placement level in the beginning significantly correlated with post-scores of self-rated L2 proficiency, r (25) = .584, p = .001. However, only a small non-significant negative correlation was found between placement level in the beginning and post-C2 score.

Second language self-rated proficiency in the beginning significantly correlated with the level at which they were placed, r = .718, n = 27, p = .000. However, L2 self-rated proficiency in the beginning had nearly no correlation with post- C2 scores.

Intercultural Competence and Gains in Culture/Language Learning

This section presents the results that attempted to answer research question *3i. How do the reported progress reports in culture learning (C2 score) and language learning (L2 score) relate to participants' ICC attributes?* Correlations were computed for overall ICC scores with gains in culture learning and overall ICC scores with gains in language learning. The sum ICC scores were computed twice, once for pre-sum score and the second time for the post-sum. The sum was computed by adding all scores of the items in the survey of cultural intelligence (ICC). This self-rating survey consists of 22 personality traits that are considered potentially relevant to ICC or "cultural intelligence" (Peterson, 2004). The participants rated themselves on a scale from 1 = does not apply to me at all to 6 = applies to me very much (Appendix B).

Table 34 shows the correlations between sum ICC and perceived gains in L2 and gains in C2. Only one result showed a significant correlation between two variables: sum ICC scores in the beginning and sum ICC in the end were strongly correlated, $r = .574$, $n = 27$, $p = .002$.

The level of placement at the beginning had a weak, non-significant correlation with sum ICC scores in both pre- and post-tests. Moreover, sum ICC scores in the beginning had nearly no correlations with post-L2 scores, nor with post-C2 scores. Similarly, sum ICC scores in the end had nearly no correlation with post-L2 score, nor with post-C2 score.

Table 34. Correlations between sum intercultural competence and second language/second culture gains

		Pre L2 Level	Post L2 Self-Rated	Post C2 Self-Rated	Sum Pre ICC Scores	Sum Post ICC Scores
Pre L2 Level	Pearson Correlation	1	.584**	-0.171	-0.111	-0.127
	Sig. (2-tailed)	-	0.001	0.395	0.58	0.527
	N	27	27	27	27	27
Sum Pre ICC Scores	Pearson Correlation	-0.111	0.074	0.005	1	.574**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.58	0.712	0.981	-	0.002
	N	27	27	27	27	27
Sum Post ICC Scores	Pearson Correlation	-0.127	0.026	0.06	.574**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.527	0.898	0.765	0.002	-
	N	27	27	27	27	27

Note. Initial L2 proficiency was determined through placement test results (Pre L2 Level

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

In summary, this study found that there was no statistical evidence for a relationship between personality attributes related to ICC and language proficiency level, nor with cultural understanding.

Discussion

This section discusses the results in light of the research questions.

Expectation/Gains for Language and Culture

SA students' expectations in the beginning of the program were compared with their perceived gains after four months with regard to language and culture learning to answer research questions 3a, 3b, and 3c, which investigated potential differences between expected learning progress and perceived learning gains. The results showed that all expectation scores in the beginning of the program were higher than the perceived gains at the end of the program. A comparison between pre- and post-scores for each skill showed significant differences between speaking, listening, reading, grammar, and vocabulary scores. The significant decreases in scores could be attributed to the widely held preconceived image of studying abroad as a place in which language skills would naturally come to SA students. The preconception that being immersed in the SA context has always been, and probably is still, seen by students as an easy task that only requires L2 learners to be there in order to be immersed, and as a result language would come automatically, as indicated by Kinginger (2009), Badstübner and Ecke (2009), and Wilkinson (1998). Moreover, the practice of advertising SA programs could also participate in painting a fantastic picture for such programs that usually gives potential SA learners the impression that all

they need to develop their language proficiency is to study abroad. This may result in raising students' very high expectations for learning (Salyers et al., 2015; Mendelson, 2004).

The only skills that did not show significant differences between pre- program expectations and post-program gains were writing and cultural understanding. As for writing, the scores of pre- and post-tests showed no significant difference, probably because the SA program focus was more on academic language skills fitting well into SA students' main goals of studying abroad: pursuing university degrees. The same interpretation could also apply to the score for "culture learning" that was the lowest among expected learning gains and that showed no significant difference. The main goal of the SA students, as well as KASP, did not give much weight to the component of culture learning, even though culture exchange was mentioned as part of the goals of KASP. These findings support the results from previous studies that demonstrated that students' expectations are often higher than their perceived learning gains at the end of the SA stay (Salyers et al., 2015; Badstübner & Ecke, 2009; Mendelson, 2004). However, the present findings differ from Badstübner and Ecke (2009) in that cultural understanding is relatively low in Saudis' pre-program expectations and even lower in perceived post-program gains. Specific expectations and gains for aspects of culture will be discussed next.

Expectation/Gains for Aspects of Culture

This section discusses the results relevant to research questions 3d, 3e, and 3f, which investigated the effect of SA study on participants' expectations and whether they would change after four months. Interestingly, SA students' expectations were modestly rated for learning aspects of culture. This could be a result of the Saudi students' overall instrumental goals for

studying abroad: obtaining a degree and learning L2 (English). Not surprisingly, the highest pre-test score was obtained for the aspect related to "student life" (score 5 out of 6). This indicates that ICC is not considered a main goal of Saudi SA students even though one of the goals of KASP is learning about the other. Out of the 32 aspects of culture, only four showed a significant change, as the scores in the post-surveys were significantly lower than those in the pre-surveys for the four aspects. These aspects were "knowledge about literature," "how to live like Americans," "skills to interact with US Americans," and "US American thinking."

The aspects that showed significant differences can be categorized into knowledge (knowledge about literature; US American thinking) and skills (skills to live like Americans; skills to interact with Americans). SA students' scores were modest with regard to these aspects, and their scores for self-perceived learning gains in these areas significantly decreased in the post-test. The lowest scores for US cuisine, the economy, music, politics, work opportunities, and US values could point to low/no integrative motivation and a more instrumental motivation, but this might need further investigation. Whether or not these aspects were included in the curriculum is beyond the scope of this paper. However, it is worth noting that culture-specific knowledge and appropriate skills to interact with the individuals in the host culture, guided by an awareness of the host culture's frame of reference, lie at the heart of ICC, as proposed in Deardorff's (2004) model. Furthermore, these findings showed that immersion in the host culture is not inevitable given that students are already abroad. Similarly, the findings indicated that exposure to the target second language and culture may not guarantee automatic learning of the L2, nor an understanding of the C2, as suggested in previous studies (Wilkinson, 1998; Salyers et al., 2015; Mendelson, 2004; Williams, 2005; Cadd, 2012). These findings led to the investigation

of potential relationships between learning L2/C2 and L2 usage, initial language proficiency, and ICC. This investigation is discussed next.

Importance of L2 Usage

This section discusses the results relevant to research question 3g, which sought an answer to "how language usage frequencies relate to progress in reported/perceived progress in L2 learning, and progress in culture learning (C2)." The relationship between SA students' L2 usage and their scores in L2/C2 was tested.

Second language usage patterns and progress in second language usage and L2/C2 scores. L2 usage at the beginning of the program obtained significantly negative correlation (r = −.742) with progress in L2 usage. In other words, SA students who had used L2 more in the beginning of the program were more likely to make less progress in L2 usage. This result suggests that SA students who started their SA program with higher reported rates of L2 usage have not changed (much) in terms of their L2 usage patterns, which probably could be attributed to their being complacent with respect to their language skills, as suggested by previous studies (Vande Berg et al., 2009; Engle and Engle, 2004). In other words, SA students who spoke less English at the beginning of the program were more likely to make significant progress in their L2 usage. This finding is predictable, given that the participants were for the first time going abroad for study purposes and that English is not used often in the Saudi context. Consequently, those who have had fewer opportunities to use English at home have more chances to significantly increase their L2 usage abroad.

However, the current study also found that L2 usage at the beginning significantly correlated with L2 usage at the end of the program, which suggests that those SA students who

used English more at the beginning were more likely to keep using English more at the end of the program and that those SA students who used English less at the beginning were still using English less at the end of the program. This consistent pattern could be attributed to SA students being left to their own devices, without guidance on how they could get the most out of the opportunity of the SA context. This result supports what Vande Berg et al. (2009) found, that most of SA participants, "when left to their own devices, failed to learn well even when 'immersed' in another culture," noting that "being exposed to cultures different from their home cultures turned out to be a necessary, though not a sufficient, condition for their intercultural learning" (p. 25). Another possibility is that differences in learners' personality styles may play a role (e.g., introversion vs. extroversion) and that some learners may be more motivated or inclined than others in using English in the C2 environment.

As for progress in scores, the results showed that SA students' L2 usage frequency had no significant correlations with students' progress scores in second language learning or in cultural understanding. The results also indicated that SA students' L2 usage had no significant correlations with students' second language proficiency (as measured by self-assessment in pre- and post-surveys, and in placement tests at the program beginning). L2 usage neither correlated with students' scores in cultural understanding (measured as expected progress in cultural understanding in the pre-surveys and perceived gains in cultural understanding in the post-surveys). However, SA students' L2 usage had a greater correlation with self-rated language proficiency pre-scores (r = .60) with a p-value approaching significance (p = .087), whereas at the end of the program, a weaker non-significant correlation was found (r = .38; p = .30). This

result could be attributed to the higher expectations SA students had for L2 learning when they were—according to the misleading assumption—immersed in the SA context.

Potential relevance of initial second language proficiency for gains in second language/second culture. The level of L2 proficiency upon entrance into the SA program (measured by self-rated proficiency pre-scores and CESL placement level) was studied to determine its potential relationship to L2 proficiency and C2 gains. The results showed that placement level in the beginning of the program significantly correlated with post-L2 self-rated score (r = .584). In other words, the higher SA students were placed in the beginning of the program, the higher the score they gained at the end of the program. Moreover, this study found that the L2 self-rated proficiency score at the beginning significantly correlated with the level at which they were placed. This result seems to suggest that students' self-ratings were consistent with the more objective placement test. This supports previous research and assumptions that self-assessment is a quite valid instrument to evaluate L2 proficiency (Ross, 2006). It may be useful for KASP to identify SA students' levels prior to sending them abroad and getting in either direct or indirect contact with SA programs for better coordination and supervision that could lead to sounder management. It is important here to note that it has been claimed that some Saudi/Gulf students intentionally performed poorly in exams in order to be placed into lower levels because they thought, they would learn more, or they would just use their time to explore the new environment (Alobaid, 2015; personal communication). This practice could be countered by asking students in the orientation to rate themselves honestly and inform them that this practice is not in their best interest. KASP should employ some kind of monitoring students' usage of the scholarship so they do not spend more time than they are supposed to in levels lower

than their actual language proficiency. As for the CESL program, the high correlation between self-assessment scores and placement test levels in this study seems to suggest that intentional placement into lower levels is not a main issue among students and that placement test results are quite accurate.

As for the relationship between SA students' initial L2 proficiency level, measured by their placement levels and L2 self-rating proficiency scores in the beginning, and gains in cultural understanding after four months, the study found no statistically significant correlation. This result suggests that there is no direct relation between L2 proficiency level and gains in cultural understanding and that overall culture learning may not have been of primary importance to both this population of Saudi students and the SA program. However, the researcher has recently seen an increased focus at CESL on ICC, as the latter has started an ICC task force in which the researcher has participated. This could put more weight on ICC in the curriculum for the good of all stakeholders.

Intercultural competence and gains in culture learning/language learning. The overall score of ICC-related personal attributes computed by adding sub-scores obtained in the self-ratings of the 22 attributes listed in Appendix B (sum ICC score) may be representative of a wide array of components that facilitate or constitute ICC (see Peterson, 2004). In Study 1 (in this dissertation), the items of ICC-related adjectives could be successfully aligned with the components of Deardorff's (2004) model.

By conducting correlation tests for the overall score of ICC-related attributes with gains in culture learning, the current study found, surprisingly, no statistically significant correlations between reported gains in cultural understanding (C2) and sum pre-ICC scores (r = .005), and

sum post-ICC scores (r = .060). What could be the reason for this lack of correlation between attributes that have been suggested to facilitate ICC development and perceived gains in culture learning? A first possibility is that four months of SA in a relatively encapsulated ESL-learning environment may simply be too little to experience real-life cultural learning (Bennett, 1993). Perhaps, students may perceive more cultural learning at a later point when they have had more opportunities to interact with fellow-US students in their academic degree programs. A second possibility is that a good number of the 22 attributes assumed to facilitate ICC may not necessarily be relevant for culture learning or may be based on western views of what facilitates culture learning. A third reason may relate to the relatively minor role given to the cultural component by Saudi students and ESL teachers..

As far as language learning is concerned, the results showed that level of placement at the beginning had a weak, non-significant correlation with sum ICC scores in both pre- and post-tests. Nearly no correlations were found between post-L2 scores and sum pre-ICC scores (r = .074), nor with sum post-ICC scores (r = .026), contrary to previous studies that found some kind of relationship between ICC and L2/C2 gains (Cubillos & Ilvento, 2012; Martinsen, 2010; Martinsen & Alvord, 2012; Vande Berg et al., 2009; Baker-Smemoe et al., 2014). The finding of the present study suggests that Saudi students do not consider ICC as a pre-requisite for them to be proficient in the L2 and to succeed in an academic program in the US.

However, the current study found that sum ICC scores in the beginning correlated significantly with sum ICC in the end (r = .574**). It appears that some of the attributes that made up the sum ICC score are quite stable personality attributes that do not change much or at all over time (Ecke, 2012). It could also be an implication for KASP and the SA programs to

introduce and discuss ICC concepts and issues with SA students in pre-arrival orientations and ESL courses. This is consistent with Baker-Smemoe et al. (2014) who maintained that "students' abilities to deal effectively with other cultures affects their L2 learning, at least in the study abroad context," and emphasized that "cultural instruction and interactions should play a meaningful role in all L2 teaching" (pp. 14–15).

Summary and Conclusion

This study found that students' expectations were not met after four months of studying abroad with regard to most language skills with the exception of writing and cultural understanding. All perceived gains in skills' after 4-months of SA were lower than students' expected learning gains at the beginning of the program. SA students did not seem to have reasonable expectations for their language and culture learning abroad. Yet this does not mean that they should be held accountable for their unrealistic expectations. The responsibility to prepare students for SA and to help them form realistic expectations lies on the shoulders of all stakeholders. It is imperative that pre-departure orientations be well organized and that they prepare SA students for potential challenges with respect to language learning and acculturation so that they can overcome difficulties they encounter when they are abroad. Furthermore, ongoing orientations, seminars or workshops on cultural differences in communication style preferences or cultural values as well as issues of cultural adjustment may help students on their way through a successful SA.

SA students' expectations were modestly rated for learning aspects of culture. This could be due to the Saudi students' overall instrumental motives for studying abroad, namely, learning

the L2 (English) as a means to obtain a degree in the US and then return to the home country. There was relatively little interest in a number of cultural aspects (from US cuisine via politics to US values) which appears to suggest little or no interest in integration into the host culture. This could, in part, be an effect of the philosophy and practice of teaching English in Saudi Arabia that has for decades ignored the culture dimension or even considered its inclusion in the curricula Westernization. The lack that SA students in this study showed in culture-specific knowledge and appropriate skills to interact with the individuals in the host culture could hinder developing students' ICC as these components lie at the heart of ICC, as proposed in Deardorff's (2004) model. Furthermore, these findings showed that immersion in the host culture is not inevitable given that students are already abroad. Presenting ICC models and exploring how these may help SA students develop ICC may be in the interest of all stakeholders and could prove beneficial if cultural adjustment and integration (without giving up own values and beliefs) is one objective sought in studying abroad.

This study also found that SA students who started their SA program with higher reported rates of L2 usage made less progress in terms of their L2 usage patterns after four months, which could probably be attributed to their being complacent with respect to their language skills, as suggested by previous studies (Vande Berg et al., 2009; Engle and Engle, 2004). On the other hand, those who spoke less English at the beginning of the program were more likely to make greater progress in their L2 usage after four months, which is more predictable. The present study also found no relationship between SA students' L2 usage frequency and their scores in L2 or C2 both at the beginning of the program and after four months. Not only does this raise a question about the time of L2 usage, but it also brings into question the quality of L2 usage.

This study also found that no significant relationship existed between personal attributes suggested to facilitate ICC (at the beginning and after four months) and perceived gains in language proficiency, or with perceived cultural understanding. These findings are consistent with Vande Berg et al. (2009) who found no direct relationship between second language and intercultural development. They argued that most of SA participants, "when left to their own devices, failed to learn well even when 'immersed' in another culture," noting that "being exposed to cultures different from their home cultures turned out to be a necessary, though not a sufficient, condition for their intercultural learning" (p. 25). It could also be that differences in learners' personality styles play a role (introversion vs. extroversion) and that some learners are more motivated or inclined than others in using English in the C2 environment. In either case, it is imperative to prepare intervention procedures as recommended by previous studies. Several arrangements were recommended in the literature to help Saudi SA students to make use of and further develop their L2 skills.

One recommendation was to create opportunities for students to mix with locals and create programs that facilitate the integration of cultures in which they can assume leadership roles like the Saudi Club, and domestic students who participate in international programs should be awarded some type of credit to encourage them to engage with Saudis (Hofer, 2009). Hall (2013 p. 126) asserted that "many of the issues facing Saudi students in the United States stem from the host institution not providing tailored or at least appropriate levels of support for the Saudi men, and this comes from a failure to understand their unique culture and the unique issues they face when studying in the United States," recommending an early intervention in which a team of English language speakers and Arabic speakers help new Saudi students find housing

and adjust to the new environment to break up "the pattern of Saudi men relying on each other in the early days." He also recommended that living situations be created "where Saudis live with one another and with Americans studying Arabic, religion, international business or other related majors" (p. 128). Similarly, Alqahtani (2011) indicated the difficulties encountered by the Saudis who wish to interact with the British in the universities and the local community, recommending that contact opportunities be created so that Saudis can actively be engaged with their British peers, professors, and other people from the local community. Alqahtani (p. 227) also suggested that mentors with cross-cultural knowledge could be beneficial in supporting overseas Saudi students to adapt to the new environment, and he referred to the significant role the British host institutions can play both ways to get the Saudi students and the local community build a useful relationship. Such types of interventions are represented in the Commission on English Language Program Accreditation (CEA) Standards for English Language Programs and Institutions under Student Services area, standards 3 and 6 as follows:

> Student Services Standard 3:
>
> The program or language institution provides pre-arrival and ongoing orientation (1) to support students in their adjustment to the program or institution (and to the host institution if applicable) and to the surrounding culture and community.
>
> Student Services Standard 6:
>
> Students have access to social and recreational activities that provide a cultural context for their language acquisition and other studies, as appropriate.

In conclusion, a SA context may provide the right place to develop both second language and second culture learning. However, this is not guaranteed. Well-organized interventions should be introduced at the right time by the right person to achieve the desired goals.

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CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Intercultural competence (ICC) has piqued research interests from various disciplines, such as international relations, international business, and health care, among others. The ultimate goal of this body of research is to build environments where intercultural situations host successful intercultural interactions. At this period where borders between different cultures/peoples are increasingly shrinking because of so many factors the most relevant of which is student mobility, researching how SA context should be utilized to foster ICC has become extremely important .

The purpose of this dissertation was to explore the relationship between studying abroad and the development of SA students' ICC. The majority of ICC research is Western-based. Although it has significantly contributed to this field, much has remained to be investigated from non-Western perspectives. The significance of the study is that it attempts to fill in the gap by adding a non-Western perspective. Moreover, the study applied different types of ICC assessment methods, the most important of which was investigating an element that has repeatedly been recognized as missing in the literature, namely, the others' perspective, which was in this study the perspective of ESL teachers of the host culture who commented on and assessed aspects of SA students' ICC. ICC has two dimensions: effectiveness and appropriateness in communication (Deardorff, 2004; Fantini, 2009; Pusch, 1994), both of which were addressed in the current study. Fantini (2009) explained that "whereas *effective* reflects the view of one's own performance in the target language-culture (an outsider's or 'etic' view), *appropriate* reflects how natives perceive such performance (i.e., an insider's or 'emic' view)"

(p. 458). The relationship between ICC and linguistic/cultural proficiency was also investigated in this study. This chapter restates the research questions and main findings of the three-article dissertation and provides implications and recommendations for practice and future research.

Research Questions and Results

The dissertation sought to investigate the aspects of ICC development in a SA context. To explore this general issue, it was divided into three stand-alone but inter-related studies investigating (1) whether students' ICC develops in SA contexts, (2) to what extent Saudi students' attitudes toward and assumptions about the US culture and their own culture change during the first four months of study in the USA, and (3) if a relationship exists between language proficiency and ICC.

Chapter 2 Research Questions and Results

The first study, entitled "Saudi Students' Preparedness to Develop Intercultural Competence Abroad: Perceptions of Students and Teachers," investigated the extent to which ICC-related attributes developed over the period of four months of the participants' SA. Taking into consideration the importance of using different methods for the assessment of ICC, quantitative and qualitative tools were used to assess the participants' ICC based on both their own perceptions (outsider's view) and the perceptions of their teachers (insider's view). In particular, the investigation of the emic view (insider's view) came in response to calls of previous studies (Deardorff, 2014; Fantini, 2009; Pusch, 1994) which suggested that the

assessment of ICC should not depend solely on how individuals perceive themselves because this perception could represent only part of ICC (i.e., effectiveness).

The results of the self-assessment component of the study showed no substantial change in attributes, suggested to facilitate ICC (Peterson, 2004) from pre- to post-surveys. This stagnation could be attributed to different factors, such as students' satisfaction with the achieved L2 proficiency level, personality, or limited time of studying abroad. It could also be a result of limited amounts of interaction with and limited learning about members of the target culture. This in turn could be a consequence of a lack of preparation and advising of students before and during SA so that students will often be left to their own devices in their attempts to cope with and make sense of the new SA environment.

Furthermore, a considerable amount of agreement in ICC assessment was found between the teachers and the students. However, some disagreement was found in teachers' and students' assessments of ICC-related attributes. This may raise questions about the validity of typical survey studies and participants' self-assessments of ICC attributes, but it may also question to what extent teachers of certain ESL classes, e. g. on grammar or reading, are able to objectively assess ICC skills' that go beyond the classroom context.

This study applied Deardorff's (2004) ICC model as a theoretical framework to guide teachers' assessment of students' ICC. A significant finding was that teachers found difficulty in assessing SA students vis-a-vis specific components (e.g., respect, openness, and empathy) in the ICC model, whereas it was easier for them to assess SA students according to the more general definition of Deardorff's (2004) ICC model (i.e., "to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes"). This

finding provides partial support to the claim made by Deardorff (2004) that this "model enables the development of specific assessment indicators within a context/situation while also providing a basis for general assessment of intercultural competence, thus embracing both general and specific definitions of intercultural competence" (p. 193).

The discrepancies that were found in the study in the perception of (Saudi Arab) learners and their (US) teachers included both underestimations and overestimations of aspects of students' ICC. In other words, it was not the case that teachers, for example, rated students consistently lower on ICC attributes. ICC-related attributes that were rated relatively high by participants are: humility, respect for others, and empathy. Attributes that were rated relatively low by students included comfort with uncertainty, being invigorated by difference, ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points, and patience when you are not in control. The low ratings of the latter attributes suggest that the Saudi students investigated in this study lack what has been called "curiosity and discovery". Previous Western-based research (Byram, 1997; Bennett, 1993; Deardorff, 2004) maintained that the component of curiosity and discovery (in the attitude level) is a basic tenet of ICC. In light of Hofstede's (1983) cultural dimensions, the present study suggested that the cultural dimension of "curiosity and discovery" may apply less to the Saudi culture than the US culture, indicating that the Western-based view of ICC might not fit well for non-Western cultures. This finding is a step forward to reach a more universal understanding of the concept of ICC.

Successful intercultural interactions are pre-conditioned by attitudes of openness, curiosity, and respect (Byram, 1997). Deardorff (2004) maintained that degree of the desired external outcome depends on degrees of components of the model, such as "respect, openness,

cultural self-awareness, empathy". This means that people can possess these attitudes (openness, curiosity, and respect) but lack other essential components (e.g., knowledge and skills). This study showed that participants may lack certain attitudes which may make it difficult to acquire knowledge and skills. This makes it imperative for SA orientations and programs to design interventions (described below) that can help form attitudes that may facilitate ICC development. Ideally, when these attitudes are developed, individuals develop their informed frame-of-reference shift that enables a person to mediate between cultures appropriately and effectively.

On the other hand, inappropriate intercultural interactions would occur because of low degrees of ICC components. Typically, SA learners who are self-select already have relatively high degrees of attitudes, such as openness and respect for others. However, they may be lacking other attributes, such as comfort with uncertainty, being invigorated by difference or patience when not in control (as in this study) which may make it harder for them to gain access into the host community, increase language proficiency, and acquire cultural knowledge or skills (Chapter 4). This could lead learners to continue holding stereotypes, as found in the second study (Chapter 3). Given that ICC is related to the way individuals think of people of different cultural backgrounds, it was compelling to investigate how the participants would perceive people of their own culture (Saudi) compared with people of the host culture (US) and whether these perceptions would change over the four-month period of their SA, as summarized next.

Chapter 3 Research Questions and Results

The study entitled "Saudi Students' Perceptions of Members of the Saudi and US Cultures" reported in this chapter sought to investigate the perceptions and attitudes that SA

learners hold for the people of both the own culture (Saudi) and the host culture (US) and whether their perceptions upon their entry into the SA program would change after four months. The attention given to the topic of attitudes/perceptions that individuals hold is of importance to the ICC concept. Byram (1997) emphasized that attitudes of openness, curiosity, and suspension of judgment of others' cultures are "pre-condition for successful intercultural interaction" (p. 34).

The present longitudinal study applied quantitative and qualitative methods to gain more insight into SA learners' potential change of perceptions and attitudes over the first four months of their study in the US. The methods used to collect data were pre- and post-surveys, interviews, and student journals. Comparison of the participants' perceptions of Saudi people and US people showed two themes. The Saudi people were ascribed attributes related to building and maintaining relationships, whereas US Americans were ascribed and rated highly on work-related qualities/attributes. The two themes were similarly evident upon learners' entry into the SA program and after four months. In other words, SA learners' initial stereotypes of both Saudis and US Americans were mostly confirmed in the post-data. This persistent pattern indicated that SA learners in the present study still depended on their own frame of reference even after four months of SA.

This finding is consistent with previous studies (Coleman, 1998; Ecke, 2012a, 2013; Ogden, 2008; Perrefort, 2008) that similarly found that national stereotyping might be reinforced when studying abroad. The stability of these perceptions/stereotypes (whether negative or positive) may suggest that the participants' ICC is not developing any further. To reiterate, ICC means "to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes" (Deardorff, 2004). Judging people based on their

own frame of reference indicates intercultural (in)competence that will, most likely, lead to unsuccessful communication. This suggests that even if the participants were open, curious, and respectful, other possible preconceptions might have negatively affected the development of competence to mediate between cultures in intercultural situations. The continued pattern of national stereotyping indicates that SA learners are missing out on opportunities to have deeper understanding of their own culture and the host culture.

Could this lack of change be related to or caused by higher expectations, limited language proficiency, and poor cultural understanding? To investigate this question, the third study (Chapter 4) was designed to examine the possible relationship between ICC and language proficiency.

Chapter 4 Research Questions and Results

The third study investigated the relationship between ICC and linguistic proficiency in the SA context. It is a longitudinal quantitative study that was, similarly to studies 1 and 2, conducted over a period of four months. In sub-questions, SA learners' expectations and their perceived gains with respect to L2 learning and cultural understanding were also investigated. Investigations included L2 usage frequencies and their possible correlation with expected/perceived gains in L2 learning and cultural understanding, correlation between level of L2 proficiency upon entrance in the SA program and perceived gains in L2 learning and cultural understanding, and finally the relationship between learners' pre- and post-ICC and perceived gains in L2 learning and cultural understanding.

The results showed that four months after learners had studied abroad, their expectations were not met for all sub-skills of language, except for writing skill and cultural understanding. The participants' expectation for cultural understanding was the lowest compared with the other language sub-skills. After four months, the learners' perceived cultural understanding was still low. This finding suggests that SA learners were not very interested in the US American culture from the beginning and that being abroad did not pique their interest either. This attitude might be caused by the main goal of the students of KASP: earning a degree, an instrumental motive to temporarily study abroad and acquire the L2. Speaking and listening skills were ranked even lower than cultural understanding at the end of the four-month SA period. This could suggest that SA participants used the L2 not very frequently if at all beyond the classroom.

The results also showed no relationship between SA learners' L2 usage frequencies and their scores in expected gains and perceived gains in L2 learning and cultural understanding. Moreover, the study found no relationship between ICC (upon entry into program and after four months) and SA learners' perceived gains in L2 proficiency. Similarly, no relationship was found between ICC (pre- and post-scores) and SA learners' perceived cultural understanding. However, these results need to be interpreted with caution because of the limitation of the use of one quantitative method (pre- and post-surveys) to elicit data and the small number of participants. While 27 students participated in the surveys, only nine participated in reporting their L2 usage frequencies. The study has implications for research and practice that are discussed in the relevant chapter and summarized in the following section.

Recommendations and Implications

For many, SA is a promising setting for developing ICC. This study, however, suggests that this might not be the case when SA students are exclusively instrumentally motivated, if they lack certain attributes that help develop or are prerequisites for ICC development, and if they are mostly left to their own devices learning about and adjusting to life in another country. SA has the potential to afford learners great opportunities of intercultural encounters. It is, however, not the mere encounters that help enhance learners' awareness of the existence of different worldviews, but reflecting on such encounters and the differences and similarities that they bring with themselves. This study found that SA learners would continue to use their home cultural frame of reference even after they had spent four months of studying abroad, as discussed in the abovementioned sections. Thus, learners' awareness should be raised about the existence of worldviews that differ from those of the participants'. Some implications and recommendations for practice and future research are suggested in this section.

For Practice

This section presents practical implications for interventions that could be applied in SA programs. Interventions should be organized in a more effective approach to achieve the goals of studying abroad. Pre-SA orientations, for instance, should be delivered to potential SA learners with more emphasis placed on the concept of ICC and the co-existence of different worldviews. Moreover, ongoing orientations that are provided by cultural mentors who are well-versed in

ICC are consequential if SA programs are meant to bring people of diverse cultures to co-live peacefully.

Raising learners' awareness about the idea that their cultural views are not universal must be a goal. Learners should understand that people who come from different cultural backgrounds might deal differently even with simple situations. This is of paramount importance when SA learners come from a home culture that differs in important ways from a host culture, such as in the case in the present study. Introducing SA students to different value systems and exposing them to diverse perceptions on issues could be useful so they can develop awareness of the existence of frames of references that can be different from theirs. This will help students reflect upon the values that underlie their perceptions about both their own culture and the host culture because such perceptions and attitudes are potentially important factors that affect learning, communication, and appropriate functioning in the target culture. A detailed example of how to enhance learners' intercultural sensitivity is presented in the conclusion of Chapter 2. It illustrates how to use Deardorff and Bowman's (2011) textbook for this purpose.

ESL/SA programs frequently organize cultural activities (excursions, sports, cultural days, etc.). These activities consume time, effort, and money, and are usually executed with the goal to engage learners in the host community. Unfortunately, these activities are often not planned well to achieve the goals set, and students usually end up hanging out without specific tasks in mind or without opportunities to meet members of the host culture as found in a previous study (Conacher, 2008, cited in Ecke, 2014). Learners should be prepared well for such important activities. An activity such as the "international day" is a great event if the moment is seized to encourage learners to actively engage in more reflection about their own cultures and

the others' cultures. Learners should not be asked to only present some "stuff" from their home countries; they must be helped to think critically about them in sessions that can take place before this event starts and after it has finished. For instance, things that are taken for granted, such as products (e.g., clothes, songs, and dances) or practices (e.g., gender roles and greetings), should be selected as themes around which ongoing in-class discussions are held to reach a deeper understanding of the underlying values.

Moreover, ESL teachers come into direct contact with SA learners. Given the continuous contact between teachers and learners, cultural misunderstandings/conflicts often occur between the two groups. This intercultural conflict might lead to stereotyping and accordingly minimizes the possibilities of successful interactions. This result/effect is not wanted, but luckily it can be prevented by addressing the potential cause. What has been said about raising learners' awareness also applies to teachers. One activity that an ESL program can, for instance, do is to hold regular sessions that bring teachers and students together to discuss topics from their disparate cultures. Themes can be selected for these sessions, and students, with the help of cultural mentors, can prepare for these seminars. A series of seminars could also be held for teachers presented by experts in the field of ICC.

The findings of the second study (Chapter 3) on Saudis' perceptions of members of the US culture and the Saudi culture would be very informative for teachers and could provide a starting point for reflection and discussion. One activity that can be exercised here is critical incidents. Sample (2013) defined a critical incident as "an episode in which a student engaged in what, for them, was culturally acceptable behavior, only to have members of the host culture make it very clear that the behavior was *not* appropriate in this cultural context" (p. 12). The

context in ESL programs in the USA is even richer because one classroom can host SA learners from many cultural backgrounds.

Moreover, professional resources exist that ESL/SA programs should utilize to achieve goals related to ICC development. The following are some venues that can be suggested: the Center for Educational Resources in Culture, Language, and Literacy, which organizes the annual Intercultural Competence Conference and has resources, professional development opportunities, and projects, and NAFSA: Association of International Educators, which also holds an annual conference dedicated to international education and has professional development programs such as e-learning seminars and free collegial conversations that take place live and discuss international education topics. These are just two venues that could be utilized to develop teachers' capacities in the important topic of ICC.

The use of Deardorff's (2004) model in this study was helpful in investigating teachers' perspectives for research purposes. However, a similar approach could also be used for the development of curricula and the introduction of suitable concepts and materials relevant to ICC. In other words, Deardorff's model is broken down to show the components of ICC (attitudes, knowledge, skills, desired internal outcome, and desired external outcome), and each component has its elements (e.g., respect, sociolinguistic awareness, and empathy). When developing the curriculum, the developer could consult this model to make informed decisions on what enhances ICC. This model has been used successfully (Sample, 2013) and was found very useful. Its usefulness stems from the clarity of the model in terms of what enhances ICC. Sample (2013, p. 7) maintained that Deardorff's model helped understanding "the particular content of

the curriculum" because the model explicates the components that lay the basis for developing ICC.

At this point, the lack of ICC components in SA programs, as expressed by teachers in the present study, indicates that a gap exists between the administration of the scholarship program (KASP) and SA programs because one of the objectives of KASP is to develop ICC. The absence of ICC components from SA programs and lack of context to assess ICC require more attention from SA programs as well as ESL teachers. Given that ICC does not occur naturally and requires more intentional procedures, stakeholders should include ICC in the objectives to match the expectations with this regard, and assessment thereof should be planned accordingly, using mixed methods, such as pre-post measures, observations, interviews, and journals (see Ecke, 2012b and Fantini, 2009).

For Research

The requisite attitudes in the literature necessary for enhancing/developing ICC might suggest that individuals who come from certain societies are likely to be (naturally) more affectively ready than their counterparts who come from other societies (as discussed in Chapter 2). This is caused by the fact that the majority (if not all) of studies were conducted in the Western context. Although there are increasing numbers of studies from the East (e.g., China and Hong Kong), no studies, to the best of my knowledge, have investigated ICC from an Arab perspective, with the participants of the study being exclusively Saudi Arabs. ICC should be investigated from all the possible perspectives to reach a rounded understanding of the concept

of ICC. Further investigations that consider non-Western societies are necessary if ICC is to be fully understood.

The survey of ICC-related attributes used in the present study was usefully aligned with Deardorff's model. This proved beneficial in interpreting both quantitative and qualitative results, taking into consideration that mixed methods were previously found to be of best practices to assess ICC in Deardorff (2004). The survey used in this study, aligned with Deardorff's model, could be further researched once objectives are set from the beginning to assess students' ICC. However, one method is not enough to measure ICC. A quantitative tool, like the one used in this study, should be complemented by other methods, such as journals and interviews, among others.

Finally, this dissertation has demonstrated the need for more well-planned interventions in SA programs and that SA context should not be regarded as the ultimate solution to second language/culture acquisition. It also underscored the importance of adopting theoretical models (e.g., Deardorff's) to obtain better results. Further research is necessary to investigate Saudi SA students' ICC over a longer period and the quality of time that is spent in and out of class when learners study abroad. If intervention is used, research should study the effect of it on raising learners' intercultural awareness.

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APPENDIX A

Name: _____ Mark Level: ❑ Level10 ❑ Level20

❑ Level30

English Study Abroad Program at CESL (PRE-DEPARTURE FORM)

The information that you provide here may help us to better understand your background, and your goals and objectives for the **English Study Abroad Program at CESL** Program.

Part 1: Background Information

1. Gender: Male / Female
2. Age: _____
3. What is your native language? 1) Arabic 2) Other: _____
4. Please estimate how frequently you currently use the following languages on a normal day in percentages: Arabic ___% English ____%
5. Before coming to CESL, have you ever been to an English-speaking country? Circle one: Yes / No

   5a. If yes, when? _____

   5b. Where? _____

   5c. How long? _____
6. Other than the experience(s) mentioned in question 5, have you ever lived in another country? ⇨ Circle one: Yes / No

   If Yes, please provide details below.

	Experience 1	Experience 2	Experience 3	Experience 4
Country/region				
Language				
Purpose				
From when to when				

7. Please rate your proficiency in any language you speak from 1 (very poor) to 7 (native speaker):

Language(s)	Proficiency level						
	beginner		intermediate		advanced		native
First Language(s): Arabic_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Foreign Language(s): English_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. Have you studied English in school in the past at each of the levels listed below? If yes, how long? Please check the appropriate box in the table.

	No	Yes	less than 1 year	1–2 years	more than 2 years
a) Elementary school					
b) Middle school					
c) High school					
d) University/college					
e) Other (Please specify)					

9. What year are you going to be in school after CESL? (circle one):
Undergraduate student Graduate student

9a. What major? _____

9b. What minor? _____

Part 3: Expectations regarding the improvement of your language proficiency in English.

11. What do you expect from this program with regard to your language proficiency development?

As a result of this program, I expect my _____ to improve…

		not at all					*very much*
a)	speaking skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
b)	listening skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
c)	writing skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
d)	reading skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
e)	cultural understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6
f)	grammar	1	2	3	4	5	6
g)	vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 4: Expectations regarding the improvement of your cultural knowledge and skills in English.

12. What do you expect from this program with regard to your learning about the American culture?

-Instrument adapted from Ecke (2012)

During the program I expect to learn (about):	1 = *not at all*					6 = very much
American cuisine (food and drinks)	1	2	3	4	5	6
custom and tradition in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American economy	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American education system	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans make/treat friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
Americans' attitudes towards the environment	1	2	3	4	5	6
how American families work	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans see foreigners	1	2	3	4	5	6
American film and movies	1	2	3	4	5	6
American history	1	2	3	4	5	6
the ways Americans interact	1	2	3	4	5	6
how to like/appreciate Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
American literature	1	2	3	4	5	6
myself and my own culture	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans express feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6
the roles of men and women in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
American music	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans party and celebrate	1	2	3	4	5	6
how I can live like (and with) the Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American political system	1	2	3	4	5	6
opportunities for long-term life/work in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
recreation and leisure in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
skills I need to get along with Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
sports in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
college students' life	1	2	3	4	5	6
the ways Americans think	1	2	3	4	5	6
tourist destinations in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American transport system	1	2	3	4	5	6
what Americans think about Saudi Arabia	1	2	3	4	5	6
American values	1	2	3	4	5	6
work and professional life in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
what Americans think about Islam	1	2	3	4	5	6

Name: _____ Mark Level: ❑ Level10 ❑ Level20

❑ Level30

English Study Abroad Program at CESL (POSTPROGRAM/EVALUATION FORM)

Please let us know to what extent, you think, your language and cultural skills have improved as a result of the **English Study Abroad Program at CESL** program.

1a: Perceived improvement of your language proficiency in English.

As a result of this program, how much have your language skills in **English** improved?

As a result of this program, my _____ has/have improved…

		not at all				*very much*	
a)	speaking skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
b)	listening skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
c)	writing skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
d)	reading skills	1	2	3	4	5	6
e)	cultural understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6
f)	grammar	1	2	3	4	5	6
g)	vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	6

1b: Proficiency rating of all languages you know

Please rate your proficiency in any language you speak from 1 (very poor) to 7 (native speaker):

Language(s) Proficiency level

_____

	beginner		intermediate		advanced		native
First Language(s):							
Arabic_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Foreign Language(s):							
1. **English**_____	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2: Perceived improvement of your cultural knowledge and skills in English. As a result of this program, how much, do you think, you have learned about the following?

During the program I learned (about):	1 = *not at all*					6 = very much
American cuisine (food and drinks)	1	2	3	4	5	6
custom and tradition in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American economy	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American education system	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans make/treat friends	1	2	3	4	5	6
Americans' attitudes towards the environment	1	2	3	4	5	6
how American families work	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans see foreigners	1	2	3	4	5	6
American film and movies	1	2	3	4	5	6
American history	1	2	3	4	5	6
the ways Americans interact	1	2	3	4	5	6
how to like/appreciate Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
American literature	1	2	3	4	5	6
myself and my own culture	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans express feelings	1	2	3	4	5	6
the roles of men and women in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
American music	1	2	3	4	5	6
how Americans party and celebrate	1	2	3	4	5	6
how I can live like (and with) the Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American political system	1	2	3	4	5	6
opportunities for long-term life/work in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
recreation and leisure in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
skills I need to get along with Americans	1	2	3	4	5	6
sports in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
college students' life	1	2	3	4	5	6
the ways Americans think	1	2	3	4	5	6
tourist destinations in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
the American transport system	1	2	3	4	5	6
what Americans think about Saudi Arabia	1	2	3	4	5	6
American values	1	2	3	4	5	6
Work and professional life in America	1	2	3	4	5	6
what Americans think about Islam	1	2	3	4	5	6

Full Name: _____ Mark Level: ❑ Level10 ❑ Level20

Email: ❑ Level30 ❑ Level.....

Date:

English Study Abroad Program at CESL (PRE-DEPARTURE FORM)

المعلومات التي ستزودنا بها ستساعدنا على فهم خلفيتك وأهدافك من الدراسة في الخارج بشكل عام **(**في برنامج السيسل بشكل خاص).

الجزء الأول: معلومات شخصية

1. الجنس: ذكر / أنثى
2. العمر :
3. ما هي لغتك الأم؟ أ) العربية ب) أخرى _____
4. يرجى وضع نسبة تبين مقدار استخدامك للغات التالية في الأيام العادية: العربية ___ ٪ الانجليزية ____٪
5. قبل مجيئك لمعهد السيسل، هل زرت أياً من الدول المتحدثة بالانجليزية؟ ضع دائرة: نعم / لا

5-أ) إذا كان الجواب بنعم، متى زرتها؟_____

5-ب) أين؟_____

5-ج) كم المدة التي مكثتها؟_____

6. بخلاف التجارب المذكورة أعلاه في السؤال رقم 5، هل سبق أن عشت في دولة أخرى؟ ضع دائرة: نعم / لا

-أ) إذا كان الجواب بنعم فأرجو ذكر التفاصيل في الجدول التالي:

	التجربة الأولى	التجربة الثانية	التجربة الثالثة	التجربة الرابعة
الدولة/ المنطقة				
اللغة				
الغرض				
الفترة من ___ إلى ___				

7. يرجى منك تقييم كفاءتك في أي لغة تتحدثها من 1 (سيئة للغاية) إلى 7 (اللغة الأصلية):

اللغة	**مستوى الكفاءة**						
		مبتدئ		متوسط	متقدم		متحدث أصلي
اللغة الأولى							
العربية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
اللغة الأجنبية							
الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

8. هل درست اللغة الانجليزية في المراحل المدرسية الماضية كما في الجدول أدناه؟ إن كان الجواب بنعم، فكم المدة؟ يرجى تعبئة الحقول اللازمة في الجدول التالي.

	لا	نعم	أقل من سنة	من سنة – إلى سنتين	أكثر من سنتين
أ)المرحلة الابتدائية					
ب) المرحلة المتوسطة					
ج) المرحلة الثانوية					
د) الكلية/ أو المرحلة الجامعية					
هـ) أخرى (يرجى التحديد).....					

9. في أي مرحلة ستدرس بعد انتهائك من معهد اللغة (السيسل)؟ ضع دائرة :

بكالوريوس دراسات عليا أخرى_____

أ) التخصص الرئيسي_____
ب) التخصص الفرعي _____

الجزء الثاني: الأهداف والدوافع للدراسة في الخارج في معهد اللغة (السيسل)

10. ما هي أهدافك ودوافعك للدراسة في الخارج في معهد اللغة (السيسل)؟ ضع دائرة على الرقم المناسب.

	غير مهم					مهم جدا
أ) لدراسة اللغة الانجليزية	1	2	3	4	5	6
ب)من أجل السفر	1	2	3	4	5	6
ج)للابتعاد عن البلد	1	2	3	4	5	6
د) للإثراء الثقافي	1	2	3	4	5	6
هـ) للتواصل مع الامريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6

الجزء الثالث: التوقعات فيما يتعلق بتطور كفاءتك اللغوية باللغة الانجليزية

1. ماذا تتوقع من برنامج اللغة في المعهد فيما يتعلق بتطور كفاءتك اللغوية؟

نتيجة لدراستي في هذا البرنامج أتوقع أن تتطور عندي.....

	لا أبداً					بشكل كبير
أ) مهارات التحدث	1	2	3	4	5	6
ب)مهارات الاستماع	1	2	3	4	5	6
ج)مهارات الكتابة	1	2	3	4	5	6
د) مهارات القراءة	1	2	3	4	5	6
هـ) المعرفة الثقافية	1	2	3	4	5	6
و) القواعد	1	2	3	4	5	6
و) المفردات	1	2	3	4	5	6

الجزء الرابع: التوقعات المتعلقة بتطور معرفتك ومهارات الثقافية باللغة الانجليزية

1. ماذا تتوقع من برنامج اللغة فيما يتعلق بتعلمك عن الثقافة الأمريكية؟
أثناء هذا البرنامج أتوقع أن أتعلم (عن):

	لا أبداً				بشكل كبير
المطبخ الأمريكي (الطعام والشراب)	1	2	3	4	5	6
العادات والتقاليد في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
الاقتصاد الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
النظام التعليمي الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يكون/يعامل الأمريكان الأصدقاء	1	2	3	4	5	6
موقف الأمريكان من البيئة	1	2	3	4	5	6
نظام العائلة الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف ينظر الأمريكان إلى الأجانب	1	2	3	4	5	6
الأفلام الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
التاريخ الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يتفاعل الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يمكن أن أحب/أقدر الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
الأدب الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
نفسي وعن ثقافتي	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يعبر الأمريكان عن مشاعرهم	1	2	3	4	5	6
دور الرجل والمرأة في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
الموسيقى الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يحتفل الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يمكن أن أعيش مثل (ومع) الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
النظام السياسي الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
فرص العيش/العمل في أمريكا لفترة طويلة	1	2	3	4	5	6
الاستجمام والترفيه في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
المهارات اللازمة لمصادقة الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
الرياضة في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
حياة الطالب الجامعية	1	2	3	4	5	6
طريق تفكير الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
الوجهات السياحية في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
نظام المواصلات في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
ما يعتقده الأمريكان عن السعوديين	1	2	3	4	5	6
القيم الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
العمل والحياة المهنية في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
ما يعتقده الأمريكان عن الإسلام	1	2	3	4	5	6

Name (in English): _____ Name(in Arabic) _____
Email:

Mark Level (Now): ❑ Level10 ❑ Level20 ❑ Level30 ❑ Level40 ❑ Level ....
Level at placement (before): ❑ Level10 ❑ Level20 ❑ Level30 ❑ Level40 ❑ Level ....

باعتقادك لأي مدى تطورت مهاراتك اللغوية والثقافية نتيجة لدرستك بالخارج في برنامج معهد السيسل؟

1-أ نظرتك لمستوى تطور كفاءتك باللغة الانجليزية.
كنتيجة لدراستك في هذا البرنامج، ما مدى تطور مهاراتك اللغوية للغة الانجليزية؟

نتيجة لدراستي في هذا البرنامج أرى أنه تطورت عندي.....

	لا أبداً					بشكل كبير
أ) مهارات التحدث	1	2	3	4	5	6
ب)مهارات الاستماع	1	2	3	4	5	6
ج)مهارات الكتابة	1	2	3	4	5	6
د) مهارات القراءة	1	2	3	4	5	6
هـ) المعرفة الثقافية	1	2	3	4	5	6
و) القواعد	1	2	3	4	5	6
و) المفردات	1	2	3	4	5	6

1-ب يرجى منك تقييم كفاءتك في أي لغة تتحدثها من 1 (سيئة للغاية) إلى 7 (اللغة الأصلية):

اللغة **مستوى الكفاءة**

	مبتدئ		متوسط		متقدم	متحدث أصلي
اللغة الأولى						
العربية	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
_____	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
اللغة الأجنبية						
الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
_____	1	2	3	4	5	6 7
_____	1	2	3	4	5	6 7

1-ج) يرجى منك وضع نسبة تقديرية لاستخدامك للغات أدناه خلال مدة الأربعة أشهر الماضية أثناء تواجدك في أمريكا.

في المتوسط وعلى مدى السنة الماضية في أمريكا، استخدمت هذه اللغات بالنسب المئوية التالية (من أصل 100٪):
العربية: _____٪
الإنجليزية: _____٪
لغة أخرى ( ): _____ ٪

2- نظرتك لمستوى تطور معرفتك ومهاراتك الثقافية باللغة الانجليزية
1. كنتيجة لدراستك فى هذا البرنامج، باعتقادك ما مدى ما تعلمته عن خصائص المجتمع الأمريكى؟

- نظرتك لمستوى تطور معرفتك ومهاراتك الثقافية باللغة الانجليزية

1. كنتيجة لدراستك في هذا البرنامج، باعتقادك ما مدى ما تعلمته عن خصائص المجتمع الأمريكي؟
أثناء هذا البرنامج تعلمت (عن):

	لا أبداً					بشكل كبير
المطبخ الأمريكي (الطعام والشراب)	1	2	3	4	5	6
العادات والتقاليد في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
الاقتصاد الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
النظام التعليمي الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يكون/يعامل الأمريكان الأصدقاء	1	2	3	4	5	6
موقف الأمريكان من البيئة	1	2	3	4	5	6
نظام العائلة الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف ينظر الأمريكان إلى الأجانب	1	2	3	4	5	6
الأفلام الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
التاريخ الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يتفاعل الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يمكن أن أحب/أقدر الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
الأدب الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
نفسي وعن ثقافتي	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يعبر الأمريكان عن مشاعرهم	1	2	3	4	5	6
دور الرجل والمرأة في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
الموسيقى الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يحتفل الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
كيف يمكن أن أعيش مثل (ومع) الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
النظام السياسي الأمريكي	1	2	3	4	5	6
فرص العيش/العمل في أمريكا لفترة طويلة	1	2	3	4	5	6
الاستجمام والترفيه في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
المهارات اللازمة لمصادقة الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
الرياضة في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
حياة الطالب الجامعية	1	2	3	4	5	6
طريق تفكير الأمريكان	1	2	3	4	5	6
الوجهات السياحية في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
نظام المواصلات في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
ما يعتقده الأمريكان عن السعوديين	1	2	3	4	5	6
القيم الأمريكية	1	2	3	4	5	6
العمل والحياة المهنية في أمريكا	1	2	3	4	5	6
ما يعتقده الأمريكان عن الإسلام	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX B

"My Cultural Intelligence": Below, you will find a list of characteristics that have been suggested to facilitate cultural learning and cultural adjustment. Please ask yourself to what extent these traits apply to you, and rank yourself on a six-point scale as follows:

1 = does not apply to me at all; 2 = does not apply to me most of the time; 3 = does not apply to me sometimes; 4 = Applies to me sometimes; 5 = Applies to me most of the time; 6 = Applies to me very much

How do you rank yourself?	**1 = Does not apply to me**					**6 = Yes, this very much applies to me**
Open-mindedness	1	2	3	4	5	6
Flexibility with attitudes and behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to adapt your behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6
Appreciation of differences	1	2	3	4	5	6
Comfort with uncertainty	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to trust when dealing with the unfamiliar	1	2	3	4	5	6
Win-win attitude	1	2	3	4	5	6
Humility	1	2	3	4	5	6
Extroversion	1	2	3	4	5	6
Creativity	1	2	3	4	5	6
Tactfulness	1	2	3	4	5	6
Willingness to have your own views challenged	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to make independent decisions when you are far from your usual resources	1	2	3	4	5	6
Being invigorated by differences	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points	1	2	3	4	5	6
Patience when you are not in control	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to deal with the stress of new situations	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sensitivity to nuances of differences	1	2	3	4	5	6
Respect for others	1	2	3	4	5	6
Willingness to change yourself as you learn and grow (versus changing others to fit you)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Empathy	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sense of humor	1	2	3	4	5	6

Note. The survey is based on Peterson's (2004) list of attributes that facilitate intercultural competence development.

"ذكائي الثقافي": أدناه، ستجد قائمة من الصفات المقترحة لتسهيل الوصول إلى المعرفة الثقافية والتكيف الثقافي. يرجى أن تسأل نفسك إلى أي مدى تنطبق عليك هذه الصفات، وأعط نفسك تقييماً على الميزان ذي الست أرقام مع الأخذ بالاعتبار أن:

1= الصفة لا تنطبق علي، 6 = نعم هذه الصفة تنطبق علي بشكل كبير.

How do you rank yourself? **كيف تقيم نفسك؟**	**1= لا ينطبق أبداً علي** **علي**					**6=ينطبق كثيراً**
Open-mindedness الانفتاح العقلي	1	2	3	4	5	6
Flexibility with attitudes and behavior المرونة مع المواقف والسلوكيات	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to adapt your behavior القدرة على تكييف سلوكك	1	2	3	4	5	6
Appreciation of differences معرفة وتقبل الاختلافات	1	2	3	4	5	6
Comfort with uncertainty الشعور بالارتياح حتى في المواقف غير المألوفة	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to trust when dealing with the unfamiliar القدرة على منح الثقة في المواقف غير المألوفة	1	2	3	4	5	6
Win-win attitude مبدأ أنا أستفيد وغيري يستفيد	1	2	3	4	5	6
Humility التواضع	1	2	3	4	5	6
Extroversion الاختلاط بالناس	1	2	3	4	5	6
Creativity الإبداع	1	2	3	4	5	6
Tactfulness اللباقة	1	2	3	4	5	6
Willingness to have your own views challenged مدى قابليتك لرفض الأخرين لأرائك	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to make independent decisions when you are far from your usual resources القدرة على اتخاذ قرارات مستقلة عندما تكون بعيداً عن مواردك المعتادة	1	2	3	4	5	6
Being invigorated by differences الاختلافات لها أثر في تعزيز شخصيتك	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to see a familiar situation from unfamiliar vantage points القدرة على رؤية الأوضاع المألوفة من زوايا غير مألوفة	1	2	3	4	5	6
Patience when you are not in control الصبر عندما تخرج الأمور عن سيطرتك	1	2	3	4	5	6
Ability to deal with the stress of new situations القدرة على التعامل مع الضغط الذي تحدثه الأوضاع الجديدة	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sensitivity to nuances of differences القدرة على الإلمام بتفاصيل الاختلافات	1	2	3	4	5	6
Respect for others احترام الأخرين	1	2	3	4	5	6
Willingness to change yourself as you learn and grow (versus changing others to fit you) مدى قابليتك لتغيير نفسك مع تقدمك في العمر والمعرفة (مقابل محاولتك تغيير الأخرين ليتكيفوا معك)	1	2	3	4	5	6
Empathy التعاطف مع الأخرين	1	2	3	4	5	6
Sense of humor حس الفكاهة	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C

English Study Abroad Program at CESL Name: _____; Level:_____

"My culture and the American culture": Here, we ask you to reflect about your own culture first and then about the **American** culture.

In your opinion, which of the following adjectives best describe (a) people of your own culture and (b) people of the **American** culture? **(1 = not at all, 2 = rarely, 3 = sometimes, 4 = frequently)**

Traits	**Saudis (Saudi culture)**	**Americans (American culture)**
Emotional		
Serious		
Friendly		
Confident		
Logical		
Generous		
Calm		
Lazy		
Helpful		
Efficient		
Impatient		
Stubborn		
Honorable		
Competent		
Good-humored		
Shy		
Honest		
Hard-working		
Arrogant		
Patient		
Loud		
Tolerant		
Thrifty		

Instrument adopted from Ecke **(2013)** and based on Pickett (1993)

"ثقافتي وثقافة الأمريكان": نطلب منك هنا أن تعبر عن رأيك بثقافة السعوديين أولا(العمود الأول) وثقافة الأمريكان ثانيا (العمود الثاني) برأيك، أي الصفات التالية تصف بشكل أفضل أفراد الشعب السعودي (العمود الأول) وأفراد الشعب الأمريكي (العمود الثاني)؟

استخدم الأرقام التالية للتعبير عن رأيك كالتالي: (1=أبداً على الإطلاق، 2=نادراً، 3=أحياناً، 4= كثيراً)

Americans (American culture) الأمريكان (الثقافة الأمريكية)	**Saudis (Saudi culture)** السعوديون (الثقافة السعودية)	الصفات **Traits**
		عاطفي Emotional
		جاد Serious
		ودود Friendly
		واثق Confident
		منطقي Logical
		كريم Generous
		هادئ Calm
		كسول Lazy
		متعاون Helpful
		منجز Efficient
		عجول (غير صبور) Impatient
		عنيد Stubborn
		نبيل Honorable
		كفؤ (قادر على العمل بكفاءة) Competent
		مرح Good-humored
		خجول Shy
		صادق (نزيه) Honest
		مجتهد Hard-working
		متغطرس Arrogant
		صبور Patient
		مزعج (دائما يتكلم بصوت عالي) Loud
		متسامح (يتقبل الاختلافات) Tolerant
		حَسَن التدبير (للأمور المالية) Thrifty