FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PARTICIPATION OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS FROM SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

by

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I declare that

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PARTICIPATION OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS FROM SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE
(Mrs. R. J. Paola)

DATE
6 November 2002

With loving gratitude to
Sayidi
and Professor Lemmer
editors of note
and to my daughter,
Juliet
who is, and always has been,
a ceaseless source of encouragement

SUMMARY

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE PARTICIPATION OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS FROM SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA IN HIGHER EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The aim of this research was to determine the factors that influence the participation of students from Sub-Saharan Africa at the undergraduate level of study in United States. A literature study was undertaken which defined the various aspects involved in pursuing undergraduate study in the United States as applied to international students at three types of institutions, namely: two-year community colleges, four-year private colleges and four-year public colleges. Quantitative research was also undertaken, the results of which evolved from two surveys, one sent to a combined group of two-year, four-year private and public U.S. institutions and one sent out to Educational Advising Centers within Sub-Saharan Africa. The findings indicated that the primary constraints Sub-Saharan African students face are a lack of funding as well as an inability to access information. A comparison of the results of the two surveys was undertaken as well as recommendations for further research.

Key Words: undergraduate study, scholarships, college, university, United States, community college, educational advising, tertiary education, international education, international students, Sub-Saharan Africa, America, foreign student.

Factors Influencing The Participation Of Undergraduate Students From Sub-Saharan Africa In Higher Education In The United States Of America

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION OF RESEARCH

"Education should consist of a series of enchantments, each raising the individual to a higher level of awareness, understanding and kinship with all living things".
Anonymous

1.1   INTRODUCTION

Education of international students in the United States has been a growing phenomenon since the early 1940's (Davis 2000:1). In the year 2000, for which the latest statistics are available, the United States was host to over 514,000 international students (Davis 2000:3). While this number is expected to grow each year, the number of African students, especially those from Sub-Saharan Africa, represent a disproportionately small percentage of the total student body. In many instances the statistics show that there is a negative growth trend in students from several of the countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (Davis 2000: 26).

For this purpose, Sub-Saharan African countries will be defined as the following:

Table 1.1   **Sub-Saharan African Countries**

Angola	Gambia	Reunion
Benin	Ghana	Rwanda
Botswana	Guinea	Sao Tome and Principe
Burkina Faso	Guinea Bissau	Senegal
Burundi	Kenya	Seychelles
Cameroon	Lesotho	Sierra Leone
Cape Verde	Liberia	Somalia
Central African Republic	Madagascar	South Africa
Chad	Malawi	Swaziland
Comoros	Mali	Tanzania
Congo	Mauritania	Togo
Cote D'Ivoire	Mauritius	Uganda
Djibouti	Mozambique	Zambia
Eritrea	Namibia	Zimbabwe
Ethiopia	Niger	
Gabon	Nigeria	

International students, regardless of their country of origin, face many challenges when exploring, applying and leaving to study in the United States. Students must first gather information on the intended program of study from any of over 3,000 available tertiary institutions. They must then meet all the necessary application requirements and deadlines, pass the appropriate entrance exams, be able to finance the program of study either through private or scholarship funding, and then successfully apply for a visa.

For many years, the United States government and other American organizations have funded information services throughout the world, dedicated to supplying information on American education for those students who wish to study in the United States (Wolanin 2000:3). Theoretically, all international students have equal access to information concerning the process of study in the United States (Targonski 1999:32). When statistics are examined, however, some countries seem to have a far greater international student representation rate in the United States than do others (Davis 2000:26).

It is presumed that exposure to international education is a desirable goal for students, and that all forms of international education enhance the learning experience regardless of where that experience takes place.

A variety of reasons inspire students to seek education abroad. In spite of these many different reasons, however, the fact remains that students from Sub-Saharan Africa are underrepresented. This dissertation will explore the reasons for that fact.

It will be limited however, as the title suggests, to a discussion of the issues of equal access and representation of undergraduate Sub-Saharan African students *in the American* higher education (tertiary) system. It does not seek to address the merits of the United States system of higher education, nor does it seek to discuss any other nation's higher education system.

The United States has over 3,000-degree granting tertiary institutions (John Catt 2000:5). This study will include two-year community colleges, private and public

four-year colleges and universities, but it will exclude proprietary trade and technical colleges.

1.2   BACKGROUND OF THE INVESTIGATION

Tertiary institutions in the United States are increasingly eager to add to the numbers of international students on their campuses (Wolanin 2000:1). The United States has important educational, economic and social-cultural interest in maintaining, and even increasing, current international student enrolment in its institutions of higher education.

1.2.1   Benefits to the United States

Broad foreign policy and strategic national interests benefit from international students on American tertiary campuses (Schneider 2000:2). According to a discussion paper, *Strategies for Increasing the Enrolments of International Students in United States Postsecondary Education* by Thomas Wolanin (2000:1), there are three primary reasons why American institutions have come to realize that they should significantly increase the numbers of students from other countries.

Firstly, there are major political benefits from encouraging international students to choose the United States as a place of further academic study. An American higher education for foreign nationals, specifically future leaders and policy makers, can result in an appreciation of American foreign policy, ideals and the democratic way of life. The philosophy of the late Senator William J. Fulbright, who established the Fulbright Scholarship program for international students in 1946, was to "increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of other countries" (Dept. of State 2001a). This "mutual understanding" would hopefully result in building strong bonds between people and nations, and as a consequence, enhance the possibility that "the Wilsonian premise that insofar as American democratic and constitutional values and institutions are spread around the world, the prospects for peace are enhanced. In short, educating international students in the United States is a *foreign policy asset*" (Wolanin 2000:1).

Secondly, there is the more tangible reason, which is purely economic in that
international education contributes $12.3 billion to the United States economy
annually, and is the United State's fifth largest export commodity (Davis 2000:4). It
is in the best economic interest of United States to court these students and persuade
them that studying in the States is the most desirable goal of all.

Economic benefits are felt primarily by institutions that the international students
attend, but a ripple effect throughout the state, communities and industries shows that
the benefits are far reaching and benefit the American economy as a whole.

The following table illustrates the income on a per state basis:

Table 1.2

Estimated Contribution To State Economies By International Students

(Baumgartner & Schoch 2001:1)

State	Number Of International Students	Average Estimated Per Student: Tuition And Fees[1]	Average Estimated Living Expenses[2]	Estimated Contribution To Economy[3]
Alabama	5,441	$6,462	$14,260	$88,077,748
Alaska	392	$8,029	$19,898	$8,568,661
Arizona	9,402	$8,830	$16,768	$187,624,242
Arkansas	2,317	$7,886	$14,606	$40,612,127
California	66,305	$10,399	$21,070	$1,628,108,739
Colorado	6,461	$13,135	$17,194	$151,903,811
Connecticut	7,110	$14,962	$22,882	$209,080,421
Delaware	2,016	$11,462	$16,243	$43,349,326
District of Columbia	8,202	$17,959	$25,778	$278,480,653
Florida	24,827	$10,097	$18,618	$555,509,921
Georgia	9,901	$11,490	$18,502	$230,926,139
Guam	106	$3,958	$22,507	$2,214,842
Hawaii	5,430	$7,716	$21,620	$124,828,214
Idaho	1,271	$7,313	$12,769	$19,873,798
Illinois	22,807	$12,638	$18,824	$557,353,267
Indiana	11,654	$12,353	$17,221	$267,431,692

Iowa	7,218	$10,305	$14,926	$141,390,883
Kansas	6,053	$7,626	$14,084	$102,401,148
Kentucky	4,201	$8,422	$12,372	$67,839,330
Louisiana	6,305	$10,740	$17,220	$137,083,964
Maine	1,282	$10,299	$15,653	$25,849,145
Maryland	11,941	$10,311	$21,389	$304,482,307
Massachusetts	28,192	$19,169	$24,818	$961,112,243
Michigan	19,151	$11,719	$17,314	$431,810,757
Minnesota	7,900	$10,004	$14,725	$151,714,241
Mississippi	2,263	$5,996	$11,725	$31,274,770
Missouri	9,182	$11,936	$16,517	$202,689,853
Montana	1,011	$9,034	$14,514	$18,512,507
Nebraska	3,317	$7,326	$14,318	$55,987,269
Nevada	2,450	$7,128	$17,486	$47,173,538
New Hampshire	2,068	$17,713	$20,923	$61,837,675
New Jersey	12,179	$11,251	$24,670	$341,731,937
New Mexico	1,672	$8,071	$13,761	$28,413,288
New York	55,085	$14,080	$23,317	$1,602,642,736
North Carolina	7,848	$12,665	$16,790	$179,227,812
North Dakota	979	$6,974	$11,456	$14,034,523
Ohio	16,806	$12,262	$18,384	$400,080,918
Oklahoma	8,041	$6,709	$16,086	$143,344,681
Oregon	6,404	$11,601	$16,597	$140,174,002
Pennsylvania	20,336	$16,606	$20,315	$581,389,604
Puerto Rico	621	$3,278	$14,567	$8,725,701
Rhode Island	3,176	$17,065	$21,587	$95,111,958
South Carolina	3,523	$8,528	$14,684	$63,657,880
South Dakota	700	$7,610	$11,695	$10,500,538
Tennessee	5,244	$11,633	$15,526	$110,434,875
Texas	35,860	$7,692	$15,174	$639,554,015
Utah	5,834	$5,370	$15,850	$97,076,912
Vermont	959	$15,939	$20,133	$26,800,094
Virgin Islands	149	$6,894	$18,220	$2,930,092
Virginia	11,616	$10,255	$16,861	$245,024,218
Washington	10,965	$9,789	$16,113	$220,941,530
West Virginia	2,230	$8,659	$15,642	$42,212,127
Wisconsin	7,833	$14,193	$14,323	$172,430,180
Wyoming	487	$6,282	$14,623	$7,956,639
TOTALS	514,723	$11,669	$19,077	12,309,499,489

1. 1999-2000 tuition and fees from the College Board.

2. Extrapolated from 1999-2000 room and board fees from the College Board.

3. Estimated contribution consists of the collective tuition and cost of
living expenses for international students at colleges and universities in the
state. This total is increased to account for expenses of accompanying
family members and decreased by financial support from United States sources.
Total contributions were calculated by multiplying the individual tuition and
expense estimates by the number of international students that were enrolled in a
particular state less the proportion of student contributions from United States sources
(25.3%). Analysis prepared for NAFSA by Jason Baumgartner and Lynn Schoch of Indiana
University.

Thirdly, the presence of international students adds to the diversity on campus and to
the knowledge and understanding of their home countries amongst the American
students on campus. These social/cultural benefits enrich both the academic
institutions as well as the communities in which the international students live. "They
help to prepare American students and Americans generally to be effective global
citizens" (Wolanin 2000:1).

In addition to the views expressed by Wolanin, Barnes (1991:9-10) states that "there
are too few American students to fill the classrooms of more than 3,000 colleges and
universities" and that "more than 80 percent of all colleges are currently unable to fill
their freshman classes". In order to keep the doors open of many smaller colleges in
the United States, international students are essential.

1.2.2   The Process Of Promoting Education For Foreign Nationals In The United States

Given the political, economic and cultural benefits of international education to the
United States it is not surprising that the American government as well as the tertiary
institutions themselves have set in place policies and procedures for the promotion of
American education in foreign countries.

1.2.2.1 Support from the United States Government

The United States government administration under President Clinton published a
memo outlining the international education policy of the United States in April of
2000. The memorandum states that "It is the policy of the federal Government to

support international education" and that "The Secretaries of State and Education, in partnership with other governmental and non-governmental organizations, shall identify steps to attract qualified post-secondary students from overseas to the United States, including improving the availability of accurate information overseas about United States educational opportunities" (Clinton 2000:1).

Given this policy statement, what forms of support does the United States government give to promotion of its education system to non-Americans? Various departments, including the Departments of Defense, Commerce, Education, as well as the State Department fund a wide range of programs for the advancement of international education in the United States and abroad (Hayward 2000:20). The Educational Information and Resources Branch works within the Department of State to provide information on the United States higher education system and study opportunities to prospective students, scholars, and others. The Educational Information and Resources Branch supports a network of approximately 450 education information/advising centers that collectively respond to over 5 million client requests annually. Located at United States Embassies, Fulbright Commissions, Binational Centers, non-governmental organizations, libraries, universities, and businesses, these centers included in the network have agreed to operate according to established guidelines and ethical practice. The branch provides training programs for Educational Advisers, (including the services of Regional Educational Advising Coordinators, or REACs, and specialized programs through the Association of International Educators: NAFSA), an annual supply of reference materials, and equipment on a prioritized basis.

The Educational Information and Resources Branch's support for centers in the network is predicated on each center's agreement to operate according to the following principles:

> Centers provide impartial information about all accredited institutions of higher learning in the United States; they provide, usually for no charge or for a modest membership fee, access to essential materials and to an introduction to United States higher education, often in the form of a group advising session or video. Centers also may charge modest fees for more advanced or specialized services

and are open to all public inquiries. The professional advising staff follow established principles of ethical practice (Dept. of State 2001:b).

The primary source of funding that deals with promotion of American based education in Sub-Saharan Africa is provided by the State Department and takes the form of support for Educational Advising Services in Sub-Saharan Africa. The Educational Information and Resources Branch within the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs has as a primary goal to "promote United States higher education abroad through a global network of United States educational information centers" (Wolanin 2000:3).

According to the *Directory of Overseas Educational Advising Centers 2000* (Farhat 2000:1), within Sub-Saharan Africa, the Educational Information and Resources Branch supports one or more Educational Advising Services Centers in the following countries:

Table 1.3   **Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa**

Angola	Benin	Burkina Faso	Cameroon
Chad	Congo	Cote d'Ivoire	Eritrea
Ethiopia	Ghana	Guinea	Kenya
Liberia	Madagascar	Malawi	Mali
Mauritania	Mauritius	Mozambique	Niger
Nigeria	Senegal	South Africa	Swaziland
Tanzania	Togo	Uganda	Zimbabwe

The following Sub-Saharan African countries do not have Advising Centers at present (Farhat 2000:1):

Table 1.4   **Sub-Saharan Countries without Advising Centers**

Botswana	Burundi	Cape Verde	Central African Republic
Comoros	Djibouti	Gabon	Gambia
Guinea Bissau	Lesotho	Namibia	Reunion
Rwanda	SaoTome and Principe	Seychelles	Sierra Leone
Somalia			

The Educational Advisers that staff these Advising Centers within Sub-Saharan Africa are usually located within or in conjunction with the United States Embassy or Consulate in that country (Farhat 2000:1). Advisers are seldom full time and are usually paid out of the particular post's budget. It is often the case that Educational Advising is not the only function that the Adviser may do.

1.2.2.2 Support from United States Institutions

As already stated, there are over 3,000 two-year community colleges and four-year colleges and universities in the United States (Davis 2000:1). With such capacity, competition is keen on the part of these tertiary institutions to attract students. Generally, these institutions rely on the income generated from students and other sources to keep their academic doors open.

Tertiary institutions in the United States have come to realize that attracting the international student is a method by which they can compete financially, academically and athletically and various efforts are made by them to promote themselves around the world.

Recruitment of international students by United States tertiary institutions occurs through various methods, including but not limited to:

- College Fairs (Colleges and universities travel to the foreign country and promote themselves to students);
- Networks of foreign based alumni acting as recruiting agents, either formally or informally;
- Use of Advising Centers based outside the United States to inform international students of their institutions by supplying the Centers with promotional literature, catalogues, videos etc.;
- Employment of consultants to promote their institutions;
- Offering of substantial academic and/or athletic scholarships (Wolanin 2000:2).

1.3   THE PROBLEM STATEMENT

As of 2000, there were 514,723 international students in the United States (Davis 2000:3). This is an increase of 4.8% over 1999 (Davis 2000:4). When looking at the

representation of international students in the United States as represented in the table below, it is apparent that Sub-Saharan African students are in the minority (Davis 2000:9).
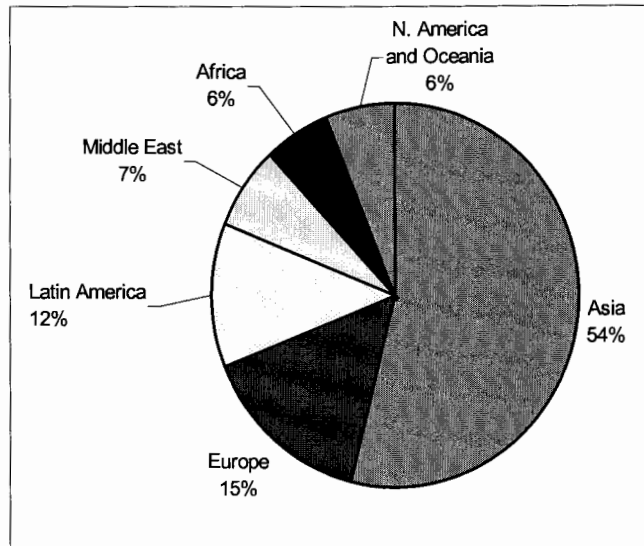
Figure 1.1   **Percentage Representation of International Students In the United States**

In the light of poor representation of Sub-Saharan African students in the United States, the following question is posed: What are the factors influencing the participation of undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa in higher education in the United States?

This problem can be subdivided into the following contingent problems:

A. How is higher education structured in the United States? What types of institutions exist and how are they accredited? What are the implications of Sub-Saharan African students seeking to study in the United States?

B. What other factors influence the participation of Sub-Saharan African students in higher education in the United States?

C. What is the current policy and practice of United States institutions of higher education towards the participation of Sub-Saharan African students? What is the current policy and practice of Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa towards the participation of Sub-Saharan African students in higher education in the United States?

1.4   AIMS OF THE INVESTIGATION

There is an assumption that all potential international students have equal access to study opportunities in the United States because of information services financed by the United States government and/or private industry as well as non-profit organizations that exist in all corners of the globe. In the light of the under-representation of Sub-Saharan African students in higher education in the United States, this study aims to:

A. Describe the system of higher education in the United States with reference to types of institutions and their accreditation. The implication of this system for Sub-Saharan African students seeking to study in the United States will be outlined.

B. Identify and discuss other factors which influence the participation of Sub-Saharan African students in higher education in the United States.

C. Explore current policy and practice of United States institutions of higher education towards the participation of Sub-Saharan African students as well as current policy and practice of Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan African towards the participation of Sub-Saharan African students in higher education in the United States by means of an empirical study.

D. Develop recommendations whereby the participation of Sub-Saharan African students in higher education in the United States can be improved.

1.5   THE RELEVANCE OF THIS RESEARCH

With education becoming more and more global each year, the proposed exploration into why Sub-Saharan African students are so poorly represented in the United States system of higher education is indeed a timely and topical one. Developing countries, especially on the African continent, lag behind many other countries in their exposure to tertiary education. With education being the key to progress, the citizens of Africa should be represented equally amongst others of the world in the global educational forum.

The investigation that this dissertation proposes will hopefully determine what specific problems African students face and propose solutions to those problems. There have been few, if any, prior investigations into this particular field of comparative education, and it is intended that new and relevant information will be furnished, which will assist Sub-Saharan African students in the future.

1.6   CLARIFICATION OF TERMS

The following is a list of the common words and phrases referred to in this study.

Academic year: The period of formal academic instruction usually extending from September to June. Depending on the institution, it may be divided into terms of varying lengths namely: semesters, trimesters or quarters.

ACT (American College Test) exam: An entrance exam for first year students at the tertiary level. Most tertiary institutions require this exam or the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) exam.

Accreditation: Approval of colleges, universities and secondary schools by nationally recognized professional associations. Institutional accreditation affects the transferability of credits from one institution to another before a degree program is completed.

Athletic scholarship: Funding received to attend a tertiary institution based on a talent in a given sport, also referred to as a "grant in aid" or sports scholarship.

Bachelor's degree: Degree conferred by a tertiary institution after the student has accumulated a certain number of undergraduate credits. Usually a bachelor's degree takes four years to earn, and it is a prerequisite for studies in a graduate program.

Board: Refers to the cost of the various meal plans offered on campus. Usually students may choose from a variety of meal plans, which offer a set quantity of meals at the campus-dining hall each week

Class rank: A number or ratio indicating a student's academic standing in his or her graduating class. A student who ranks first in a class of 100 students would report his or her class rank as 1/100. Class rank may also be expressed in percentiles (i.e., the top 25 percent, the lower 50 percent).

College: A tertiary institution that offers undergraduate programs, usually of a four-year duration, which lead to the bachelor's degree in the arts or sciences (B.A. or B.S.). The term "college" is also used in a general sense to refer to a postsecondary institution.

College catalog: An official publication of a college or university giving information about academic programs, facilities (such as laboratories, dormitories, etc.), entrance requirements and student life.

College video: An official publication of a college or university, which shows inter alia, the life on campus. Used primarily as a marketing tool.

Community or technical or junior college: A tertiary institution that offers programs of up to two years' duration leading to an associate degree in the arts or sciences (A.A. or A.S.) or to a technical degree. Credits earned at a community or junior college are usually transferable to a four-year institution with programs leading to a bachelor's degree. Students on a two-year program prepare for semi-professional or technical employment. Community and junior colleges usually require a secondary school diploma or its equivalent for admission.

Dormitories: Housing facilities on the campus of a college or university reserved for students. A typical dormitory would include student rooms, bathrooms, common rooms and possibly a cafeteria.

Educational Advisory Service : Located around the world, these offices exist to promote American education to foreign nationals.

Essays: Most applications to tertiary institutions in the United States have a component that asks the student to compose an essay which is judged along with the other application requirements and forms part of the admission decision.

F-1 visa: Known as the "Student Visa", this visa requires an immigration document called an "I-20" issued by the tertiary institution before the visa is granted. Once obtained, the student is allowed to stay in the United States as long as he/she pursues a full time course of study.

Financial aid: A general term that includes all types of money, loans and part-time jobs offered to a student, usually based on need.

Foreign Student: see "International Student".

Foreign Student Adviser: The person at a tertiary institution who is in charge of providing information and guidance to international students in such areas as United States government regulations, student visas, academic regulations, social customs, language, financial or housing problems, travel plans, insurance and certain legal matters.

Full-time student: One who is enrolled in a tertiary institution and taking a full load of courses. The number of courses and hours is specified by the institution.

Grade: The evaluation of a student's academic work.

Grading system: Schools, as well as tertiary institutions in the United States commonly use letter grades to indicate the quality of a student's academic performance: A (excellent), B (good), C (average), D (below average), and F (failing). Work rated C or above is usually required of an undergraduate student to continue his or her studies. Grades of P (pass), S (satisfactory) and N (no credit) are also used. In percentage scales, 100 percent is the highest mark, and 65-70 percent is usually the lowest passing mark. The grade of "E" does not exist in the American grading system.

High school diploma: The certificate a student receives upon completion of high school.

Higher education: Tertiary (Postsecondary) education at colleges, universities, junior or community colleges, professional schools, technical institutes and teacher-training schools.

I-20: An immigration document issued by a tertiary institution in the United States that allows an international student to obtain an F-1 visa.

International Admissions Counselor(s): The person(s) whose main responsibility rests in evaluating an international student for admission purposes.

International Student: A non-immigrant who is in the United States for the purpose of study.

Maintenance: Referring to the expenses of attending a college or university, including room (living quarters), board (meals), books, clothing, laundry, local transportation and miscellaneous expenses.

Non-resident: Students who do not meet the residence requirements of the state or city that has a public college or university. Tuition fees and admissions policies may differ for residents and non-residents. International students are usually classified as non-residents, and there is little possibility of changing to resident status at a later date for fee purposes. Most publicly supported institutions will not permit an international student to be classified as a resident student while on a student visa.

Postsecondary Education: Higher education at a tertiary institution

Recommendation Letter: A letter appraising an applicant's qualifications, written by a professor or employer who knows the applicant's character and work. Also called "personal recommendation," "personal endorsement," or "personal reference."

SAT exam (Scholastic Aptitude Test): An entrance exam for first year students at the tertiary level. Most tertiary institutions require this exam or the ACT (American College Test) exam. The SAT exam is offered in two parts, the SAT I and the SAT II.

Scholarship: A grant of monetary aid usually given at the undergraduate level, which does not have to be paid back. This type of funding is usually based on merit.

★ School: A place of education, not limited to any particular level. Primary, secondary, tertiary institutions are all referred to as "schools" in the United States.

Semester: Period of study of lasting approximately 15 to 16 weeks, usually half of an academic year.

Tertiary Institution: An institution of higher education which usually requires a high school diploma as a basis for admission and which includes two-year colleges as well as four-year colleges and universities.

TOEFL exam (Test of English as a Foreign Language): an exam required by most tertiary institutions in the United States for non-native English speakers.

Transcript: A certified copy of a student's educational record containing titles of courses, the number of credits and the final grades in each course. An official transcript will also state the date a degree has been conferred.

Tuition: The fee an institution charges for instruction and training (does not include the cost of books, supplies, room or board).

Undergraduate studies: Two or four year programs in a tertiary institution after high school graduation leading to the associate or bachelor's degree.

University: A tertiary institution that usually maintains one or more four-year undergraduate colleges (or schools) with programs leading to a bachelor's degree: a graduate school or arts and science awarding master's degrees and doctorates (Ph.D.'s); and graduate professional schools.

Visa: A document required of citizens of specific countries who wish to visit the United States. Visas are issued for a variety of purposes and each has its own title and designation number, which reflects the purpose of the visit.

Visa Officer: A person located at an American Embassy or Consulate whose responsibility it is to determine whether or not to issue visas to non-Americans upon application.

1.7 METHODOLOGY

A literature study was used to identify books, reports, articles and relevant statistics concerning the system of higher education in the United States and the participation of students from Sub-Saharan Africa. This formed the background for the empirical research.

The method of research that has been chosen for the empirical investigation is that of survey research. Since there has been little, if any, in the way of prior primary data collection in this field, it was felt that survey research, which involves soliciting self-reported verbal information from people about themselves, would be the appropriate vehicle. "If the researcher needs information that is not available elsewhere and if generalizations of findings to a larger population is desired, sample survey research is the most appropriate method" (Rea & Parker 1992:3).

A detailed description of the research design will be given in Chapter 3, however, the basic outline and rationale for such, are discussed in the following paragraphs.

1.7.1 Rationale for Survey Method
Survey research is ideally suited to large population groups about which information is needed that is not available elsewhere (Rea & Parker 1992:3). The ultimate goal of survey research is to allow researchers to generalize about a large population group by studying a small representative of that population.

Surveys generally collect three types of information. The types, while not exclusive of each other, solicit different types of responses. Firstly, descriptive information about the respondent is frequently sought. This type of information includes data such as institutional size, budget, educational programs, and other factual information that assists in putting further data into context. Secondly, behavioral surveys are conducted to elicit information on patterns, such as frequency of use of center facilities, recruitment drives and other modes of behavior. Lastly, opinion-seeking surveys allow the researcher to derive information on a variety of conditions and circumstances. The primary goal of the opinion survey is to be predictive and geared towards future trends.

Survey information is designed to be collected by a variety of means, including mail-out, telephone and in-person questionnaires. For the purpose of this research, the mail-out method was used by sending email questionnaires (and where not feasible, faxed questionnaires) to the designated population groups.

The advantages of mail-out questionnaires are as follows:

1. Cost. Email to the United States and Sub-Saharan Africa is by far the most cost effective form of data collection for the purpose of this research;

2. Ample time frame. The respondent has ample time to consider the input requested, and to validate descriptive information if required.

3. Authoritative impression. The researcher can prepare the questionnaire so that it has significant legitimacy and professionalism.

4. Anonymity. There is no personal contact. Questionnaires can be coded so that the respondent may remain anonymous. This may result in the respondent being more forthcoming with opinion data requests.

5. Reduced interviewer bias. Since the questionnaire is not conducted in person, and since the wording, tone and inflection on all questionnaires is the same, the interviewer is given to less bias and misreading of the responses.

However, there are certain disadvantages to mail-out questionnaires:

1. Lower response rate than other forms of surveys. This means that the sample pool must usually be larger than in other types of surveys to allow for non-response.

2. Comparatively long time frame for completion. The researcher usually allows for one to two weeks for completion of the questionnaire. Follow-ups, replacements and reminders are also time consuming.

3. Self-selection. A 100% response rate is seldom achieved. Respondents who face multiple surveys in the workplace, an everyday occurrence in today's life, or who are faced with the normal overload of work, commonplace in academic life, will choose not to respond. Hence, there can be some bias in the sample. Those with a vested interest in the subject will choose to answer, while those who are not interested could choose not to.

4. Lack of interviewer involvement. The fact that no interviewer is present means that questions that seem unclear cannot be responded to quickly or efficiently. Spontaneity will certainly be curtailed, and an interviewer cannot probe more deeply as would be the case with other methods.

5. Lack of open-ended questions. It is highly likely that questions that require an original written response will be avoided (Rea & Parker 1992:8-9).

However, while considering the various shortcomings in the mail-out survey method, it still remains the only feasible method for this study, considering the size of the population group in Survey 1 and the distance involved within the two survey groups.

1.7.2   Choice of the Population Groups and Samples

The two population groups surveyed were:

1. Accredited two-year community colleges as well as four-year private and public colleges and universities in the United States;

2. Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa.

The total number of accredited two and four-year public and private institutions in the United States is over 3,000. The number of active Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa at the time of writing is 28.

The working population of this research was divided into two units of analysis and hence required two distinct questionnaires, with two distinct aims and outcomes, which are delineated in Chapter 3.

In the first questionnaire, the sampling frame was comprised of accredited institutions in the following 3 categories:

1. two-year colleges;
2. four-year private colleges and universities;
3. four-year public colleges and universities.

The sampling frame took its form in equal proportions from the population of the three categories and from an equal geographical spread across the continental United States including Alaska and Hawaii.

The form of sampling for the population group of Questionnaire 1 was a stratified, probability sampling, meaning that the working population had been defined and then separated into mutually exclusive groups, in this case, the 3 categories listed above. The type of probability sampling that was then done was simple random sampling. Probability sampling refers to the probability of any member of the working population being selected to be a part of the eventual sample is known. For example, if there is a total population of 300 in a working group and the total number needed for data collection is 30, then each member would have a 1-in-100 chance of being selected.

"Stratified sampling offers to the researcher a method by which the margin-of-error requirement of a maximum of approximately 10% for each stratum can be satisfied while still keeping the overall sample size at 600, as long as at least 100 persons are interviewed in each stratum" (Rea & Parker 1992:153). Stratified sampling consists of separating the elements of the working population into mutually exclusive groups called strata. In this research, the strata will consist of the 2 levels of tertiary education, i.e.: two-year and four-year colleges. These samples will be further broken down into private, public and geographical strata. The purpose of this selection process is to make sure that each section of the working population is represented by an adequate sample size.

The method by which the sample for Group One was chosen is outlined below:

1. Institutions were divided geographically into each of the fifty states.
2. Institutions were then broken down into one of the three categories, i.e. two-year colleges, four-year private colleges and four-year public colleges.
3. Each institution within each of the 3 categories was assigned a number.
4. Numbers were randomly drawn from each of the three categories within each of the 50 states.

"Sample Size" refers to the number of questionnaires that are completed and returned (NCS Pearson 1998:1). Therefore, if you know the rate of response that you can expect to achieve, you can determine the number of questionnaires that must be sent in order to meet the level of confidence as outlined in Table 3.1 in Chapter 3. Rea and Parker (1992:133) suggest that a 50% response rate should be achieved while NCS Pearson, a survey company, state that as a benchmark figure you should expect less as in their most successful questionnaires, they achieve a response rate between 15% and 25% (NCS Pearson 1998:2).

It was decided to survey a total of 594 institutions in Group One. The rationale behind the selection of the sample size of Group One can be found in Chapter 3.

The second questionnaire has a working population that is comprised of all of the Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa. This comprises a probability sampling only, as all Centers were contacted.

1.7.3 Questionnaires

The questionnaires designed for this research were primarily focused on descriptive information and allowed for a limited use of behavioral and opinion data collection, using both closed and open ended questions (cf Appendixes B and C).

Since the goal of this research was to determine what, if any, constraints exist at United States tertiary institutions as well as at Educational Advising Centers, which could inhibit Sub-Saharan African students from pursuing undergraduate study in the United States, it was felt that primary data collection of a descriptive nature would be the most useful.

Two questionnaires were designed and pilot tested. Based on the results of the pilot test, specific changes were made to each questionnaire.

The questionnaire used for Survey 1 consisted of thirty-five closed-ended questions and two open-ended questions; the questionnaire used for Survey 2 consisted of thirty-six closed-ended questions and one open-ended question.

1.8   CHAPTER DIVISIONS

Chapter 1 provides an introduction to the study, which contains background information on the benefits, process and support of international students in the United States. The problem formation, aims and the relevance of the study is stated. A listing of the terminology used in the study has been added. The research design and rationale for such a design is covered as well as the chapter divisions.

Chapter 2 presents an overall literature study of the main concepts. An overview of the postsecondary form of education in the United States is discussed. A brief review of the two main categories of institutions, two-year community and four-year colleges and universities that will form the research population for Survey 1 is also presented. The system of "accreditation" or peer review is explained with the mention that all of the institutions in the research survey will fall into the "accredited" category.

It also covers in depth, the definitions of the various factors that affect international student flows to the United States and it gives particulars of how these factors specifically influence Sub-Saharan students when considering tertiary study in the United States Statistical information on international student flows is discussed and comparisons are made to students from outside Sub-Saharan Africa.

Chapter 3 defines the research design, explaining its focus, the type of data required, and the sources of that data. The formats into which the data will accrue is outlined and the explanation of the design of both surveys is given. Examples of the questionnaires used in both surveys are included in Appendixes B and C.

Chapter 4 presents the data that was collected and then expands on the findings of that data, using graphs, charts and other forms of statistical reporting. Discussion of the implications of the data is undertaken.

Chapter 5 sums up the research done, the findings of that research and based on the findings, it recommends further topics for research as well as possible solutions to the defined problems.

1.9   SUMMARY

Chapter 1 serves as an introduction to the topic as well as providing a brief historical and statistical perspective to the problem statement. It presents a framework of international education from an American point of view, outlining the benefits and details the various types of support given to the recruitment of the international student into the United States system of tertiary education. The problem formation of why Sub-Saharan African students are so poorly represented in America's tertiary system is discussed as well as the aim and relevance of the research topic. A comprehensive list of terminology pertaining to tertiary study in America is outlined and defined. The research design is explained in Chapter 1 as well as the rationale behind such a choice. Since very little primary data has been obtained in this field the choice of survey questionnaires was felt to be the most appropriate form of eliciting data. The two survey groups, both two- year community colleges and four-year public and private colleges and universities as well as the Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa were defined as the target research groups. Chapter divisions for the entire dissertation sum up the first chapter and outline the remaining content.

CHAPTER TWO

THE PROCESS INVOLVED IN PURSUING UNDERGRADUATE STUDY IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE IMPLICATIONS FOR SUB-SAHARAN AFRICAN STUDENTS

"Unlimited opportunities can be as potent a cause of frustration as a paucity or lack of
opportunities"
Eric Hoffer (1902-1983)

2.1   INTRODUCTION

The United States system of higher education seems to be, at first glance, one of the most confusing and complicated systems in the world. The reasons for this lie primarily in its sheer abundance of institutions, its decentralization and its diversity (Wolanin 2000:5-6).

For American students, the task of finding a tertiary institution that meets their needs can consume most of their four-year high school education (Arenson 2001:1). For students from outside the United States, the concept of studying in the United States can often appear too complex and offer seemingly insurmountable challenges (Wolanin 2000:5).

The key to success for prospective international students is the understanding of the system and learning how to access information regarding it, for as Wolanin (2001:8) states: "there is no prospect for reducing the size and complexity of American postsecondary education institutions and providers." He goes on to say, "What is needed are better tools and mechanisms through which prospective international students can understand the available options and assess which option best fits their needs and interests."

This chapter explains the undergraduate education system in the United States (cf 2.2) the process an international student would following when attempting to study there (cf 2.3 to 2.5) and the implications of that process on students from Sub-Saharan Africa (cf 2.6).

2.2   A REVIEW OF THE UNDERGRADUATE TERTIARY SYSTEM IN THE UNITED STATES

The United States education system has a twelve-year pre-tertiary format. Grades one to eight are usually referred to as primary school education with grades nine to twelve being referred to as high school education (Sjogren1986:7). Education in America is governed by the state in which it exists, rather than at a federal level (American Council on Education 1999:1), each state being free to choose the semantic designations that comprise these twelve years. For example, some states refer to grades one to six as "elementary level", with grades seven through nine as "junior high" and grades ten through twelve as "senior high" whilst other states may use different nomenclatures. Whatever the classification, the rule throughout the United States is that twelve years comprise completion of a "high school diploma" which is the requirement for entry into most tertiary institutions (Lundquist & Hunter 2000: 1).

Federal control of education in general and tertiary education in particular, does exist in a limited way, the primary areas of concern being:
- The use of federal funding granted to tertiary institutions and students attending those institutions;
- Implementation of legislation such as the Civil Rights Act, which affects tertiary education
- Program development in areas such as foreign language training and area studies programs;
- Special programs designed to make tertiary education more accessible to people with disabilities;
- Federal funds for research level (American Council on Education 1999:1).

The academic year normally runs from late August or early September through to late May or early June with breaks at Christmas and Easter (Sjogren 1986:42). The months of June to August are referred to as "summer session", when it is possible to attend a limited amount of courses (American Council on Education 1999:29).

2.2.1 Two-year Community and Junior Colleges

According to Lundquist and Hunter (2000:1), two-year community and junior colleges are unique to the United States as they offer academic programs that are comparable to the first two years of university work and can be applied toward a four-year college degree. In addition, community colleges are distinctive in that they also offer general education courses, technical education and vocational training courses, which prepare students for immediate employment (Lundquist & Hunter 2000: 1). Today, there are over 1,100 such institutions in the United States and nearly 55% of all first-time freshman begin their higher education at a two-year college (Two Year Colleges 2001:2).

Since their goal is to offer education to everyone in the local community who desires it, the community college admission structure is usually non-competitive and most students who meet basic requirements are allowed entry (United States Information Agency 1991:20). This affords the students who attend these schools a wide array of options at relatively low tuition cost. Most, though not all, community colleges admit international students. Private junior colleges, which are by far in the minority of the two-year institutions, (Sjogren 1986:8) offer similar programs, but may emphasize academic preparation for four-year colleges over technical studies.

Two-year colleges in the United States offer an alternative to the more traditional four-year bachelor's degree programs, providing access to high quality post-secondary studies to many that might otherwise not continue their education. It should be noted, however, that completing one's study at a two-year college is not equivalent to obtaining a four-year bachelor's degree (Two Year Colleges 2001:3).

Community and junior colleges award associate degrees after successful completion of a two year program of study. The Associate of Arts (A.A.) and the Associate of Science (A.S.) degrees are offered in a wide variety of liberal arts and science subjects designed to meet the requirements of the first two years of a baccalaureate degree. Degree requirements are established to ensure that students acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to continue toward a bachelor's degree, transferring for their final two years to a four-year college or university (Two Year Colleges 2001:3).

One of the primary reasons for the continued popularity of these institutions is the cost factor. Supported primarily by the communities in which they exist, these institutions offer quality programs and aim to ensure that the low cost, as compared to their four-year counterparts, is affordable to all. Costs can range from none at all to the local resident to an average annual cost of $3,000 per year for non-residents of the community (Two Year Colleges 2001:36-60).

2.2.2 Four-year Colleges and Universities

Although not identical in terms of formal definition, the terms "college" and "university" as well as "school" are most often used synonymously in the United States to refer to tertiary education (Barnes 1991:32). There is no legal or official control over the institution's option to choose a particular designation as part of its name (United States Information Agency 1991:21).

A college offers a four-year program of study leading to a bachelor's degree. Most colleges in the United States fall into the "Liberal Arts College" definition (Four Year Colleges 2001:12) with an emphasis on the humanities. A college or school may be independent or a part of university and focus on a specific faculty such as architecture, business, or education. For example, the School of Business at the University of Richmond in Virginia is one of the seven colleges within that university (University of Richmond 2001:1). Another example is Newcomb College, the nation's first coordinate college for women within the larger setting of Tulane University in New Orleans, Louisiana (Tulane University 2001:1).

Universities emphasize research and often include professional schools such as law and medicine, undergraduate colleges of arts and sciences, and graduate schools which offer Master's as well as Doctoral programs and post-graduate studies which offer both pre-doctoral, professional and post-doctoral programs of study (Rodenhouse 2002:xix).

There are over 2,000 four-year colleges and universities in the United States and each of these institutions determines its own goals, emphases and admissions standards (Carnegie 2000:55-59). Liberal arts colleges, for example, emphasize excellence in teaching basic subjects such as humanities, natural sciences, social sciences and

languages. Besides liberal arts colleges, there are many other types of colleges. Historically, some colleges have admitted only male, only female or only black or American Indian students; however, most are open to all academically qualified students who apply. Other colleges have a particular religious emphasis and some may focus only on particular fields of study such as the arts or sciences, while others, referred to as "institutes", such as Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which usually specialize in a broad field of study such as science or the arts, offer both bachelor and graduate degrees (Gernand & Tuller 2001:10).

Colleges and universities may be public or private. Institutions of high quality are found equally among public and private institutions; the principal difference is one of funding (Lundquist & Hunter 2000: 1). Public institutions are funded partially by the government of the state in which the institution is located and partially by student tuition payments and private donations. Private institutions are funded for the most part by private endowments, donations and student fees.

Since state governments support public institutions, they give preference in enrolment and tuition charges to students from that state. The total cost, however, is usually lower at most state institutions than at private institutions, even for those who are not residents of the state (United States Information Agency 1991:20-22).
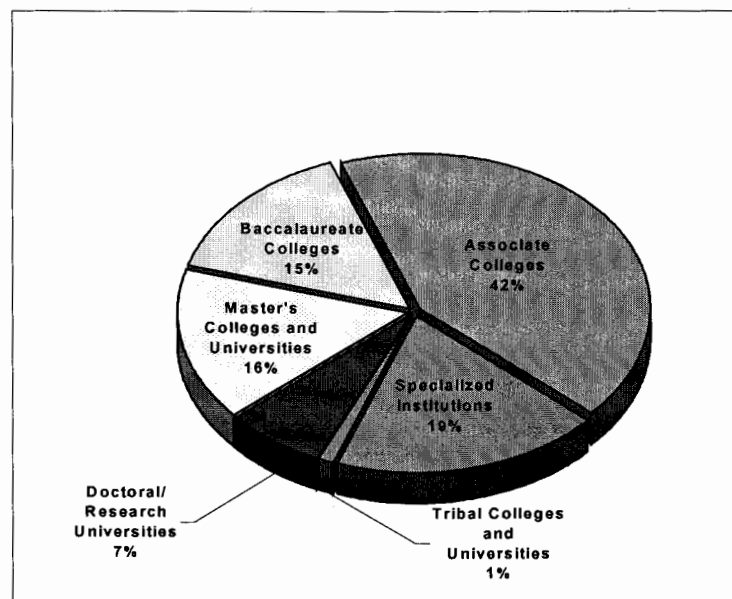
Figure 2.1

Percentage Distribution of Higher Education Institutions by 2000 Carnegie Classification

1-4 years, or more	Postdoctoral study and research Postdoctoral work can be done in most academic disciplines	Internships and medicine Clerkships for law

2-4 years, in addition to master's or 4 years after bachelor's	Doctoral study and research
	  Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)
	  Doctor of Education (Ed.D.)
	
	Master's degree study
	  Master of Arts (M.A.)
	  Master of Sciences (M.S.)
		Professional Schools
		  Medicine, Law, Theology,
		  Business.
		  Doctor of Medicine (M.D.)
		  Doctor of Law (L.L.D.)
		  Doctor of Divinity (D.D.)
		  Master of Business
		  Administration (M.B.A.)

4 years after secondary school	Bachelor's degree study (undergraduate only)
	  Bachelor of Arts (B.A.)
	  Bachelor of Science (B.S.)	

2 years after secondary school	Associate of Arts (A.A.)	Vocational/Technical Institution-Certificate

*The college, university, profession, vocational and technical education noted above follow
12 years elementary and secondary school education.

Figure 2.2

The Structure of Tertiary Education in the United States
(Source: American Council of Education 1999:7)
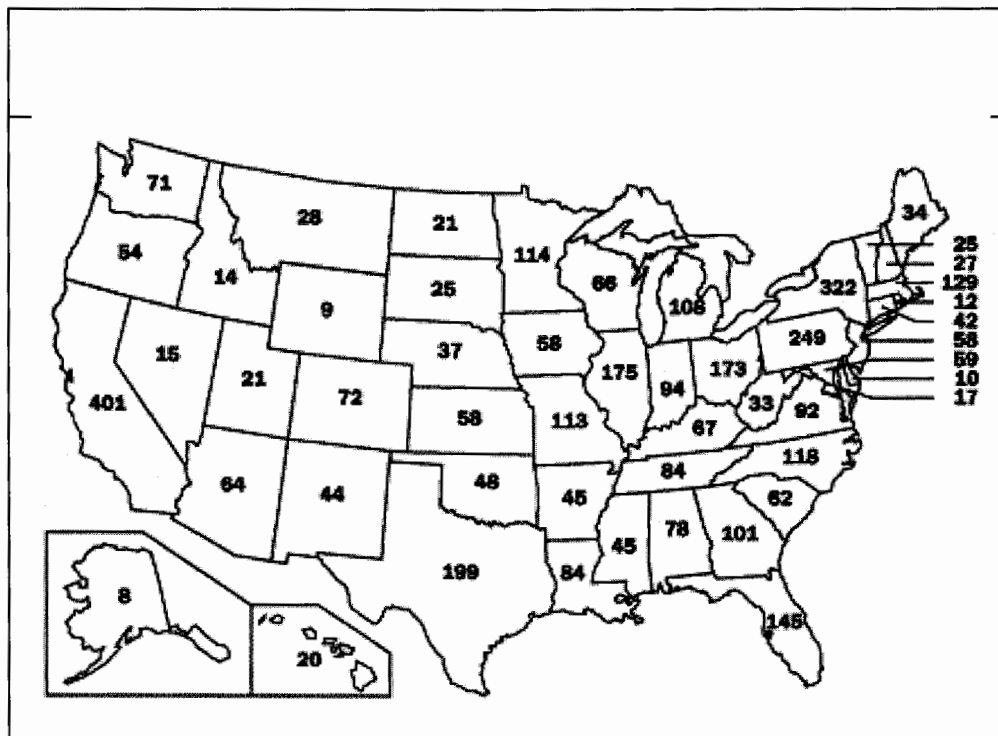
Figure 2.3

Number of Colleges and Universities, 1998-99

(Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education:2001)

2.2.3 Accreditation

Accreditation is basically a form of quality assurance (Anaya 1998:vii). Since education is not federally controlled and there exists no Ministry of Education in the United States, tertiary institutions submit themselves to a voluntary form of self-regulation called "accreditation" (Sjogren 1986:24).

While institutions are not required to seek accreditation, most do because:

1. Accreditation indicates that an institution meets certain standards of quality in its teaching and academic programs.
2. Credits are transferred more easily between accredited institutions.
3. Most scholarship, fellowship and grant opportunities exist primarily at accredited institutions.
4. Degrees and diplomas are more widely recognized amongst accredited institutions in the United States and abroad (Gernand & Tuller 2001:10-11).

There are six regional accrediting associations that cover the entire country. A college or university that is regionally accredited has the highest type of institutional accreditation granted in the United States (Gernand & Tuller 2001:10). Institutions may also be accredited by specialized bodies that accredit specific types of schools for professional degrees such as medicine, engineering, business and law.

The process of accreditation as stated by The United States Department of Education (Sjogren 1986:25) involves the following procedures:

1. the establishment of standards;
2. an institutional self-study in which its performance is measured against established standards;
3. on-site evaluation by a team of outside educators selected by the accrediting agency;
4. publication of the fact that the institution met the standards;
5. periodic re-evaluation of the institution's programs.

As stated by the Department of Education (2001:1), there is very little federal regulation of education in the United States and as it is for the most part, self regulated and administered, accreditation becomes vitally important. There are very

few laws in place which inhibit the establishment of "diploma mills", or institutions of a profit seeking nature who issue "degrees" with a minimum, or in some cases, non-existent amount of work (Sjogren 1986:25). Since information on the accreditation status of a given institution is easily obtainable from guides published for this purpose, such as the *Accredited Institutions of Postsecondary Education - Program Candidates* published by the American Council on Education, the possible damage that "diploma mills" can cause is minimized, as long as potential students are aware of the accreditation process and verify that the institution they wish to attend is indeed accredited (Dept. of Education 2001:2). The research conducted in this dissertation is obtained solely from accredited institutions.

2.3 THE PROCESS OF APPLYING TO UNDERGRADUATE TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS IN THE UNITED STATES

Attending a college or university in the United States is considered an honor and not an entitlement (Sjogren 1986:21). According to Sjogren (1986:21-23), most institutions however, attempt to follow fair and reasonable admissions policies which are consistent with the mission statement of the particular institution.

Tertiary institutions with "open door" policies, that is, those who admit most, if not all students who apply, tend to use uncomplicated admission procedures. Normally, students who apply to these institutions receive notification of their acceptance soon after applications are received (Two Year Colleges 2001:10).

There is usually no deadline for applications at "open door" policy institutions who will accept applications until classes begin and who take all applicants regardless of high school academic records and admission exam results (Two Year Colleges 2001:10). However, the "open door" policy (American Council on Education 1999:19) of admission does not always apply to international students, who usually must provide transcripts and other forms of educational background material to prove that they will be able to succeed academically.

At the other end of the admission spectrum are the most selective of tertiary institutions. They often require applications to be completed six or more months prior

to enrolment, delaying responding to the applications until 3-4 months after the application deadline, when all the applicant pool can be evaluated at the same time (Wall 1998:22-40). They require proof of strong academic preparedness, in the form of grades earned in high school and on the standardized admission exams, as well as several recommendations, essays and other requirements that vary from institution to institution. It is common at these institutions that only the top 5% of graduating high school seniors will be considered for admission. By their very nature, highly competitive colleges attract far more applicants than they can accept (Four Year Colleges 2001:4-6).

Publications that give information on the various tertiary institutions such as Peterson's *Guide to Four Year Colleges* and the Princeton Review's *Guide to the Best 311 Colleges* also list them according to level of difficulty as far as concerns admissions criteria (Antonoff & Freidemann 2001:69). Peterson's employs an "Entrance Difficulty Index" which shows how the colleges rate themselves by percentage of applicants accepted. The five levels as defined by Peterson's are: most difficult, very difficult, moderately difficult, minimally difficult and noncompetitive. The majority of the colleges and universities, with the exception of the two-year colleges, fall into the "moderately difficult" category as far as admission requirements (Four Year Colleges 2001:943-949). These institutions accept students based on their probability of success. They usually insist on most, if not all, of the application components of the most selective institutions, such as Harvard and Yale, but do not demand such a high caliber of performance. They occasionally enroll students with lower than average academic talent, but the majority of their student intake has a strong academic background and comparatively high test scores (Wall 1998:36).

2.3.1 The Research Stage for International Students
For the international student the idea of studying in the United States may indeed be a tempting one. Once confronted with the myriad of steps to follow during the process, however, it is usually only the steadfast student who continues past the research stage (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:15). The main reason for this is usually sheer abundance. With over 3,000 choices, many with their own unique applications, admission criteria and cost structures, it is indeed difficult for students who have lived in the American education environs to decide on possible choices for college. For the international

student this decision often becomes untenable to the point where the process is abandoned (Wolanin 2000:5). The entire application process can take up to two years to complete for international students (Barnes 1991:50).

2.3.1.1 Field of Study

The first step in becoming an international student in the United States involves the potential student in extensive research to determine the various possibilities and then to define a list of institutions that meet the students needs; academically, geographically and financially amongst other considerations (Gernand & Tuller 2001:20). While there are "Recruiting Agents", located throughout most of the world who handle the entire process for the students, in terms of research and guidance, in return for a fee, most international students who arrive in America do so having followed the admissions path without such assistance (Barnes 1991:51).

In most countries, students choose an institution based on their desired field of study. However, at most post-secondary institutions in the United States, it is not uncommon for students to be admitted who have not elected a field of study. This is due to the fact that America follows a "Liberal Arts" system of Education (Targonski 1999:14). The philosophy behind this system is that students are encouraged to become well rounded by taking a variety of coursework in the arts, humanities, languages as well as in the social and physical sciences. By doing so, students are allowed not only to explore their potential but also acquire other aspects of knowledge and hopefully, upon graduation, be on the way to becoming an individual with diverse talents. By the end of their sophomore (second) year, students must declare a major field of study. The final two years of study are then usually spent within their chosen field. Students who have decided on a major field of study prior to enrolment and those who elect to follow professional programs such as engineering, are normally still required to fulfill the "core curriculum" of the liberal arts components required by the institution (Targonski 1999:20-21).

While this philosophy is unique to the United States and perhaps is one of the reasons why its tertiary system is so successful, (Lundquist & Hunter 2001:1) it increases the amount of choices available to an international student who is not certain as to which field of study to pursue (Wolanin 2000:5). In an attempt to narrow his choices, a

prospective international student can form a list of institutions that offer all his possible choices, which could still leave the student with over a hundred or more options (United States Information Agency 1991:24-25).

Other criteria that a potential student must consider are: cost and availability of financial aid if needed, level of academic difficulty, accreditation, size, geographical location as well as the location of the institution, (be it urban, suburban or rural) climate, availability of housing, type of institution; i.e. religious, private or public, as well as other factors such as the number of students who return after their first year of study, which is often indicative of the success enjoyed by the institution in meeting the students needs (Barnes 1991:36-46).

2.3.1.2 Cost and Financial Aid

According to Barnes (1991:41) cost is the decisive factor when determining the choice of colleges for most students. "In academic year 1999-2000, the average cost for United States citizens and other eligible residents living on campus at four-year undergraduate colleges varied from about $10,000 to $23,000 for nine months. Cost for international students will be higher" (Gernand & Tuller 2001:15). These costs vary substantially and a wide variety of components make up the total costs involved in attending an American college (Gernand & Tuller 2001:7).

These components include:

1. Tuition and fees. These costs are based on a 9-month academic year. "Tuition" refers to the cost of academic instruction, while "fees" refer to ancillary costs such as: library usage, student activities and the use of the health center (Targonski 1999:57).

2. Room and board. Most institutions in the United States, with the exception of some two-year colleges, have residential facilities on their campus. Students must decide if they will live on or off campus and determine the total cost. "Board" in the United States refers to the cost of the various meal plans offered on campus. Usually students may choose from a variety of meal plans, which offer a set quantity of meals at the campus-dining hall each week (Barnes 1991:42).

3. Books and supplies. Estimated costs for books are published by the institution (Gernand & Tuller 2001:16). Certain fields of study, however, such as art and architecture require additional supplies, which will add to these costs. Some institutions also require that students bring computers to school.

4. Personal expenses. These costs include basic necessities such as clothing and entertainment. If not supplied by the institution, health insurance must also be purchased. International students may be charged higher rates and additional costs for health insurance (Gernand & Tuller 2001:15-16).

5. Transportation. Local and international travel adds considerably to education cost. If a student chooses not to live on campus, transportation costs to and from college must be added in as well as annual or bi-annual trips home (Targonski 1999:58)

The terms "financial aid" and "scholarships" are often used interchangeably, but in fact they refer to two distinct types of financial assistance. Financial aid refers to monies awarded based on need as determined by family income, assets and other factors. Scholarships are awarded based on merit, which can include amongst other attributes, outstanding academic performance, special talents such as musical and athletic abilities, leadership skills and community service (Targonski 1999:59-60).

Financial aid for international students is extremely difficult to obtain. According to the Dept. of State "less than half of the institutions offering bachelor's degrees can provide financial assistance to students who are not citizens or permanent residents of the United States" (Targonski 1999:60). Scholarships are equally difficult to obtain. A "full" scholarship, that is one which covers the entire cost (excluding travel) of attendance at college is offered by less than 100 colleges in the United States and amount to less than 1,000 such offers per academic year. The largest majority of institutions that offer financial assistance for international students are private colleges (Targonski 1999:61).

It is assumed that the international student bears the burden of the cost of his education in the United States (Gernand & Tuller 2001:16). In order to assist those students who might need additional funding, the United States government allows

international students to work up to a maximum of 20 hours per week on campus during their first year. These jobs usually involve work in the food facility, library or other offices on campus and are normally paid at United States minimum wage. After the first year, the student may apply to the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) for permission to work off campus for a maximum of twenty hours per week (Targonski 1999:62). This type of aid, known as "work study" is not designed to be used as a source of funding for education but only as assistance for incidental living costs.
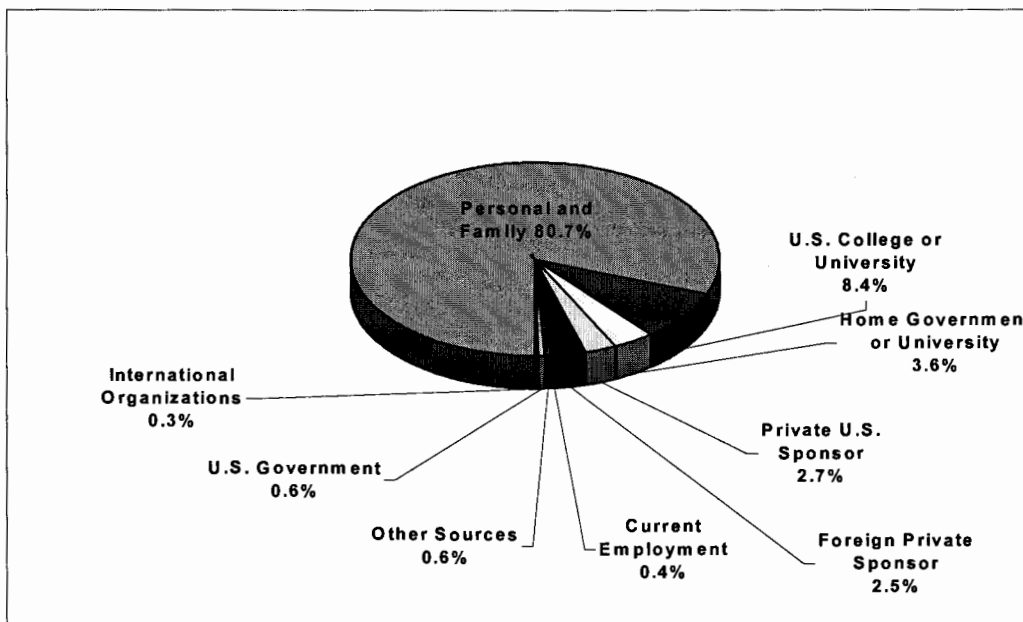
Figure 2.4

Sources of Funding for International Undergraduate Students in the U.S.

(Source: IIE 2001)

International students may also obtain loans to fund their study in the United States from private lending institutions or occasionally the educational institution. This usually involves finding an American citizen to sign guarantee (IEFC 1998:1).

Determining the student's budget for study in the United States and the cost of the institution as well as the availability of financial assistance will help determine which choices are appropriate for the student.

2.3.1.3 Level of Academic Difficulty

As mentioned in section 2.3 "The Process of Applying to Undergraduate Tertiary Institutions in the United States", due to the large number and variety of institutions in the United States, admission requirements and level of difficulty vary greatly.

Students should research thoroughly not only the level of entrance difficulty but also the academic competitiveness. Students with average ability and test scores might find the academic demands at an extremely competitive institution, if they are admitted, to be too demanding. Conversely, a candidate with a strong academic background might experience less than challenging work at an average institution (Antonoff & Freidemann 2001:48).

Many reference guides to colleges in the United States list the level of academic competitiveness in the college description pages (Four Year Colleges 2001:35). Applying to institutions to which there is little, if any, chance of gaining admission or of academic success is counter-productive, both for the institution and the student (Antonoff & Freidemann 2001:48).

2.3.1.4 Rankings

The United States government does not "rank" or list colleges based on academic or other criteria. While rankings do exist, they are the efforts of journalists and are always subjective (Targonski 1999:45). *The U.S. News and World Report* as well as a plethora of other publishers annually produce rankings of colleges in the United States based on a variety of criteria (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:5) and while this information aids students in certain aspects of their research, the rankings should be viewed with a healthy skepticism (Targonski 1999:45).

2.3.1.5 Student Services

Student services vary from institution to institution. The various services offered can include a variety of sporting and cultural clubs, special orientations and organizations for international students, learning disability services, meal plans designed for specific ethnic and religious needs, tutoring facilities, career planning offices, religious clubs,

sororities and fraternities, to name a few (Targonski 1999:45). Prospective students must access their needs and research which institution most closely caters for them.

2.3.1.6 Size

Does size really matter? To most students, the answer is yes. Ranging in size from fewer than 200 to over 60,000 students, American colleges come in all shapes and sizes (Targonski 1999:41-42).

There are pros and cons to both large and small institutions (Barnes 1991:37). Small institutions tend to cater to the individual. Small class size with the emphasis on teaching is usually the norm. Professors are usually more accessible and very few classes are taught by graduate students. Small institutions also have the reputation of offering more individualized attention to students than their larger counterparts.

On the other hand, large institutions offer a wider variety of majors and usually have more facilities and student services. However, the size of many freshman and sophomore classes will number in the hundreds and can often be taught by graduate students instead of professors. Individual attention can often be non-existent (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:6).

2.3.1.7 Geographical Location and Climate

The geography of the United States is almost as varied as the type of academic institutions it has available. From a hot and tropical climate to areas that experience snow for most of the nine-month academic calendar, choices are diverse. Although climate is not a primary consideration when choosing a college, the geographical location could mean substantial savings in travel costs (Barnes1991:43).

Choices must also be made between city and rural campuses, and urban or suburban campuses. Each have distinct advantages and disadvantages (Targonski 1999:41). City campuses have a host of entertainment, cultural and shopping experiences usually within scope of public transport. However, crime on urban campuses can be higher than on rural, semi-rural or suburban campuses. Colleges located in small towns usually revolve around the life on campus and have more of a "collegiate feel". One of the main benefits of the campus in the urban area is that the chances of more

international students being enrolled are much greater than on a rural campus (Barnes 1991:40).

Geographical location can also, to a large extent, determine the cost of living for international students. Generally, the East Coast, with the exception of California on the West Coast, is the most expensive area in which to live, and the northern part of the United States tends to be more expensive than the southern part (Barnes 1991:41). However, these generalizations need to be investigated according to the location of specific institutions.

2.3.1.8 Housing

When arriving in an international country for the first time, it is somewhat reassuring to know that you have a place to call home. While some colleges guarantee housing for all first year students, and some will insist that students live on campus for a minimum of one year or up to the full four years, many institutions do not cater for all of the students who wish to reside on campus. Traditionally, two-year colleges do not offer housing, although more and more are doing so in the hope of attracting international students (Lords 1999:1). Students must then plan for obtaining off-campus housing and know prior to enrolment what these costs will be (Barnes 1991:42).

Living on campus for the international student has very distinct advantages. Students usually integrate more easily into the new system of education and the new culture and all student-related services are close at hand (Targonski 1999:41).

2.3.1.9 Type of Institution

As mentioned in section 2.1, the United States is comprised of several types of tertiary institutions. Two-year and four-year public and private institutions are incorporated in this study. Within private institutions there is a further division in that many private institutions also have a religious affiliation or a specific mission statement that would make the campus ideal for some, yet less than ideal for other students (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:7). Again, there are a variety of choices and research must be conducted to not only become aware of the choices but to determine if an institution meets the needs of the student.

In the United States the majority of public and private institutions cater for a coeducational student body, but there are those that cater specifically for men or women. Although by law, all United States colleges must accept students of any race or creed, certain institutions were founded with a mission statement to provide education for a specific race group, such as African Americans or Hispanics (Targonski 1999:44).

2.4 INTERNATIONAL STUDENT ACCESS TO INFORMATION REGARDING STUDY IN THE UNITED STATES

All the information referred to in the previous section relating to the various components that are necessary for a student to investigate prior to commencing the application process, is contained in books as well as, to a large extent, on the Internet, both of which are easily accessed by potential American undergraduates (Hoganson 1999:3). Publishers such as Peterson's, The College Board and Princeton Review specialize in publishing materials on college information (Barnes 1991:35) and a wide variety of sources exist in American bookstores to assist the aspiring collegian.

What of international students? Where do they obtain information on the various aspects they need to consider prior to making decisions about which institution to apply to and indeed, to determine if further education in the United States is in their best interests? As mentioned in Chapter 1, there are Educational Advising Services located throughout the world sponsored by the United States government as well as co-sponsored home country/United States centers, referred to as Bi-National Centers in addition to private information and recruitment agencies (Barnes 1991:35). American International Schools, located throughout the world, also have information on tertiary study in the United States. The first step is locating a center or source of information from which to learn more about the process.

In addition to centers and services mentioned above, the Internet could act as a "one stop" information resource center for most students wishing to pursue further study in the United States, that is, if it is available (Adams 2000:10). With United States institutions relying more and more on the Internet (Mendels 1998:1) for distributing

information regarding their programs and using it more and more as a recruitment tool, accessibility to electronic information is becoming a vital part of education and a valuable tool for research of any kind.

2.5   THE COMPONENTS OF THE APPLICATION PROCESS

Once the international student has determined that undergraduate study in the United States is appropriate for him and has defined a list of institutions to which to apply, he must then begin the application process (Targonski 1999:72).

2.5.1   Standardized Testing

In addition to obtaining the equivalent of a United States high school education, international students are usually required to take one or more standardized tests, depending on the admission criteria of the institution and their English language ability (Barnes 1991:56-57). The results of these exams form part of the admission decision for most of the tertiary institutions in the United States (Targonski 1999:48-55).

The various exams are:
1. Scholastic Assessment Test I (SAT I). This test measures ability in two areas: mathematics and verbal. This three-hour exam is divided into five thirty-minute sections and two 15-minute sections, alternating between the two subject matters. It is required by most institutions from all first-year, or freshman applicants, including American applicants. It is scored from a maximum of 1600 points, 800 for verbal and 800 for mathematics. Each institution in the United States sets its own guidelines for recommended scores to qualify for admission. This exam is offered on set dates throughout most of the world (College Board s.a.:a)
2. Scholastic Assessment Test II (SAT II). This test measures academic ability in specific subject areas. The subjects that can be tested on are:

Biology	Chemistry
Chinese	English Language Proficiency
French	German
Italian	Japanese

Korean	Latin
Literature	Mathematics (2 levels)
Modern Hebrew	Physics
Spanish	United States History
World History	Writing

These tests last one hour each and may not be taken on the same day as the SAT I exam (Gernand & Tuller 2001:20-21). As with the SAT I, these exams are offered on set dates throughout most of the world. Not all of the subjects are available on each test date. The maximum score for any of the SAT II exams is 800. Many colleges, especially the more academically competitive, require both the SAT I and the SAT II exams. Both the SAT I and SAT II exams are primarily multiple-choice tests (College Board s.a.:b), with the exception of the SAT II writing test which has an essay component.

3. The American College Testing Assessment (ACT). Although lesser known (Barnes 1996:57) than the SAT, the ACT is often offered as an alternative for the SAT, certain colleges prefer, but do not necessarily demand the ACT from international students as well as American students. The ACT, also a multiple-choice exam, measures ability in English, mathematics, reading and science. It is offered on various dates throughout most of the world. The highest possible composite score is 36 (College Board [Internet]nd a).

4. Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL). For students whose primary language or language of instruction in high school is not English, an additional exam which measures English language proficiency is normally required. The TOEFL exam is a multiple-choice and essay test that measures listening, structure, reading and writing ability. TOEFL is offered on a computer-based format in most countries throughout the world (Targonski 1999:50-55).

Results from all of the above exams must be sent from the testing body directly to the college to which the student is applying in time to meet the appropriate deadlines. Each of the above exams has their own price structure and must be paid for in United States dollars (College Board s.a.:1a).

2.5.2 Obtaining the application

Once the student has determined a list of appropriate institutions that match his requirements and aptitudes, he should contact the institutions and request application materials. Most students apply to between seven to nine institutions (Barnes 1991:69) to ensure acceptance at more than one institution. Many guidance counselors recommend that a student select appropriate colleges from varying levels of academic competitiveness to ensure admission to at least one institution (Gernand & Tuller 2001:7).

Applications may be requested by mail, email, fax, and telephone or via the Internet. Many United States institutions now have their application forms and other relevant information solely on their website and no longer print application materials or catalogues (Targonski 1999:73). In order to apply to these institutions prospective students must have Internet access. Many also have "on-line" applications that are filled in by the applicant while connected to the homepage of the institution. Applications for most institutions should be requested approximately twelve months prior to the anticipated entry date (Targonski 1999:72).

2.5.3 Completing the application

Applications vary as much as the institutions that issue them. They can range from one to two pages (Pima College 2002:1-2) to over forty pages (Princeton University 2002:1). They can request as little as basic academic background information and current living address to as much as three letters of recommendation and as many essays. Most applications, however, fall somewhere between (Barnes 1991:15-16).

Typical applications will require the following (Dept of State 1999:76-79):

1. Application fee. Application fees vary from nothing at all to over $100 (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:16) with the average being $35.00.
2. Transcripts of the student's grades sent directly from the high school or last institution attended. These are referred to as "official transcripts" as against "unofficial transcripts" which are transcripts that have passed through the student's hands.

3. "Official" results of any required exams, including English proficiency, if required. These must be sent directly from the testing body to the institution to which the student is applying.

4. Letters of recommendation/evaluation. Each institution usually supplies specific forms for this information, which are then given to specific people, usually guidance counselors and teachers, who then send them back under separate cover, to ensure confidentiality.

5. Essay(s) and/or personal statements. These are usually specific to each institution and require either that the student write an essay of a given length pertaining to a topic chosen by the institution or one of the student's own choice.

6. Interviews. Some institutions will insist on a personal interview. If the student cannot attend one on campus, they will contact an alumnus who lives near the student to do it on their behalf.

7. Proof of funding. This usually takes the form of a notarized bank statement to prove that the applicant (or the applicant's family or sponsor) has enough funds for the first academic year.

2.5.4   Obtaining a Student Visa

As stated by Barnes (1991:100), a visa is "the approval by officials of another country, of your travel to that country". Valid visas are required for the entire duration of a student's term of study in the United States.

According to Shiraev and Boyd (2001:20-21) the process by which an international student obtains a visa is:

1. Upon acceptance at a college in the United States, an international student is issued with one of two documents:

   A. **I-20**. This immigration form is by far the most common and results in an "F-1" or "student visa" being issued, which allows a non-immigrant to the United States to pursue full time study.

   B. **IAP-66.** This immigration document is given to certain students and scholars, particularly those who are being sponsored by agencies, their government, or other organizations. This form will result in a "J-1" or "exchange visitor" visa being issued.

2. The student would then take the appropriate immigration document, the letter of acceptance, a completed visa application form and the required payment, proof of funding for the intended study period, a valid passport and two passport sized photos to the United States Consulate or Embassy in their country and apply for a visa (United States Information Agency 1991:43-44).

Potential international students who apply for a visa must also prove strong ties to their home country, including convincing the American consular official that they have "a residence at home which will never be abandoned" (Wolanin 2000:6) which would persuade the visa issuing officer that they will return to their home country upon completion of their studies (Dept. of State 1998:2).

Several factors relate negatively to the process of securing a student visa, despite having gained admission to study in the United States, according to Wolanin (2001:6). These include the fact that United States consular offices are extremely understaffed, have only a few moments to make a complex decision and presume that the potential student will not return to his or her home country until proven otherwise. The system of visa issuance can seem arbitrary, unfriendly, costly, capricious and burdensome to the prospective student.

2.6 THE IMPACT OF THE UNITED STATES APPLICAION PROCESS ON UNDERGRADUATE APPLICANTS FROM SUB-SAHARAN AFRICA

Table 1.4 in Chapter 1 shows the total percentage of international students in the United States in 2000. The figure below delineates the percentage of International Undergraduates in the United States for the academic year 2001 (IIE 2001).

As is evident from Figure 2.6, Sub-Saharan Africa has 14% of the world's total population, yet students from Sub-Saharan Africa comprise only 7% of the international student population in the United States (Figure 2.5). The following sections of this chapter will explore the possible reasons for this.

The following chapters will examine how the preceding criteria impact on prospective undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa who are contemplating pursuing study in the United States.
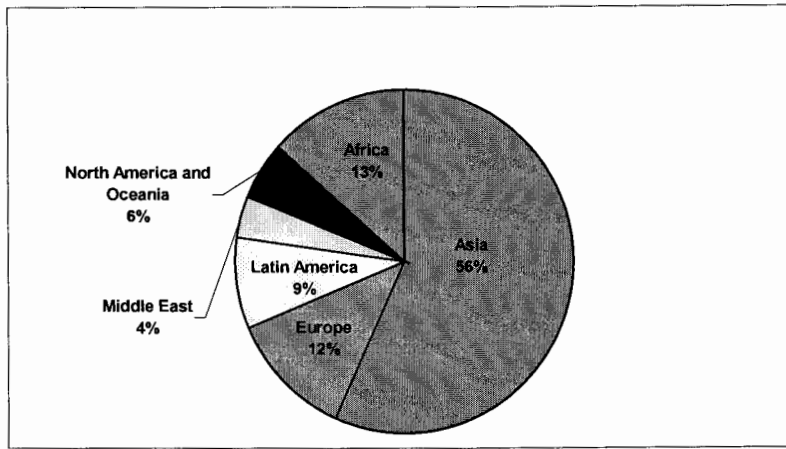
Figure 2.5

Percentage of International Undergraduate Students in the United States

(Source: IIE 2001)
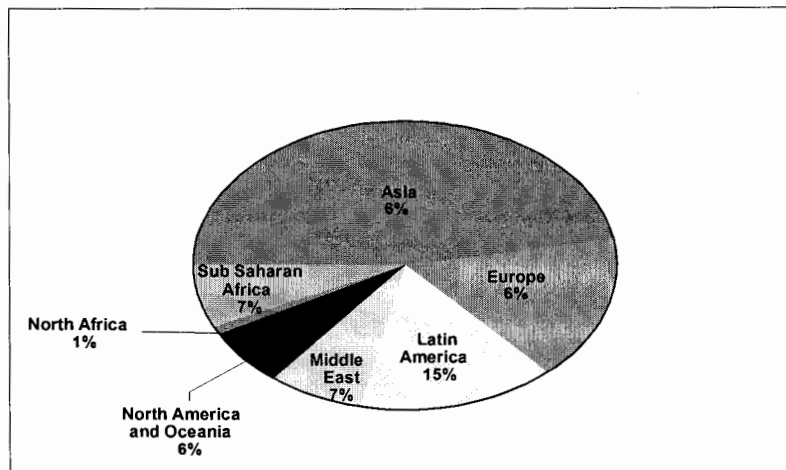
Figure 2.6

World Population Percentages

Source: (CIA 2001)

2.6.1 International Student Access to Information Regarding United States Study with Reference to Undergraduate Applicants from Sub-Saharan Africa

As mentioned, the first step in the process of becoming an undergraduate student in the United States is the research stage (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:15). Ascertaining all the

components of the various institutions such as: field of study, cost and financial aid, accreditation status, level of academic difficulty, size, location and the particular application process are all dependent on accessing information (Wolanin 2000:6).

### 2.6.1.1 Educational Advising Services

One of the main sources of obtaining such information is through the various overseas Educational Advising Centers which are funded either through foundations, Bi-National Centers, the country in which they are located or through the United States government (NAFSA 2001a:1).

Figure 2.7 illustrates the number of such centers and their distribution (cf Appendix A-2 for breakdown of distribution). Comparing the availability of such centers against the total world population indicates that the African continent is the least well represented. Africa has the second largest population group, yet only the fourth (North Africa) and fifth (Sub-Saharan Africa) largest amount of advising centers. Of the forty-six countries that comprise Sub-Saharan Africa, only thirty-two have Educational Advising Centers (Farhat 2000:1-195). A very small percentage of those have full time Advisers (Barnes 1996:36).

The United States Government provides modest support for Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa. According to A. Prince (E-mail communication, 14 November 2001) of the United States Department of State's Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, the total budget expenditure for the Fiscal Year 2001 for the Sub-Saharan African area was $266,698.00. The actual monetary support for the entire network of Educational Advising Centers worldwide in the year 2001 was $3.2 million dollars, according to NAFSA, the Association of International Educators (2001a:3). In terms of support for Sub-Saharan Centers, this funding provided reference materials, training and a limited amount of equipment. Figure 2.8 indicates the percentage of the total budget for Fiscal Year 2001 ($3.2 million) which was spent on Sub-Saharan Advising.

For the most part, the salaries of the Sub-Saharan Advisers are paid out of the funds of the post in which they work. The post has the discretion to either increase, decrease or cancel advising services altogether, based on the perception of need and

the post budget. Most Centers are now required to charge basic fees for services
provided, such as loan of materials, Internet access and personal interviews with an
Adviser (Dept. of State 2001a:2).
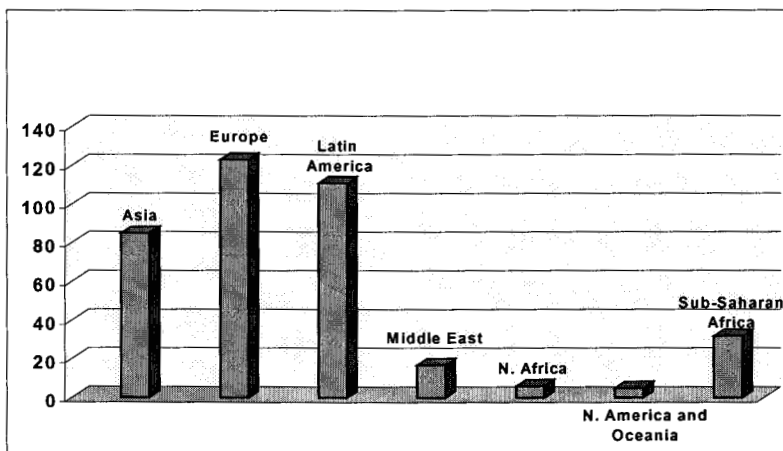
Figure 2.7

Distribution of Overseas Educational Advising Centers

(Source: Farhat:2001)
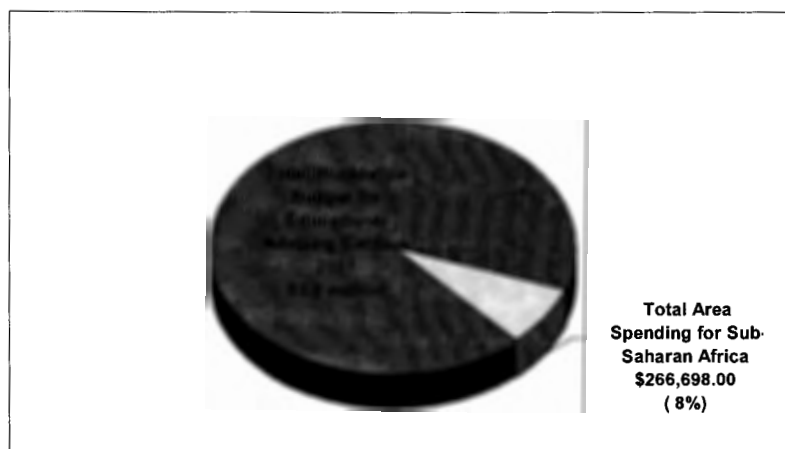
Figure 2.8

Funding for Sub-Saharan African Educational Advising Centers

(Source: Prince 2001)

NAFSA (Association of International Educators), an organization in the United States
which promotes international education, lobbied Congress to increase the amount of
funding available to Educational Advising Centers from $3.2 million to $6 million for
the fiscal year 2001-2002, citing Educational Advising Centers as having the "leading
role in international education" (NAFSA 2001a:1). Despite this request, President
Bush signed into law the "FY 2002 Commerce, Justice and State (CJS)

Appropriations Bill" on November 28, 2001 (White House 2001:1) which marginally increases the funding available for Educational Advising Centers from $3.2 million to $3.5 million, a 2.5% increase. This marginal increase will allow services to remain the same for the year 2001-2002, but will allow for little, if any, increase in services.

2.6.1.2 Internet Access

Another aspect of obtaining information regarding study in the United States is Internet Access. Figure 2.9 shows the availability of Internet access throughout the world. The continent of Africa is the least well represented in its ability to access information via Internet.

In Lubbock (1995:1), Shem Ochuodho, senior lecturer in computer science at Kenyatta University in Kenya, states: "There are more telephones in Tokyo than there are in the whole of Sub-Saharan Africa". What access is available is often unreliable, slow and costly (Fallgatter 2000:1). Although many American institutions, including New York University with about 5,000 international students, see Internet as the information delivery and recruiting system of the future (Mendels 1998:1), the reality is that very few of the citizens of Sub-Saharan Africa have the equipment or ability to access that information.
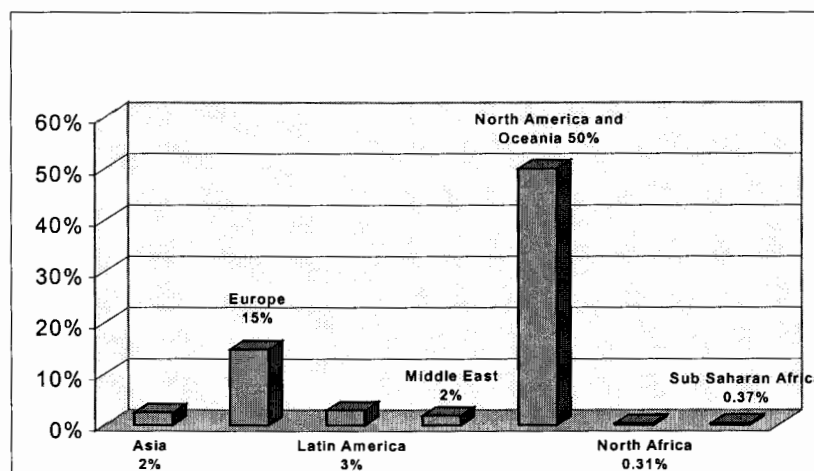

Figure 2.9

Percentage of Internet Access within Population Groups

(Source: CIA 2001)

Not all Advising Centers funded by the United States government have equal access to Internet technology. Some Centers have no Internet capability at all, while others experience limited access (Fallgatter 2000:1), making the abundance of electronic information, on-line applications and registration via the Internet for the various entrance exams, useless to those who do not possess the ability required to access it.

Most United States university websites as well as online publishers such as Peterson's, which specializes in United States tertiary information, are extremely graphic intensive. Graphic intensity in a website requires a high-speed connectivity level as otherwise the site could take hours to download (Fallgatter 2000:17). While high-speed connectivity is commonplace in the United States and Asia, it is seldom found in Sub-Saharan Africa, even in the more developed countries such as South Africa (Sunday Tribune 2001:12).

2.6.2   Academic Preparedness

As stated by Bollag (2001:1), "only about 3% of the young people in Sub-Saharan Africa attend some form of postsecondary education. This compares with 58% in industrialized countries as a whole, and 81% in the United States". Therefore, the pool of prospective applicants from this region is indeed small.

Historically, the African continent has had many challenges, which have affected its ability to educate its people. According to Eshiwani (1999:32), "the turmoil that gripped the continent a decade into the independence period – displacement of persons due to wars, famine, devastating weather conditions, sociopolitical instability, and student unrest – decelerated the motion of many universities toward the achievement of their stated missions. Most of these problems have persisted into the 1990's with adverse effects on institutions of higher learning."

An additional factor, which contributes to this small percentage of students who are able to seek some form of postsecondary education, is the relatively low literacy rate.
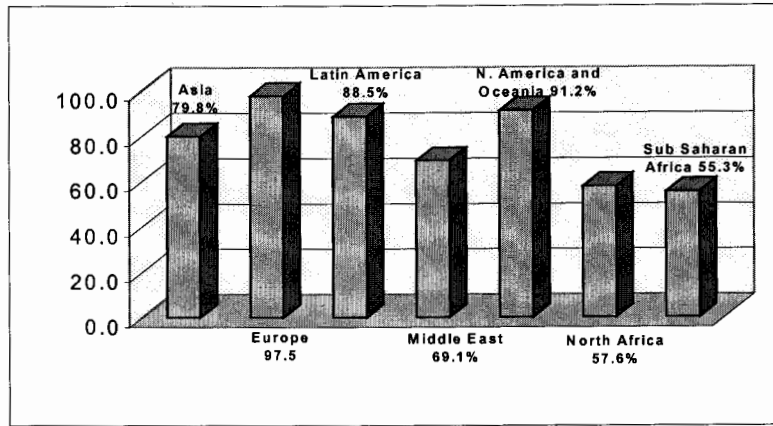
Figure 2.10

Average Literacy Rate

(Definition: Ages 15 and over can read and write)

(Source: CIA 2001)

Figure 2.10 delineates the average literacy rate for the various sections of the world. Sub-Saharan Africa has the lowest. The ability to read and write directly influences the ability of students to participate in education.

The medium of instruction in the United States is English, the competency of which needs to be mastered prior to undertaking study in the United States. A sizeable percentage of Sub-Saharan African countries have an official language other than English. The following figure delineates English speaking countries within Sub-Saharan Africa.
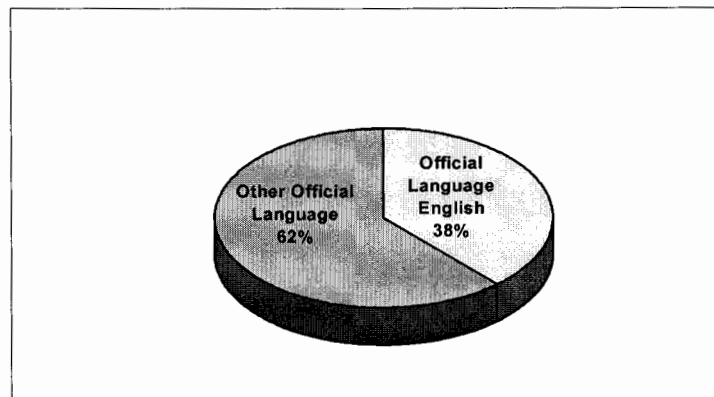
Figure 2.11

Official Languages in Sub-Saharan Africa

(Source: CIA 2001)

2.6.3 Funding

Another factor that frustrates the Sub-Saharan African student in his quest to study in the United States is the inability to pay for it. Undergraduate international students are expected to bring most, if not all of their funding from their home country, as there is very little in the way of financial assistance (Dept. of State 1999:4).

Since many students rely heavily on family financial support to study at the tertiary level (IIE 2001), a country's unemployment rate directly affects the student's ability to pay for it. If the family is unable to work and earn money, they have no means by which to pay for education. The following table delineates the average unemployment rates around the world.

Figure 2.12   **Average World Unemployment**

(Source: CIA 2001)

The following two figures show the gross per capita domestic product and the level of inflation for all geographical areas in the world.
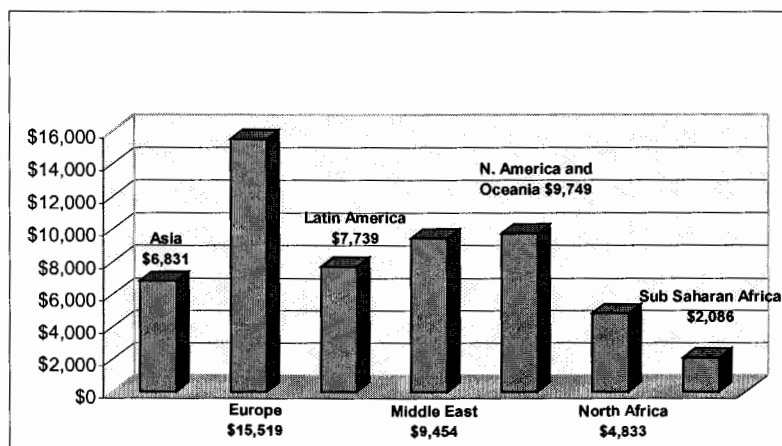
Figure 2.13   **Average Annual Gross Domestic Product per Capita**

in Each Population Group (Source: CIA 2001)
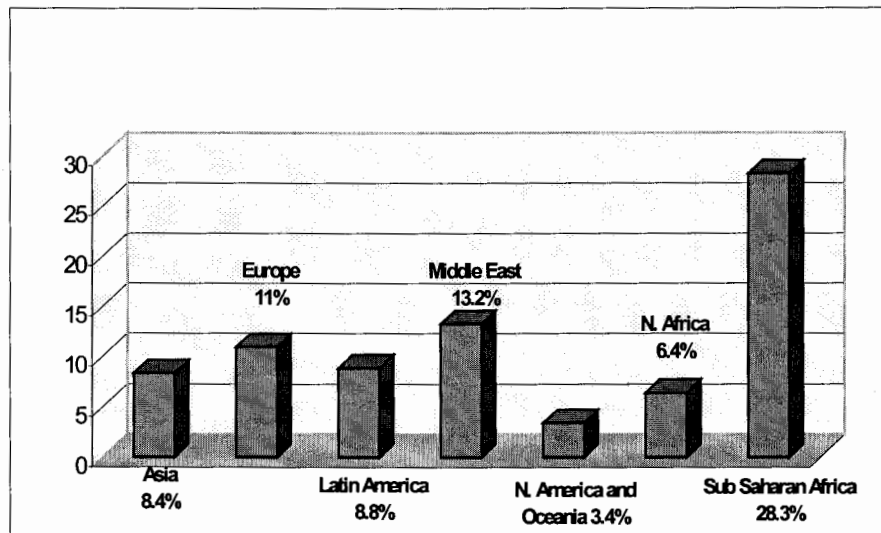
Figure 2.14

Average Inflation Rate within Population Groups

(Source: CIA 2001)

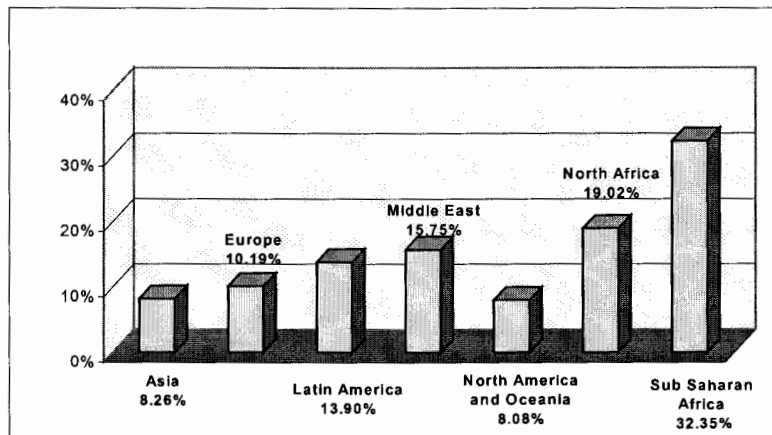According to Marcus and Hartigan (2000:68), "In theory, America's colleges are open to anyone who chooses to apply. But students from abroad are not eligible for federal and state loans, so those who enroll then have to come from families that can pay the full freight."

With the average cost of a year at an American undergraduate institution being approximately $10,000 to $23,000 (Barnes 1996:41) and the average per capita income of a Sub-Saharan citizen being $2,086 (CIA 2001), it is apparent that the level of difficulty for the average prospective student to the United States from Sub-Saharan Africa is great indeed. Added to this, the fact that Sub-Saharan Africa experiences the highest level of unemployment (Figure 2.12), obtaining even the average per capita income can be difficult for many of its citizens.

Assuming the student does have the resources needed to pursue his first year of study in the United States, based on the rate of inflation shown in Figure 2.14 above, it would be extremely difficult for that student to maintain the same level of funding from year to year.

According to Eshiwani (1999:35) "the nonperforming economies of African countries have not only affected the operation of local universities but have also greatly reduced the migration of students from Africa to universities in Europe and America". Green (1997:B6) states: "Governments increasingly are unable or unwilling to maintain their previous levels of financial support for higher education. In poorer countries, the very existence of some institutions is imperiled. The World Bank reports that in developing regions, average annual government expenditures per college student declined precipitously (in constant dollars) during the 1980's, from $6,300 in 1980 to $1,500 in 1988 in Sub-Saharan Africa."

2.6.4   Testing

According to Barnes (1991:53) the single most important qualification for admission into postsecondary education in the United States is English proficiency. Referring back to Figure 2.11 which indicated the official languages in Sub-Saharan Africa, the English language ability requirement can indeed be seen as a challenge. The exam that is used almost exclusively to measure this proficiency is the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) exam (Shiraev & Boyd 2001:17).

In 1998, the Educational and Testing Service (ETS) who administers the TOEFL exam switched from paper and pencil based exams to computer exams (Guernsey 1999a:1).

In addition to proving their English language ability, the shift from paper and pencil to computerized exams for the TOEFL test meant several disadvantages for the prospective Sub-Saharan African student, according to Kornbluh (s.a.:[Internet]). He lists the disadvantages as:

1. Permanent testing centers are present in only 14 of the 46 Sub-Saharan African countries;
2. Mobile test units are not available in all of the remaining 32 countries;
3. Mobile test units in many cases will offer only one test date per year, and are scheduled randomly with no apparent linkage to the academic calendar;
4. Travel to such test units can be next to impossible for prospective students.

Kornbluh also expressed concern that the increased costs, from $75 to $125, that accompanied the change to computer-based testing for the TOEFL will make it financially impossible for many more Africans to apply.

In an interview conducted before Educational Testing Services (ETS), the creator and administrator of the TOEFL exam, Kornbluh stated: "The problems with shifting to computer-based testing at this point are legion, and they will result in a dramatic decline in African students attending American universities." In fact, the actual number of exam takers dropped from 6,200 prior to the switch to computer-based testing from July 1997 to December 1997 to 2,600 for the same period in 1998, after computer-based testing was introduced (Guernsey 1999b:1).

In another article in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (Guernsey 1999a:1) a letter of protest sent to ETS by H-Net states that "the organization's (ETS) new reliance on computerized testing outside the United States is disenfranchising students in Africa, many of whom are not computer-literate."

In response, in February of 1999, ETS decided to suspend computer-based testing in many African countries and return to paper and pencil testing. These countries include: Benin, Burundi, Cape Verde, Central African Republic, Democratic Republic of the Congo, Gambia, Liberia, Malawi, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Sao Tome and Principe, Seychelles, Sierra Leone, and Togo. The city of Mombassa in Kenya and five cities in South Africa also will be included, even though those countries have permanent testing centers, as those facilities are too far away for many students. Students will be still be required to take the computer-based TOEFL exam in the countries where there are permanent testing centers within 125 miles. It was also decided that the fee for the TOEFL would be dropped from $125 to $100, the same fee that students from Canada and the United States pay (Guernsey 199b:2).

However, the fact remains that for many non-computer literate students in Sub-Saharan Africa, the change to computer driven tests remains a challenge (Guernsey 1999a:2), which could jeopardize their entry into colleges in the United States.

An additional exam required by most postsecondary institutions in the United States for entry into first year studies is the SAT (Scholastic Aptitude Test) (Barnes 1991:58). The most recent criticism that has been leveled against this exam by many is that it is an "inappropriate and unfair measure of high school students" (Steinberg 2001:1), and the article goes on to say that the President of the University of California system has suggested to his regents that they stop requiring the SAT I exam.

The SAT I exam, which claims to measure math and verbal reasoning ability, has often been criticized for the fact that it favors those with inherited privilege (Steinberg 2001:1) and presents barriers for those of underprivileged and/or minority backgrounds. The verbal section, with its strong emphasis on vocabulary, can make it difficult for those who speak English as a second language to score highly on this exam (Barnes 1991:58).

Richard Atkinson, president of the University of California system, has proposed that in place of the SAT I, the SAT II exam which measures knowledge in specific subjects such as history, chemistry and physics be used as the admission measuring stick (Steinberg 2001:1).

2.6.5 Visas

To obtain a visa in the United States as explained in 2.5.4, you are required to prove that you have strong ties to your home country. According to Wolanin (2001:6), this aspect of proof, demonstrating that "a residence at home which will never be abandoned" is one of the main obstacles in international students obtaining a visa for study purposes in the United States.

Tied to the fact that many of the countries in Africa (Eshiwani 1999:32) have or are experiencing political turmoil and economic instability, the proof of a home that will never be abandoned, can become an insurmountable difficulty (Wolanin 2001:6) for the Sub-Saharan prospective student.

Since the terrorist attacks on the United States on September 11, 2001, obtaining a student visa has become even more difficult. In November of 2001, President Bush

ordered his administration officials to conduct a review of the nations' student visa program (Hebel & Curry 2001:1) for the purpose of making it more difficult for terrorists to enter the United States.

In terms of the impact on Sub-Saharan African students, NAFSA (2001b:1-3) reports that new visa-screening procedures will result in a delay of 20 working days in the processing of student visas from prospective students from Eritria, the only country in Sub-Saharan Africa to be affected thus far.

Another aspect that affects issuance of student visas is the non-return rate of students to their home country once they have ended their studies in the United States (Bratsberg 1995:373). The higher the non-return rate, the more difficult it is to obtain a visa (Weed pers.comm. 2002). Although statistics are not available from the Department of State which reflect the current non-return rate for all Sub-Saharan African countries (Lewis L.: E-mail communication, 2001), statistics for previous years from the Immigration and Naturalization service suggest that countries from Sub-Saharan Africa have a lower than average return rate (Weed pers.comm. 2002).

2.7 SUMMARY

Chapter 2 describes the system of American tertiary education. The application process to American postsecondary institutions is discussed along with all of the various required components of this process. It then explains the system of applying for admission as an international undergraduate student.

The aspects of research and how it relates to field of study, cost and financial aid, level of academic difficulty, rankings of institutions, student services available on campus, institutional size, geographical location and climatic conditions as well as housing and type of institution are explored.

The availability of resources to discover the various aspects as outlined in the above paragraph is indicated.

Chapter 2 then goes on to relate the information to undergraduates specifically from Sub-Saharan Africa. It attempts to shed light on how the various aspects, or lack of them, impact on these potential students. The facets of Educational Advising Service Centers, Internet access, academic preparedness, financial ability, testing requirements and their impact, as well as visa requirements and their relation to the Sub-Saharan African student, are discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

THE RESEARCH DESIGN

"To ask the right question is already half the solution of a problem"

Carl Jung (1875-1961)

3.1.   INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 1, the background to the study as well as the problem formation, aims and terminology of the research were introduced. Chapter 1 also gave a brief description of the research design and the justification thereof.

Chapter 2 concerned itself with information on the system of higher education in the United States and the process involved in making application to tertiary institutions. It then looked at how this process relates to applicants from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Chapter 3 will attempt to define the overall process of educational research as it pertains to this dissertation and then it will address the procedure involved in the specific form of research that was chosen to be the most appropriate, i.e. survey research.

3.2.   AN EXPLAINATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Providing evidence is the goal of educational research, according to Johnson and Christensen (2000:2). They go on to say that while proof is possible in mathematics and deductive logic, in the field of education, the objective is the collection of evidence that can provide material for evaluating arguments.

While educational research should be systematic and ordered, it is not always possible or desirable to conclude that research is a "lock-step process" (Wiersma 1999:4) and that whatever order is followed that it be applicable to the research being undertaken. Wiersma (1999:4) states that "Educational research is systematic and within a broad framework follows the steps of the scientific method. However, across different types

of studies there is extensive flexibility in how the steps are implemented" (Wiersma 1999:4).

3.2.1 The Focus of the Research

The purpose of this research, as the title to this dissertation suggests, is to determine the various factors that relate to the participation of Sub-Saharan African undergraduate students in United States tertiary institutions.

The research has been designed to explore the various components of these factors and to elicit information, or evidence, which will provide a better understanding of this problem. Reviewing existing information forms an important part of undertaking any new research (Wiersma 1999:3) and such a review is included in Chapter 2.

The research design was based on descriptive research with the primary focus being on obtaining an accurate description concerning the status or characteristics of situation or phenomenon (Johnson & Christensen 2000:4).

As outlined in Chapter 1, the research design for this dissertation is comprised of survey research. It was decided that to accurately reflect the parameters as outlined in the problem statement, and to obtain the type of descriptive research desired, that two distinct population groups, each with their own specific questionnaire, were necessary to obtain the desired information.

The first population group to be surveyed, comprised of accredited two and four-year, public and private colleges and universities will be known as "Group One" and the survey used to obtain research data from this group will be known as "Questionnaire One".

The second population group chosen, that of Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa, will be known as "Group Two" and the survey used to elicit information from this group as "Questionnaire Two".

3.2.2 Type Of Data Required

The focus on which the research is based determines the requirement for specific types of data, according to Charles (1995:94). These include: descriptions, scores, measurements, opinions, statements and analyses.

Since it was determined that the primary focus of the research for this dissertation was that of a descriptive nature, the data that was determined to be needed for this research consisted primarily of statements by authorities in the field of international education, based on their records and statistics. This data was obtained from both the United States institutions and from the Educational Advising offices in Sub-Saharan Africa via Questionnaire One and Questionnaire 2. A limited amount opinion-based data was also included to give perspective to the information obtained.

3.2.3 Sources Of Data

According to Charles (1995:95-96), there are seven sources of data available from which educational research can be obtained. Research can be comprised of one or more of the sources: subjects, procedures, settings, objects, records, documents and respondents.

The primary source of data for this research project is based on information supplied by respondents, representing either their academic institutions (Group One) or the Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa (Group Two). The respondents will be required to supply information based on records and procedures based on their particular settings.

3.2.4 The Samples And Their Selection

The two types of sampling referred to by Charles (1995:97-98) and Rea and Parker (1992:147-161) are:

- probability sampling - which refers to the assumption that a normal distribution of the population is possible and implies a thorough knowledge of the working population; and
- nonprobability sampling - which it is understood that the sample may not be indicative of the larger population.

The type of sampling that was chosen to be appropriate for this research was probability sampling, which includes the following: random, stratified, cluster and systematic sampling.

Samples are not always necessary when conducting educational research, according to Charles (1995:96). However, for the purpose of developing a working population for Group One, it was deemed to be appropriate. Since this research requires generalizations that reflect the views of the entire population of Group One, and since the total population of that group is too large to obtain data from in its entirety, it was necessary for a sample group to be selected that accurately reflected the characteristics and commonalties of the entire population of that group. A well-selected sampling achieves this in Group One.

However, a sampling of the working population of Group Two was not required as data from the entire population of Group Two could easily be obtained.

3.2.4.1. Group One Selection Process

According to Rea and Parker (1992:148-161) and as outlined in Chapter 1, the form of sampling for the Group One survey is that of simple, random, stratified sampling. The population of United States institutions, which forms the working population of Group One in this research, is known, and so indicates that it will be a probability sampling.

The method by which a simple random sampling was achieved was to randomly assign a number to each of the tertiary institutions in the United States, and then draw numbers to identify those who would form part of the working population of this portion of the research. This was done so that each subject within the group has an equal chance of being selected. Although this result can be achieved by using specific computer programs that randomly assign numbers, the method by which the sampling group was obtained was done, not by computer selection, but by hand.

Since there are three sub-groups within the working population of Group One, namely, two-year community colleges and four-year private colleges and four-year public colleges, it was decided that a stratified sampling was necessary, that is, a

sampling which ensures that the various subgroups within the universe of the population are represented equally in the sample. Stratified sampling was achieved by dividing Group One into the three distinct sub-groups and then randomly choosing institutions from each of these sub-groups.

The universe of the population for Group One was based on the institutions listed in the *2002 Higher Education Directory* (Rodenhouse 2002:1-467), and divided into subgroups, according to the Carnegie Classifications (Carnegie Foundation 2000). The working population was then chosen via a simple, random stratified sampling.

Appendix A-1 lists the working population for Survey 1. The institutions are listed alphabetically by state with contact emails. The email addresses were obtained from the following sources:

- http://www.utexas.edu/world/comcol/state/ (two-year college web site)
- http://dir.yahoo.com/Education/Higher_Education/Colleges_and_Universities/ United_States/ (four-year college web site)
- Peterson's *2001 Four Year Colleges* (32nd edition)
- Peterson's *2001 Two Year Colleges* (32nd edition)
- *The College Handbook, 2002* (37th edition)
- *Membership Directory* (NAFSA 2000) 2000-2001

When not available from the above sources, the institution's web site was investigated. Failing finding the email address on the web site, a fax requesting the email address from the institution was then sent.

Certain states do not have the requisite number of appropriate institutions to fulfill the requirement number in all categories. These following states were limited by having only the institutions listed:

1. Alaska. Three four-year private institutions. Three four-year public institutions.
2. Delaware. Two four-year public institutions.
3. District of Columbia. No two-year colleges. One four-year public institution.

4. Hawaii. Three public four-year institutions.

5. Iowa. Three public four-year institutions.

6. Montana. Three public four-year institutions

7. Nevada. Two private four-year institutions. Two public four-year institutions.

8. New Mexico. Three private four-year institutions.

9. North Dakota. Three private four-year institutions.

10. Rhode Island. Two private four-year institutions. Two public four-year institutions.

11. Wyoming. Zero four-year private institutions. One public four-year institution.

This meant a total of 580 institutions were to be contacted with Survey 1. The total is broken down into sub-groups as follows:

1. two-year college total: 198

2. four-year private college total: 193

3. four-year public college total: 189

In order to have an equal distribution of all sub-groups, it was decided to randomly choose 5 additional four-year private institutions and 9 additional four-year public institutions from the remaining population groups. These were chosen without regard to geographic distribution, equalizing the total for each sub-group at 196 members for a total working population of 594.

3.2.4.2 Group Two Selection Process

The working population of the Advising Centers (working population Group Two) is not divided into sub-groups, nor is the population too large to investigate in its entirety, and therefore, the probability sampling in any of its forms was not required as the entire population forms the working population.

The working population of Group Two was defined as per the *Directory of Overseas Educational Advising Centers* (Farhat 2000:1-195) and where necessary from the ADSEC/OSEAS Educational Advising Centers Liaison web site. This listing can be found in Appendix A-2.

3.2.5   Size of Samples

According to Charles (1995:98), samples smaller than thirty are not likely to represent the trait distributions of a population, which could result in the entire research being invalid. If a small sample does however, represent a population accurately, its size reduces the chances that research results based on their finding will be statistically significant.

Charles goes on to say that statisticians have agreed that samples used must number at least thirty for co-relational research and larger than fifteen for causal-comparative research, while Rea and Parker (1992:125-139) suggest that a percentage of the population be used in survey research. Sample size is directly related to the size of the population group as a whole and that the accuracy of the findings in survey research depends to a large extent on the correct size of the pilot survey (Rea & Parker 1992:125-139). Table 3.1 delineates the suggested sample size for survey research according to Rea and Parker (1992:133).

Table 3.1

Minimum Sample Sizes for Selected Small Populations.

	Sample Sizes					
	95% Level of Confidence			99% Level of Confidence		
Population Size (N)	±3%	±5%	±10%	±3%	±5%	±10%
500	250[a]	218	81	250[a]	250[a]	125
1,000	500[a]	278	88	500[a]	399	143
1,500	624	306	91	750[a]	460	150
2,000	696	323	92	959	498	154
3,000	788	341	94	1,142	544	158
5,000	880	357	95	1,347	586	161
10,000	965	370	96	1,556	622	164
20,000	1,014	377	96	1,687	642	165
50,000	1,045	382	96	1,777	655	166
100,000	1,058	383	96	1,809	659	166

Note: The choice of ±3%, ±5%, and ±10% for confidence intervals is based on the tendency of researchers to commonly use these intervals or a similar range of intervals in the design of their survey.
 [a] Population sizes for which the assumption of normality does not apply; in such cases, the appropriate sample size is 50% of the population size.

3.2.6   Validity And Reliability Of Educational Research

Validity within educational research, according to Wiersma (1999:4) is present when the research is "capable of being justified" and involves two aspects, namely, external and internal validity. External validity refers to the extent that the research findings can be generalized to "populations, situations, an conditions" (Wiersma 1999:4) while internal validity refers to the accuracy of the interpretation of results.

Charles (1995:252-3) states that there are specific threats to the validity of both internal and external validity. As quoted by Charles, within internal validity these threats could include:

1. Differential selection of subjects. Subjects for the groups are not selected or assigned randomly.
2. History. When experimental treatments extend over longer periods, such as a semester or year, factors other than the experimental treatment have time to exert influence on the results.
3. Maturation. Again, if treatments extend over longer periods of time, subjects may undergo physiological changes that produce differential effects in the criterion variable.
4. Testing. If pretests and posttests are used, subjects may learn enough from the pretests to improve performance on the posttest.
5. Attrition. While the experiment is in progress, there may be a loss of subjects for reasons such as illnesses, dropping out, or moving elsewhere.

Within this research, the main concern with internal validity would be the "differential selection of subjects", as the other threats do not apply. Every effort has been made to ensure random selection of the population of Group One, so as to avoid any threat to internal invalidity.

Wiersma (1999:6) states that "to a large extent, internal validity is a prerequisite for external validity because if results cannot be interpreted it is not likely that they can be generalized". Charles (1995:253) list the following as threats to internal validity:

1. Population validity. This refers to the degree of similarity among the sample used in a study, the population from which it was drawn, and the target population to which results are to be generalized.

2. Personological variables. A given research finding can apply well to some people and poorly to others. Individuals differ in what they find acceptable, comfortable, and useful.
3. Ecological validity. This refers to the situation, physical or emotional, that exists during the experiment. An experimental situation may be quite different from a new setting where results are to be applied.

For the purpose of the research undertaken in this dissertation, "Population validity" was ensured in that the data obtained from both groups was from two homogeneous populations, that is, all constituents of both population groups were involved in tertiary education, albeit from a different focus. Group One's focus is on receiving students and Group Two's focus is on sending international students to the United States

The validity of "personological variables" in this research is ensured in as much as it could be within the two groups, assuming that they are equally involved in international education and comfortable within that setting.

"Ecological validity" is ensured in that the physical situation of both population groups remained constant for the duration of the research.

3.2.6.1 Validity and Reliability of Quantitative Data

Quantitative data, that is, information that is acquired that consists primarily of numerical measurements of a variety of types, and then compared against each other, will be used in this research.

Within the realm of quantitative data research, the most important aspects of data selection, no matter what form it takes, are again, reliability and validity. The determining factors that ensure validity within quantitative research are defined, according to Charles (1995:101) as:

- *Predictive validity*. This type of validity is defined as "present when one measurement or set of data can predict another that occurs at a later time."

- *Content validity.* This type of validity "is present when the contents of an instrument such as an achievement test appear to be very similar to the information contained in a course or training program."
- *Concurrent validity.* This type of validity is present when "an instrument is shown to yield results that are closely related to those produced by a second instrument that enjoys high acclaim."
- *Construct validity.* This type of validity is defined as "when an instrument appears to measure a particular mental "construct". A construct is an intellectual invention, such as the concept of intelligence."

For the purpose of this research, the validity method used is that of "content validity" in that the measuring instruments used will reflect the statistical data collected in current and prior years through such publications as *Open Doors*, whose purpose is to collect information and data regarding the flow of international students to the United States.

The concept of reliability, the second essential component of data, as defined by Charles (1995:102) "refers not to the authenticity but to consistency," that is, the ability to replicate data collection. As stated in Chapter 1, the chief benefit of survey research is that it can be replicated for purposes of comparisons amongst institutions.

3.2.7 Selection of Appropriate Tools for Data Collection

Based on the decision that the type of data collection desired was that of "questioning", the most appropriate form for data collection for this research was deemed to be a questionnaire, to which end a series of questions was created to obtain responses from respondents.

Alreck and Settle (1995:3) state that surveys are usually conducted for one of three reasons:
1. They want to influence or persuade some audience.
2. They want to create or modify a product or service they provide for a particular public.
3. They want to understand or predict human behavior or conditions because it's the focus of their academic or professional work.

For the purpose of this dissertation, the survey was conducted for the reason of obtaining data, which would enable more understanding within the areas of the focus of this research.

Alreck and Settle (1995:4) go on to state that survey research can be "the other half of a conversation, so there's two-way communication between the message sender and the audience". The survey method provides the researcher a "method through which their audience can talk to them" (Alreck & Settle 1995:4). Intrusiveness in investigations is always a concern of the researcher. According to Alreck and Settle (1995:4) surveys do not impose upon the respondent as no one can force them to answer if they chose not to and "in fact, most people welcome the opportunity to respond, to record their opinions and reactions, and to have some effect on the sponsor."

Learning more about the conditions and situations in which the respondents find themselves is a goal of survey research. Since most occupations involve doing something or making something for others (Alreck & Settle 1995:4), the more that the providers of the goods or services can learn about their clientele, the better the service or provision of goods can become. In this dissertation, it is hoped that by learning more about the conditions and situations of the two population groups involved in the surveys, it will allow for a better understanding of the needs of the groups, which would hopefully result in conclusions useful for future research and policy making.

As the desired outcome of a questionnaire is that it be returned to the researcher, the construction of the questionnaire, according to Charles (1995:107) should take into account the following:
  - A. Appearance. This should be uncluttered and pleasing to the eye;
  - B. Relatively few items should be included;
  - C. Directions should be simple;
  - D. Indication of how long the survey should take to complete;
  - E. Potential value of the responses and the research that is being undertaken;
  - F. Contacting respondents in advance;
  - G. Expressing appreciation through monetary means;

H. Follow-up mailings for respondents who do not reply.

3.2.8   Formats in which Data will Accrue

According to Charles (1995:108) there are two types of responses that are obtained via the survey method.

The first, that of the open-ended response, where respondents are requested to supply information that is unstructured in nature and secondly, that which offers specific alternatives to choose from. These two types of questions can also be referred to as "open-ended" and "close-ended" questions.

For the open-ended question, the data format used for the collection of responses would involve notation of the answers as written by the respondents, and if the categories of these responses can be predicted beforehand, placed into those categories. Responses that do not fit into any pre-arranged categories must be then "analyzed and categorized at a later time" (Charles 1995:109).

Closed-ended, or structured questions, can be assigned to categories that have been previously determined and then put into a table or chart or other form of analysis.

3.3   A SUMMATION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As mentioned in section 3.1, the format of this chapter would consider, *inter alia*, the following: research, focus, pertinent data, sources of data, data collection and the tools required for data collection. To sum up the various components that will comprise the research in this study, the following table shows the definitions of each area:

Table 3.2   **Types of Research and Their Focus**

Research	*Focus*	*Data*	*Sources*	*Collection*	*Tools*
Descriptive	Present events and conditions	Descriptions, opinions, statements	Respondents	Questioning	Questionnaires

3.4   A DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AS IT RELATES TO SURVEY RESEARCH

The preceding pages explained the various components considered when deciding on the appropriate research focus, method of data required, the sources for that data, the method of collection and the tools needed for such collection.

The data collection tool, that of questionnaires, performed via survey research, was designed taking into account various components and requirements, which are delineated in the following sections.

3.4.1   The Creation and Implementation of the Survey Research Tool
Rea and Parker (1992:12) suggest that specific measures apply in the creation of a survey research tool, and must be adhered to in order to carry out the research in a "rigorous and unbiased fashion."

Although these measures can intersect with each other during the development and execution of the survey process, they are presented below as separate steps as defined by Rea and Parker (1992:13).

These ten steps or stages, as Rea and Parker refer to them (1992:13) comprise the following and will be followed as they pertain to the survey design for this research:
1. Identification of the focus of the study and method of research;
2. The research schedule and budget;
3. Establishment of an information base;
4. The sampling frame;
5. Determination of sample size and sample selection;
6. Pretest of the survey instrument;
7. Selection and training of interviewers;
8. Implementation of the survey;
9. Codification of the completed questionnaires and computerized data entry;
10. Data analysis and the final report.

3.4.1.1 Step One: Identification of the Focus of the Study and Method of Research

According to Rea and Parker (1992:13) the first stage in the development of an appropriate instrument to conduct survey research involves defining the focus of the research and the method by which the research will be undertaken.

As described in section 3.2 of this chapter, the focus of this research is to obtain descriptive information as well as a limited amount of evaluation and causal-comparative data concerning the two population groups. According to Rea and Parker (1992:5) these "parameters provide important information that enables the researcher to better understand the larger population represented by the sample."

To a lesser extent, although still a valuable component of the data collection process via the survey method, is the acquisition of information regarding patterns of behavior and the opinions of the respondents.

Not only is it important to know the statistical information that descriptive questions generally elicit, but it is also imperative that the data makes it possible to define patterns of past and current behavior and the opinion of the respondents, which according to Rea and Parker (1992:5) leads to information which is "predictive and future oriented."

In order to be able to summarize findings and to suggest possible solutions to the problem statement in this research, it was believed that it was necessary to include questions that resulted in descriptive, behavioral and opinion based data.

The tool selected for data collection in this dissertation was that of a questionnaire, conducted via the mail-out method. As explained in Chapter 1, it was decided that this was the most appropriate tool in that two distinct groups, one with a large population of over 3,200 members and a defined group of twenty-eight members, formed the two population groups from which information was needed. Two different questionnaires were developed to gather data from each group respectively (cf Appendixes B and C).

The geographical distances of these two population groups and the size of Group One made the interview method either by telephone or in person, which comprise the other two types of surveys, unfeasible. Since the focus was to obtain descriptive data, mail-out questionnaire research best met the needs of this research.

The need for a data collection tool in which a small percentage of a population would give a true and accurate representation of the total population and allow for significant data analyses also indicted that the questionnaire would be the appropriate method for data collection.

Also, since comparison of existing data on the subject matter is not possible, as little, if any research has been conducted in this field, making primary and secondary data unobtainable, the questionnaire allows for primary data to be collected.

3.4.1.2   Step Two: the Research Schedule and Budget

According to Rea and Parker (1992:14) once the decision has been made that the questionnaire is indeed the most appropriate instrument for data collection, the next step is to define a timetable for completion of the questionnaire as well as determining a budget for the survey process.

The schedule for completion of the questionnaire, according to Rea and Parker (1992:14), should be adaptive enough to permit respondents ample time for completion and to allow for any unexpected postponements, yet also fit into the timing of the parameters of the researcher's schedule. The timeline for the email questionnaires to both population groups was decided to encompass a two-week completion date from when the initial mailing took place. Since email questionnaires were used and the cost implication was small, no budget allocation was deemed necessary.

3.4.1.3   Step Three: Establishment of an Information Base

The next step in the development of the survey method is that of establishing an information base (Rea & Parker 1992:14). This is defined as learning as much as possible about the population group(s) to be surveyed. The literature investigation in Chapter 2 defines the various areas of interest in this research and so assists in the

establishment of an information base that aids in the formation of the questions that comprise the questionnaires.

3.4.1.4   Step Four: The Sampling Frame

Upon establishing an information base the next step would involve the identification of a "sampling frame" (Rea & Parker 1992:15). The identification of a sampling frame refers to the definition of the "universe" which will define the working population group(s) as well as determining its relevance to the goals of the research.

3.4.1.5   Step Five: Determination of Sample Size and Sample Selection

According to Rea and Parker (1992:15) "the researcher must attempt to select a sample that is an approximate microcosm of the working population". Once the appropriate sample size has been determined, the next procedure involves establishing a methodology for choosing the working population from the universe of the population group.

Alreck and Settle (1995:6) state that "Rarely do surveys sample more than about a thousand people, even when the results are to be generalized to many millions. The vast majority of surveys include only a few hundred respondents, and there are some projects where a sample of only a few dozen respondents is completely adequate. The use of well-designed and well-organized instrumentation also contributes to the efficiency of survey research".

This research, based on a 5% confidence interval and a 95% level of confidence (cf Table 3.1) and as described in Chapter 1, was determined to require a sample size of 600, based on a hopeful 50% return rate for Group One, whose total population is slightly over 3,200. Therefore, it was determined that the desired number of responses would be 300.

Although Rea and Parker (1992:85) state there is typically a 50%-60% response rate in pilot surveys, more current literature suggests that today, with a market that has been thoroughly saturated with surveys, a 15-25% response rate in an unsolicited survey would be an excellent result and offer the same degree of validity (NCS Pearson, Inc. 1997). The actual response rate cannot be known until the completed

questionnaires have been collected. Therefore, one can only assume a response rate and hope for the best, following up when necessary with reminders to the respondents.

It was decided that the sample population for Group One would comprise 594 institutions divided as equally as possible between the three subgroups: two-year community colleges, four-year private colleges and four-year public colleges, to ensure an adequate response rate. It was noted that the response rate can be higher when dealing with a specialized population group, (Rea & Parker 1992:85) which both groups could be considered as falling into, and so one could lower the number of the sample population Group One. It was felt, however, that for the sake of ensuring a statistically significant analysis, it was best to err on the side of a larger sampling size rather than a smaller one.

For Group Two, the survey would encompass the entire universe of this population group, which numbers 28. The procedure that was chosen for Group One was a simple, stratified, random sampling, as outlined in section 3.5. The listings of the working populations for these population groups can be found in Appendix A-1 (Group One) and in Appendix A-2 (Group Two).

3.4.1.6   Step Six: Design of the Questionnaires

According to Rea and Parker (1992:16), the next and extremely crucial part of the survey method is the design of the survey instrument. NCS Pearson (1997) states that "A survey program is only as good as its weakest link. In general, this tends to be the low percentage of returns frequently found in mail surveys". The article states that, among other considerations, in order to achieve the desired high response rate, the questionnaire must be designed in a manner that is easy to complete, clear and attractive.

The following components, as listed in the following sub-sections should be adhered to when designing the questionnaire, according to Rea and Parker (1992:37-55).

3.4.1.6.1 The Introductory Statement

In addition to the design of the survey instrument it is also important that some method of introduction be used to give the respondents background information on the questionnaire that the researcher is asking them to complete.

Examples of the introductory statement that precedes the survey for Group One (United States institutions) can be found in Appendix B and for Group Two (Sub-Saharan Advising Centers) in Appendix C.

3.4.1.6.2 Formatting of the Questions

The format of the questions that comprise the survey, be they open-ended or fixed, the length of the questions and whether or not to employ various sub-types of closed-ended questions, must be considered.

The designs of both the questionnaires for Group One and Group Two consist primarily of closed ended-questions with a list of fixed alternatives, occasionally employing an "other" response (see examples of Questionnaire for Group One in Appendix B and the Questionnaire for Group Two in Appendix C).

The advantage of closed-ended questions with a list of fixed alternatives is seen to be that it achieves uniformity of responses that would then allow for greater comparisons, as well as for ease of data entry. In addition to this, Rea and Parker (1992:53) state that the other advantages include: "provision for a fixed list of alternatives and if the respondent is unsure of the meaning of the question, the alternatives often make the question more understandable". Also, fixed questions can often remind respondents of options that they might not have considered otherwise.

The last question of each questionnaire elicits a non-structured response and allow for a "venting response", one which the respondent is asked to add in any information, details or opinions about the topic, or on items that might have been inadvertently left out of the questionnaire (Rea & Parker 1992:53).

3.4.1.6.3 Sequence of Questions

The sequence in which the questions are asked can play a major role in the research according to Rea and Parker (1992:44), who state that a questionnaire in which the questions are improperly placed can not only negatively affect the outcome of the research but also prejudice the responses, and perplex the respondents. They go on to indicate a set of guidelines for the ordering of the questions, which would result in a logical survey instrument. These are:

- *Introductory Questions.* These types of questions should begin the questionnaire and be easy to answer, eliciting simple responses of opinion or factual information, but not responses of a sensitive nature. The purpose of these questions is to capture the interest of the respondents and encourage them to complete the entire survey without "offending, threatening, confusing or boring the respondent" (Rea and Parker 1992:45).

An example of an introductory question as it pertains to this research would be:

What type of institution do you represent?

A. Two Year College _____

B. Four Year Private College or University _____

C. Four Year Public College or University _____

D. I prefer not to answer _____

- *Sensitive Questions.* Particular questions deal with sensitive issues such as gender, race and religion etc. and opinions thereof. Topics such as these could alienate the respondents and so it is suggested that these types of questions be at the end of a survey questionnaire. Two other reasons for placing these types of questions at the end of a questionnaire are that if the preceding information has been answered, it might provide enough data to work with, and secondly if a rapport has been established via the introductory questions, the respondent might continue to answer the questions even if they are of a sensitive nature.

An example of a sensitive question as it pertains to this research is:

In your opinion, what is the greatest obstacle that prospective Sub-Saharan African students face when applying to your institution?

A. Academic readiness _____

B. English proficiency _____

C. Lack of information about our institution _____

D. Funding _____

E. Visa _____

F. Other (please specify)_____

- *Related Questions.* According to Rea and Parker (1992:46) "Questionnaires generally have a certain frame of reference, as indicated by their goals and objectives". Subsequently, certain types of questions will attempt to elicit the same types of answers, and so to avoid confusion and to aid the respondents' ability to focus on that particular area of questioning prior to moving on to another, it is suggested that similar questions be grouped together. In this research, questions dealing with informational background material such as institutional size, cost and enrolment were grouped in one section while information relating to questions specifically regarding international student information were put in another section.

- *Logical Sequence.* If there is a time related or other form of logical order to the questions involved in the survey, they should be placed in an appropriate sequence, from the past to the present or the present to the past, in the case of time relation. In this research, such questions did not play a significant part of the questionnaire.

- *Reliability Checks.* In some cases, when a question is of a sensitive or divisive nature, it is recommended that the same question be asked in a different manner to verify the reliability of the respondent's answers. Since a significant amount of sensitive questions are not asked in this questionnaire, it was not felt necessary to do reliability checks within the question format.

- *Follow-up Open-Ended Questions.* As mentioned in the previous section, it is preferable to have comparatively simple, closed-ended questions whenever feasible. However, it is often the case that some information that is required will not fit into this format. Should this be the case, open-ended questions can be

added to the end of a questionnaire in such a way that they relate to or summarize the information that precedes them.

An example, as it pertains to this research, would be at the end of a questionnaire:

Do you feel your institution could do more to enroll undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa? If so, please explain how in the space provided.

_____

_____

- *Open-Ended Venting Questions.* As mentioned previously and by Rea and Parker (1992:53) "it is often useful to use one or more open-ended venting questions – ones in which the respondent is asked to add any information, comments, or opinions that pertain to the subject matter of the questionnaire but have not been addressed in it."

An example of this type of question, as it pertains to this research, and which would be placed at the end of a questionnaire, is:

Do you have any additional comments? If so, please list them below.

_____

_____

3.4.1.6.4   The Length of the Questionnaire

The entire length of the questionnaire must be evaluated with the realization in mind that the longer the survey, the lower response rate, according to Rea and Parker (1992:16). They also go on to state the questionnaire should be "as concise as possible while still covering the necessary range of subject matter required in the study" (Rea & Parker 1992:53). The temptation to add in questions that might provide interesting yet not particularly useful information must be avoided. The main concern of the length of the questionnaire has to do with the fact that should the respondent become reluctant to respond to it, due to the volume of responses required the return rate could become unnecessarily jeopardized.

The time required to respond to both questionnaires One and Two respectively, is estimated at fifteen to twenty minutes each, depending on the amount of information which needs to be located to be able to complete the survey (i.e. enrolment rates, current student population etc.).

3.4.1.6.5   Instructions for Completion of the Questionnaire

Detailed instructions should be given on how the mail-out questionnaire is to be completed, when the completion deadline is, as well as to where the completed survey should be sent (Rea & Parker 1992:77).

Also, it is recommended that responses should not be indicated by circling the correct answer, but by putting an "x" or other mark next to the desired response (Rea & Parker 1992:66) as circled responses are less easy to read. Since this questionnaire was emailed as an attachment and the instructions were to return the completed questionnaire via email, circling a response was not an appropriate method of answering as this cannot be easily done on a computer, while marking answers with an "x" or other symbol can.

3.4.1.7   Step Seven: The Pilot Study

In order to test the ability of the survey design to obtain the desired results, it is necessary to pilot the data collection tool (Rea & Parker 1992:16-17). It is hoped that during the pilot process, inappropriately or poorly worded questions will be discovered and allow the researcher to fine tune the research instrument as well as add in or delete any questions as appropriate.

In the case of the study, a pilot test was conducted for both groups.

Group One: The pilot questionnaire was sent to 1% of the working population as follows:

A. 2 pilots were sent to two-year colleges;
B. 2 pilots were sent to four-year private colleges and universities;
C. 2 pilots were sent to four-year public colleges and universities.

As a result of the findings of the pilot, the questionnaire was amended as follows: The final questionnaire was sent both as an email attachment as well as part of the main body of the email as to avoid problems in opening the document, as was reported in the pilot test. Various changes in wording were done as well as the addition of seven new questions. These questions dealt with: academic readiness, academic ability, testing results, testing requirements, testing waivers, and credential veracity. The numbering and the ordering of the questions were adjusted accordingly. A copy of the final questionnaire for Group One is included in Appendix B.

Group Two: The pilot questionnaire was mailed to one Educational Advising Center. As a result, the questionnaire was amended as follows: The same adjustment was made with regard to the email attachment as mentioned above. The questions in the final survey were rearranged slightly to give more cohesiveness to the questions in general. Three new questions were added and the numbering and ordering was adjusted accordingly. A copy of the final questionnaire for Group Two is included in Appendix C.

3.4.1.8   Step Eight: The Implementation of the Survey Instrument

As stated by Rea and Parker (1992:17) "the implementation of the survey instrument is a critical phase of the research process."

The timetable for both Survey 1 and Survey 2 were the same. The timetable was as follows:

> February 18, 2002 – Initial mailings of all questionnaires to both Group One and Group Two.
>
> March 2, 2002 – Follow-up reminders sent to members of both groups who have not responded.
>
> March 5, 2002 – Facsimile transmissions sent to all members of both groups who have not responded.
>
> March 10, 2002 – Tally of responses begun.
>
> March 14, 2002 – Tally of responses completed.

3.4.1.9 Step Nine: Codification of the Completed Questionnaires and Computerized Data Entry

Once the questionnaires have been returned to the researcher, the responses must be tallied either by hand or by computer (Rea & Parker 1992:18). The researcher must ensure that:

     A. Each response has the correct number of marked answers;

     B. There are enough appropriate entries on the survey to make the questionnaire valid;

     C. There are no inappropriate responses;

     D. All open-ended responses must be slotted into an appropriate category to enable them to be analyzed.

The collected data for this research was processed through "Excel" spreadsheets, from which tables, graphs and other statistical reporting, when appropriate, were done. Verbal descriptions of responses were also specified.

3.4.1.10 Step Ten: Data Analysis and the Final Report

The analysis of the data and the final report are the subjects of Chapters Four and Five respectively.

3.5 SUMMARY

Chapter 3 begins with an explanation of basic educational research methodology. The focus of the research, the type of data required and from where that data could be collected is discussed. Based on the type of research being conducted in this dissertation, that of survey research, it was necessary to select sample groups. The method by which these groups were formed as well as the justification for doing so and the size of those samples is contained in this chapter. The concept of quantitative data was explained and the procedures necessary to collect data that was both reliable and valid was covered. The various procedures for data collection were mentioned and the format in which data for this dissertation will accrue was discussed.

A summation which included: the focus of the research, the type of data required, the source of data, the type of collection used to acquire data as well as the tool for the data collection, concluded this section of the chapter.

Survey research, the basis for the research involved in this dissertation, is covered in length in section four of this chapter. The steps followed in the creation of the survey tool were discussed along with the justification of each step.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

"Obviously, a man's judgment cannot be better than the information on which he has based it"

Arthur Hays Sulzberger (1891-1968)

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Up to this point in the dissertation, the focus has been of an explanatory nature. Chapters One, Two and Three dealt with an introduction to the study, the problem statement and the purpose, the terminology, a literature review, and the methodology of the research to be conducted.

This chapter deals with a new focus, one with revelatory characteristics. The findings of both questionnaires are presented with comments where appropriate and then discussed in relation to each other.

The first section deals with the finding of Survey 1, the second section with the findings of Survey 2 and the third section with the juxtaposition of the two. Tables and Figures are used where necessary to illustrate the findings of the survey.

4.2   THE FINDINGS OF SURVEY 1

Group One consisted of an equal distribution of two-year community colleges, four-year private colleges and four-year public colleges. A total of 594 questionnaires were sent out to Group One, the working population of which can be found in Appendix A-1, which also indicates which specific institutions responded, and their geographical location.

The total number of returned questionnaires numbered 173, with four-year public colleges responding in the majority and two-year community colleges in the minority as is illustrated in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1   **Response Rate of Colleges**

Responses by Institution Type	Community College	Four-year Private College	Four-year Public College	Total
	48 Responses	57 Responses	68 Responses	173 Responses
Response Rate	24%	29%	35%	Overall Response Rate 29%

The overall response rate of 29% was less than what was hoped for, despite follow-up emails and faxes, but well within the range considered acceptable by NCS Pearson, Inc., (1997) and as indicated in Chapter 3 (cf 3.4.1.5), and is considered adequate for reliable conclusions to be drawn from the information provided by the survey.

4.2.1   Size and Cost of Institutions

Table 4.2 deals with the size of the undergraduate enrolment of the various institutions.

Table 4.2   **Size of Undergraduate Enrolment**

Enrolment	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. 1-999	23%	24%	3%
B. 1,000 - 3,999	36%	55%	25%
C. 4,000 - 9,999	30%	16%	42%
D. 10,000 - 14,999	2%	5%	11%
E. 15,000 and over	9%	0%	19%
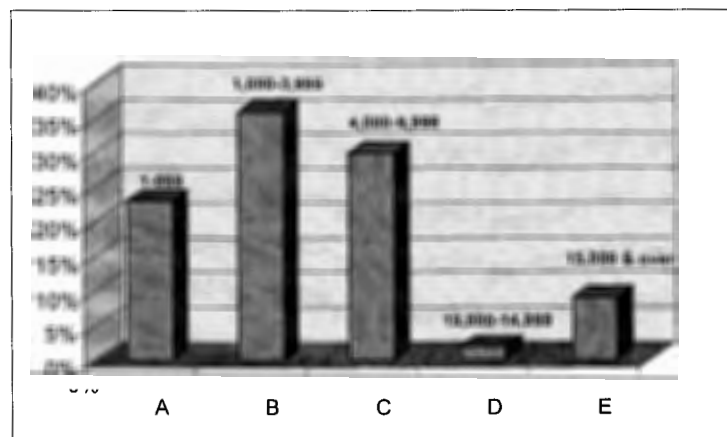
Figure 4.1

Size of Community Colleges
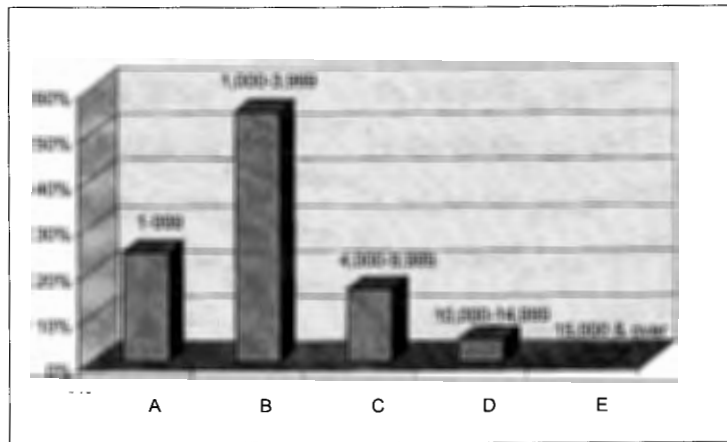
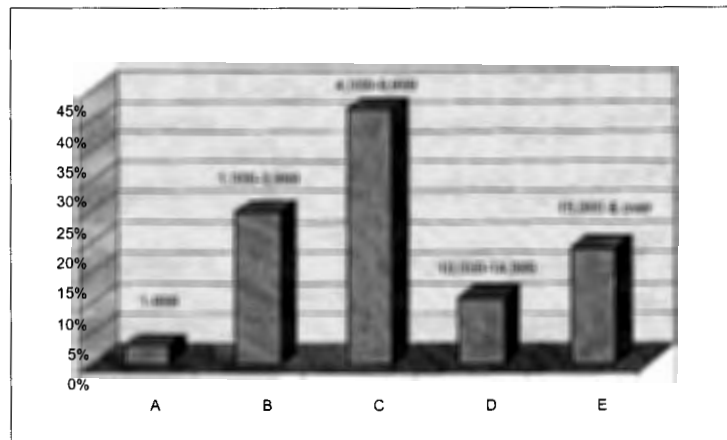Figure 4.2

Size of Four-Year Private Colleges

Figure 4.3

Size of Four-Year Public Colleges

The majority of the institutions reported being small to medium sized (cf Chapter 2), with only the community colleges and four-year public colleges reporting any substantial amount of what would be termed as "large" campuses (15,000 and over).

Table 4.3 illustrates the cost of attendance, including tuition, fees, room and board for international undergraduate students.

Table 4.3   **Approximate Cost of Full Academic Year**

Costs of Attendance	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. $1,000 - $9,999	40%	3%	3%
B. $10,000 - $14,999	33%	13%	27%
C. $15,000 – $19,999	23%	15%	51%
D. $20,000 - $24,999	2%	28%	12%
E. $25,000 - $29,999	0%	21%	7%
F. $30,000 - $34,999	0%	17%	0%
G. $35,000 and above	2%	3%	0%
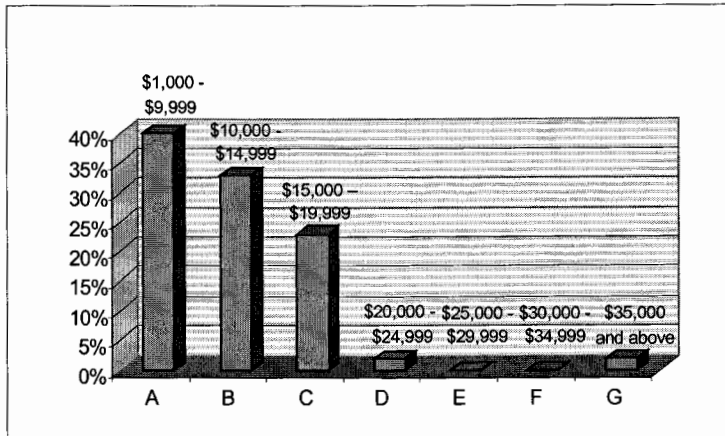
Figure 4.4

Cost of Attendance at Community Colleges
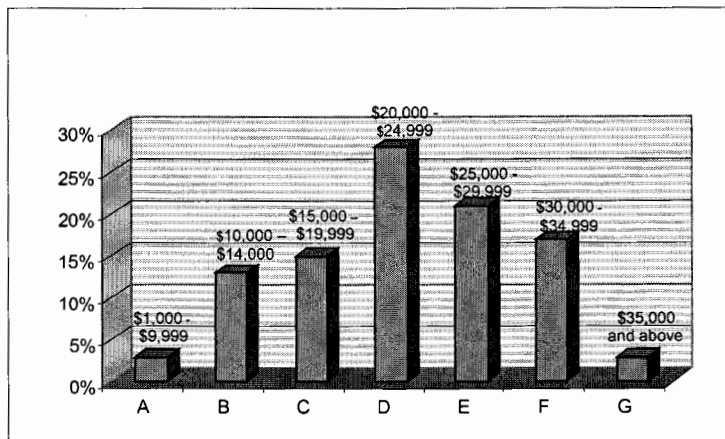
Figure 4.5

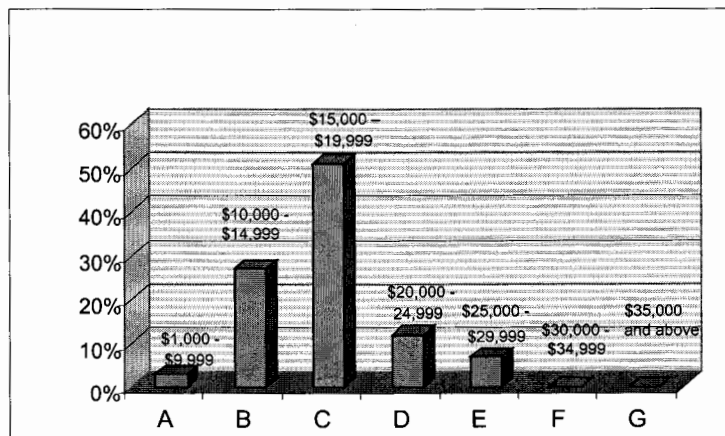**Cost of Attendance at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.6

Cost of Attendance at Four-Year Public Colleges

The above chart and graphs show that, as expected, the overall cost at a community college is by far the cheapest with the cost of the four-year private institution being the highest.

4.2.2 International Student Population and the Sub-Saharan African Student Population

Table 4.4 illustrates the percentage of international students in the total enrolment.

Table 4.4 **Percentage of International Students**

% of international students	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. 0 – 1%	61%	13%	29%
B. 1% - 2%	19%	11%	29%
C. 2% - 5%	6%	30%	33%
D. 5 % - 10%	10%	30%	9%
E. Over 10%	4%	16%	0%
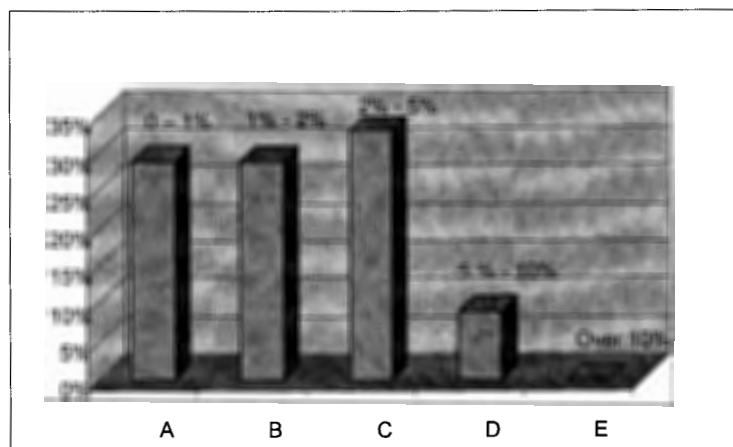
Figure 4.7

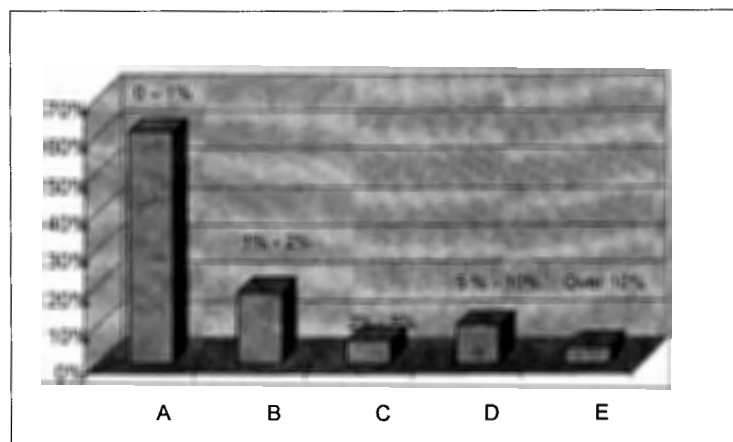**Percentage of International Students at Community Colleges**

Figure 4.8

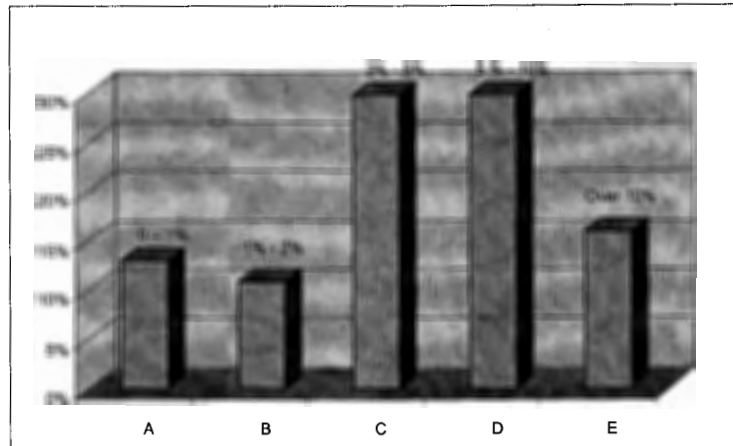**Percentage of International Students at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.9

Percentage of International Students at Four-Year Public Colleges

The largest majority of international students on any of the campuses is at the four-year private institutions, 60% of which reported that they have between 2-10% international students on their campuses. Community colleges reported having the least amount of international students in that 61% stated that they had 0-1% international students on campus.

Table 4.5 illustrates the number of international students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 4.5   **Percentage of International Students from Sub-Saharan Africa**

% of international students from Sub-Saharan Africa	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
0 – 1%	75%	44%	55%
1% - 2%	9%	13%	10%
2% - 5%	2%	10%	10%
5 % - 10%	6%	8%	7%
Over 10%	4%	25%	11%
I don't know	4%	0%	7%

From the table above, it is evident that the four-year private colleges have the greatest representation of Sub-Saharan students, with 25% of private institutions reporting that over 10% of their international students are from Sub-Saharan Africa, while community colleges report that 75% of their institutions have 0-1% of their international student body originating from Sub-Saharan Africa. This agrees with the responses shown in Table 4.4. Various factors could contribute to this finding; however, the primary reason is most likely that of funding, as private institutions are

considered to have the most funding of all institutions. Community colleges are also not considered to be residential colleges in that very few of them have housing for international students.

4.2.3   The Impact of Location and the Availability of Housing

Table 4.6 dealt with the impact of the institution's geographical location.

Table 4.6   **Impact of Geographical Location on Attendance of Students from Sub-Saharan Africa**

Opinion on Location	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Positive impact	36%	43%	40%
Negative impact	26%	29%	33%
No impact at all	38%	28%	27%

The results show that the negative/positive/no impact is fairly evenly distributed across all institutional types.

Table 4.7 dealt with the availability of on-campus housing (cf Chapter Two 2.3.1.8).

Table 4.7   **Availability of Housing for International Students**

Housing Availability	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes, during the academic year only	23%	41%	37%
Yes, during the academic year as well as during breaks and summer	21%	52%	53%
No, our campus has no housing for international students	56%	7%	10%

As expected, the community colleges, which were not designed to be residential in nature, have the least amount of housing in all categories, while the four-year private and four-year public institutions are very similar in their responses.

4.2.4   Enrolment Patterns and Plans for Future Enrolment

Table 4.8 demonstrates the enrolment patterns of Sub-Saharan African students during the period of 1991 to 2001.

Table 4.8   **Enrolment Pattern of Sub-Saharan African Students**

for the Period 1991-2001

Answer Options	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Increased	35%	50%	36%
Decreased	7%	3%	12%
Remained the same	35%	28%	28%
I don't know	23%	19%	24%

50% of the four-year private colleges reported an increase in the enrolment of students from Sub-Saharan Africa for this period. 35% of Community colleges and 36% four-year public colleges reported that enrolment had increased in this period.

Table 4.9 dealt with plans to increase future enrolment of Sub-Saharan African students.

Table 4.9   **Plans to Increase Enrolment of Sub-Saharan African Students**

Plans to increase enrolment	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	19%	36%	49%
No	48%	39%	24%
I don't know	33%	25%	27%

The institutions that do have plans to increase Sub-Saharan African enrolment by a strong majority are the four-year public institutions, but even so, with these institutions, only 49% intend to do so.

4.2.5   Funding Issues

Table 4.10 deals with the funding of international students based on merit.

Table 4.10   **Funding Based on Merit for International Students**

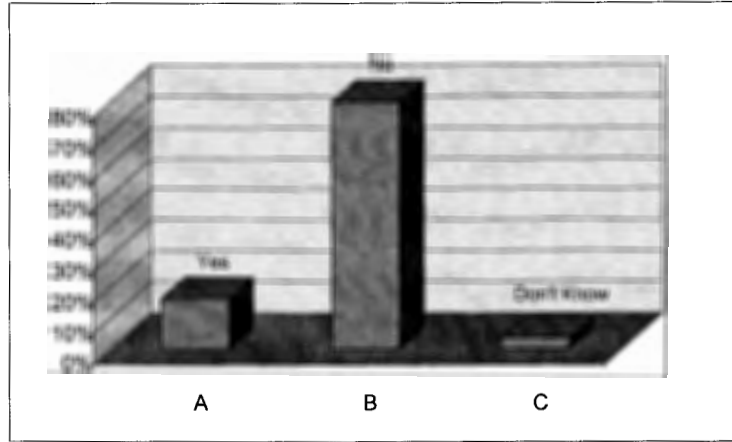| Merit Funding	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Yes	16%	68%	57%
B. No	80%	32%	43%
C. I don't know	4%	0%	0%

Figure 4.10

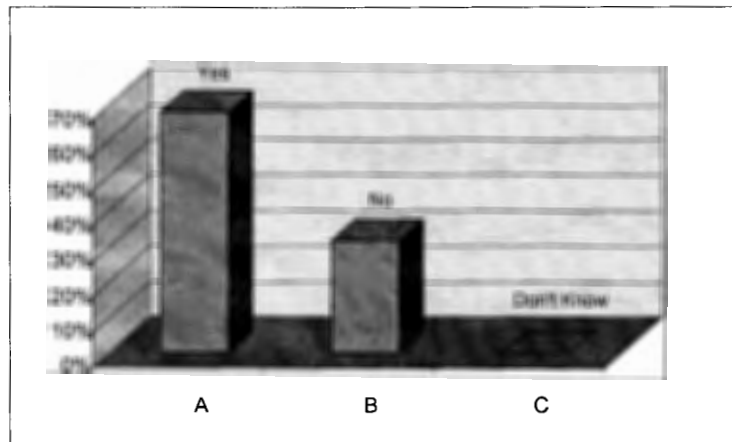**Provision for Merit Funding at Community Colleges**

Figure 4.11

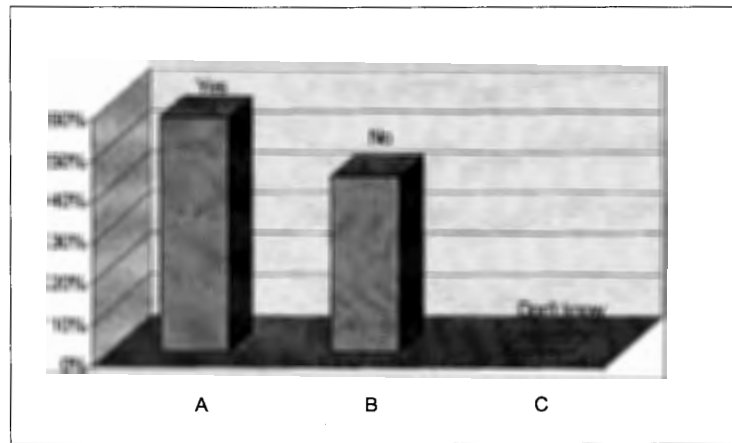**Provision for Merit Funding at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.12

Provision for Merit Funding at Four-Year Public Colleges

An overwhelming majority of the community colleges (80%) offer no merit funding, while 57% of the four-year public colleges and 68% of private four-year colleges do provide funding based on merit.

Table 4.11 illustrates the funding available for international students based on need.

Table 4.11 **Funding for International Students Based on Need**

Funding	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	15%	47%	22%
No	85%	53%	75%
I don't know	0%	0%	3%

The majority of community colleges (85%) do not have funding for international students based on need. Similarly, three quarters (75%) of four-year public colleges do not provide such funding. Less than half of private colleges (47%) provide funding based on need.

Table 4.12 deals with institutions that provide funding which would cover the entire cost of attendance (tuition, fees, accommodation).

Table 4.12 **Provision of Funding to Cover Entire Cost of College Attendance**

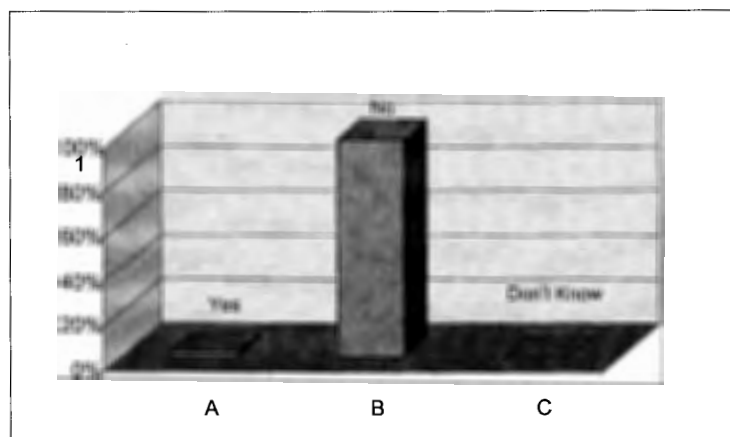| Entire Funding	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Yes	2%	16%	10%
B. No	98%	84%	90%
C. I don't know	0%	0%	0%

Figure 4.13

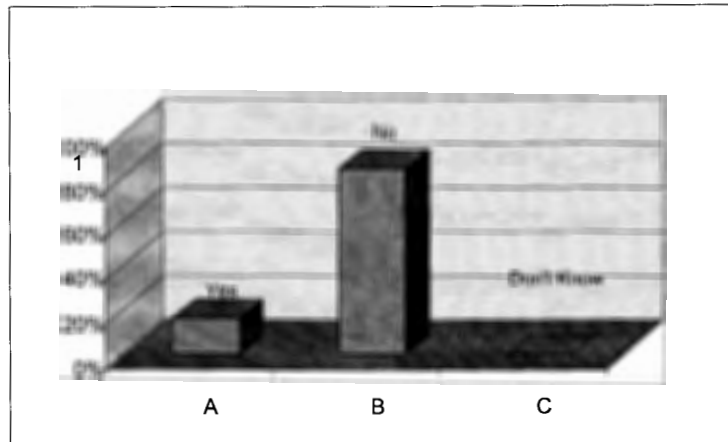**Availability of Funding to Cover Entire Cost at Community Colleges**

Figure 4.14

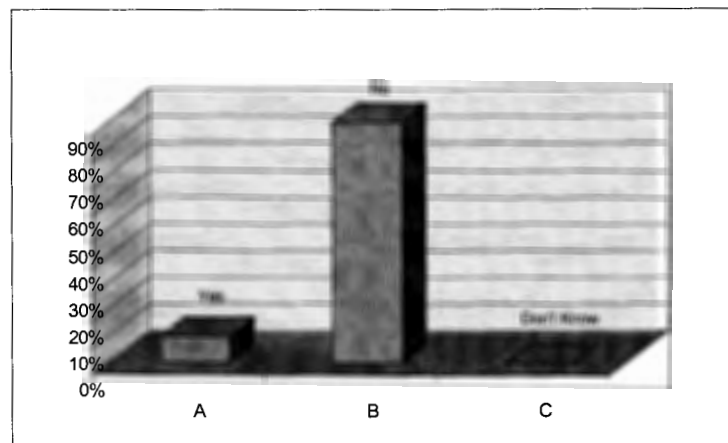**Availability of Funding to Cover Entire Cost at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.15

Availability of Funding to Cover Entire Cost at Four-Year Public Colleges

The overwhelming majority of institutions responded that they do not have full funding for international students. An additional comment was made by a four-year public institution to indicate that although they do have funding for international students that would cover the full cost of attendance, the funding is for athletes only. The largest percentage of full funding was reported by four-year private institutions (16%).

Table 4.13 dealt specifically with funding based on the student's geographical origin.

Table 4.13   **Specific Funding Based on Geographical Origin**

Funding based on geography	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	4%	13%	9%
No	96%	87%	91%
I don't know	0%	0%	0%

An overwhelming majority of institutions reported that they do not have funding for international students based on their geographical origin with 96% of community colleges, 87% of four-year public colleges and 91% of four-year private colleges stating that they had no such funding available.

Question 15 was an open-ended question that asked if an institution did have funding for specific geographical areas to list them. From the twelve responses received, indications were that only four-year private and public institutions provide funding for students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

4.2.6   Influence of Ability to Pay

Table 4.14 dealt with the influence on the admission decision based on the international student's ability to pay.

Table 4.14   **Influence of Ability to Pay on Admission Decision**

Admission based on ability to pay	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
None at all	12%	45%	51%
Some	31%	37%	21%
Admission is based entirely on ability to pay	57%	18%	27%
I don't know	0%	0%	1%

As has been the pattern in the answers to a number of the previous questions, the ability to pay is critical amongst the community colleges (57%), but is of less importance amongst the four-year private and public institutions where 18% of four-year private institutions and 27% of public institutions noted that admission was based entirely on ability to pay.

These statistics, however, are slightly misleading in that some institutions reported by means of additional written comments that although ability to pay is not considered in the admission decision, once the student is admitted, he or she will not be issued the I-20 (cf 1.6) until they can prove ability to pay the entire first year's fees. Other institutions will require a Certificate of Finance when considering a student for admission. A more complete explanation of this process is covered in 4.2.13.

Table 4.15 illustrated the willingness to waive the application fee for international students.

Table 4.15   **Willingness to Waive Application Fee for International Students**

Application fee waiver	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
No	68%	36%	79%
Yes	17%	59%	17%
I don't know	0%	2%	0%
We don't have an application fee	15%	3%	4%

Of the respondents, the largest majority of institutions reporting that they would waive the application fee is found in the four-year private category (59%), with the community colleges (68%) and the four-year public colleges (79%) showing a reluctance to do so. The fact that more four-year private institutions are willing to waive the application fee would make it financially easier for international students to apply to four-year private colleges and could influence international students to do so.

Table 4.16 dealt with an institution's willingness to consider fully funding international students.

Table 4.16   **Willingness to Fully Fund Students From Sub-Saharan Africa**

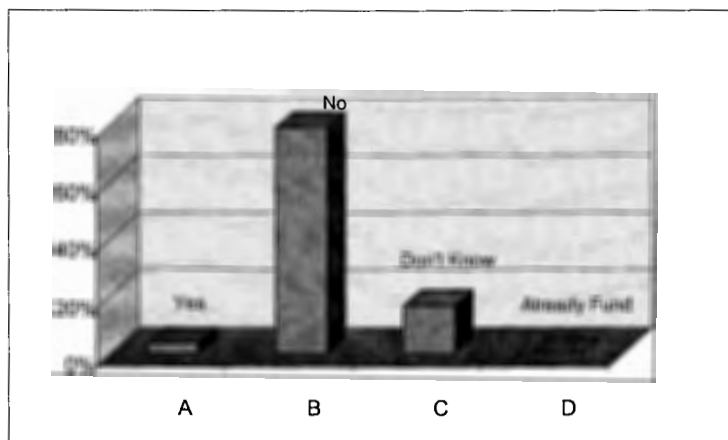| Willingness to Fully Fund	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Yes	4%	2%	3%
B. No	79%	72%	69%
C. Don't Know	17%	16%	21%
D. We already fully fund international students	0%	10%	7%

Figure 4.16

**Willingness to Consider Fully Funding International Students
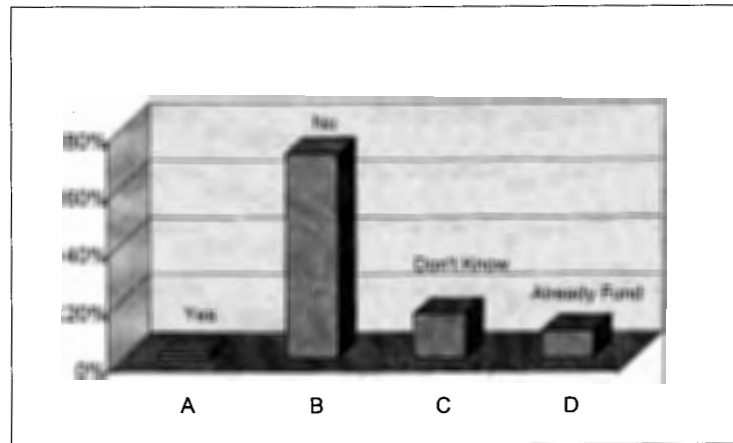at Community Colleges**

Figure 4.17

**Willingness to Consider Fully Funding International Students
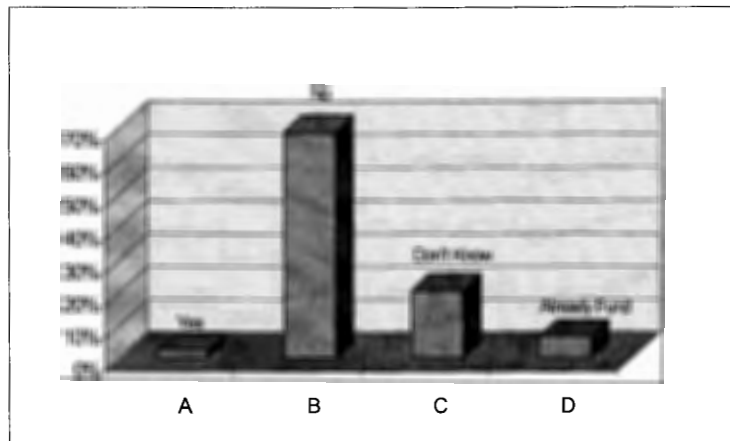at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.18

**Willingness to Consider Fully Funding International Students
at Four-Year Public Colleges**

An overall majority reported that if they do not already offer full funding to
international students that they would not be willing to consider this in the future.

4.2.7 Admission Requirements

Table 4.17 dealt with standardized exams that are required for admission of
international students at the various institutions (cf 2.3, 2.5.1, 2.5.3).

Table 4.17   **Required Exams for Admission**

Required exams	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
SAT I	10%	31%	25%
SAT I and II	0%	8%	3%
TOEFL	79%	56%	69%
Other	11%	5%	3%

The majority of community colleges (79%), private colleges (56%) and public colleges (69%) require the TOEFL (cf 1.6). From these findings, it is evident that the international student's proficiency regarding the English language is of great concern to all institutions.

Table 4.18 illustrates an institution's willingness to waive the TOEFL requirement if the student can provide proof that he/she is has acceptable English ability.

Table 4.18   **Willingness to Waive the TOEFL Requirement Based**

on English Ability

Waive the TOEFL	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	72%	82%	83%
No	18%	15%	15%
Not Applicable	10%	3%	2%

The majority of community colleges (72%), private colleges (82%) and public colleges (85%) would waive the requirement of the TOEFL exam if a student could supply them with acceptable proof that he/she is proficient in English. Of the institutions that would not waive the TOEFL, the largest number of respondents fell into the community college category (18%).

Table 4.19 dealt with the results of standardized exams received from Sub-Saharan students.

Table 4.19   **Results of Standardized Exams**

| Results of Standardized Exams of Sub-Saharan Students	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Extremely competitive, in the top 1% of all applicants	0%	2%	1%
B. Very strong, in the top 5% of all applicants	0%	5%	7%
C. Strong results, in the top 10% of all applicants	0%	14%	11%
D. Average results	42%	53%	41%
E. Below average results	0%	10%	4%
F. This does not apply to our institution as we require no admission tests	42%	11%	14%
G. Don't Know	0%	5%	14%
H. No Response	16%	5%	8%
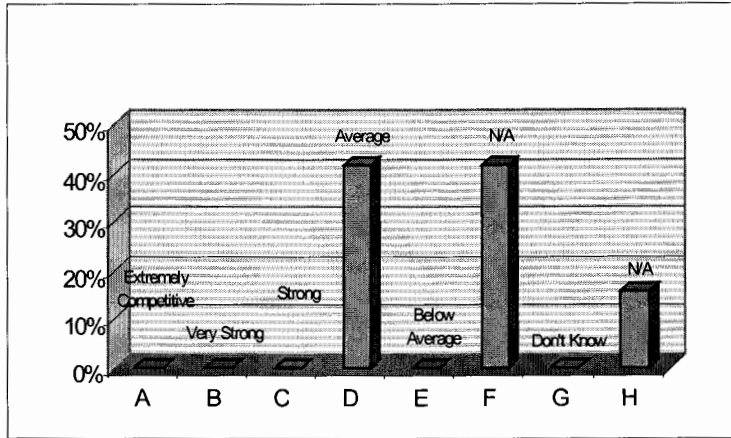
Figure 4.19

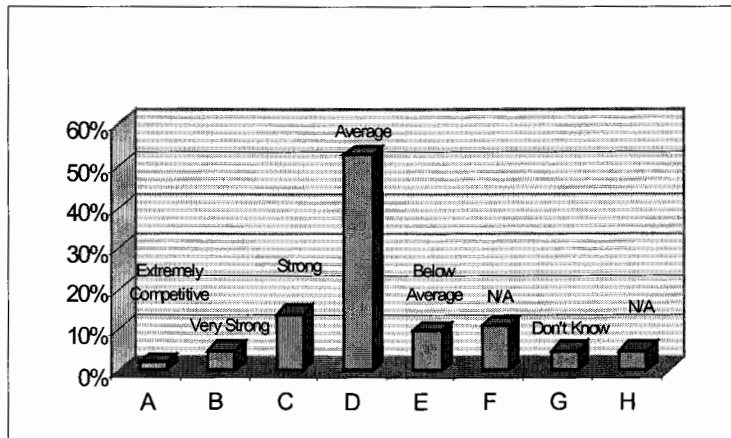**Test Results from Sub-Saharan Students at Community Colleges**

Figure 4.20

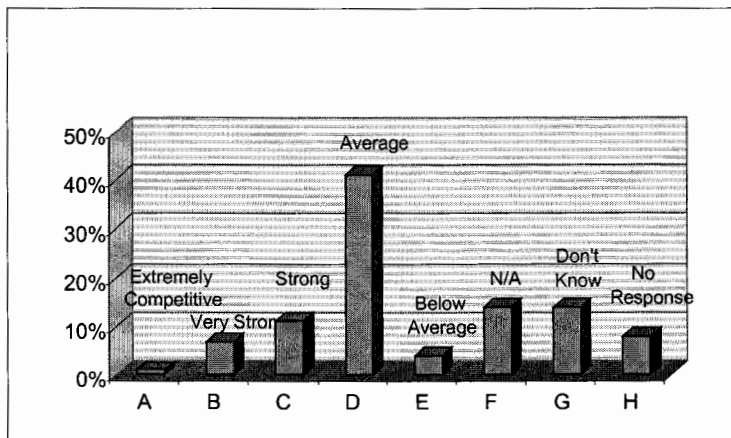**Test Results from Sub-Saharan Students at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.21

Test Results from Sub-Saharan Students at Four-Year Public Colleges

The "no-response" rate of community colleges (16%) is extremely high as shown in Figure 4.19. This could be because a large majority of community colleges do not require any type of standardized admission exam other than the TOEFL (cf Table 4.17). Another reason could be the respondents feel that this is a sensitive question and so chose not to answer, as the "no response" rate from private colleges (5%) and public colleges (8%) are also significant.

The majority of responses at private colleges (53%) and public colleges (41%) place the results of standardized exams in the average category.

Table 4.20 deals with the high school academic results of Sub-Saharan students.

Table 4.20   **High School Academic Results of Sub-Saharan Students**

Results of High School Academics	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Extremely competitive, in the top 1% of all applicants	0%	2%	3%
Very strong, in the top 5% of all applicants	0%	11%	7%
Strong results, in the top 10% of all applicants	6%	13%	19%
Average results	51%	62%	44%
Below average results	11%	5%	1%
Don't Know	0%	5%	13%
No Response	32%	2%	13%

Once again, as was the case in Table 4.19, the majority of responses appeared in the average category, with community colleges (51%), private colleges (62%) and public colleges (44%) reporting this to be the result. The fact that the Sub-Saharan applicant's test and high school results both fall into the "average category" must directly affect his or her ability to compete for funding based on merit, i.e. funding that requires proof of extremely competitive grades and test scores. If the average category was reported only in the high school grades section then it could be strongly argued that the transcripts were not evaluated correctly. However, since average results were reported in both the test score category as well, a logical conclusion is that applicants from the Sub-Saharan area are not as academically prepared as their counterparts from other regions. An alternative line of reasoning could be that the

standardized exams do not reflect the true ability of the Sub-Saharan test takers. This interpretation is elaborated on further in Section 4.4.6.

Again, as shown in Table 4.19, there was a significant percentage of "no response" from the community colleges (32%) and to a lesser extent from the private colleges (13%). Since academic records are required from all institutions for admission purposes, then it would seem that certain institutions believe that is question is of a confidential or sensitive nature and chose not to respond.

4.2.8 Rankings of Important Factors in the Admission Process

Table 4.21 illustrates the level of importance institutions place on the various admission factors, such as English proficiency, high school results, standardized testing, ability to pay, extra curricular involvement and essays. Respondents were presented with six possible rankings for each factor; however, only rankings from 1st to 3rd in importance are tabulated. Therefore, the totals do not add to 100%.

Table 4.21 **Ranking of Admission Factors**

Admission Factors	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. English proficiency			
1. Ranked 1st in importance	52%	33%	32%
2. Ranked 2nd in importance	30%	24%	38%
3. Ranked 3rd in importance	9%	31%	23%
B. Strong academic ability based on high school transcripts			
1. Ranked 1st in importance	17%	61%	56%
2. Ranked 2nd in importance	42%	33%	31%
3. Ranked 3rd in importance	29%	3%	13%
C. Strong academic ability based on standardized admissions tests			
1. Ranked 1st in importance	9%	9%	18%
2. Ranked 2nd in importance	9%	49%	25%
3. Ranked 3rd in importance	27%	24%	37%
D. Ability to pay			
1. Ranked 1st in importance	57%	23%	7%
2. Ranked 2nd in importance	24%	3%	23%
3. Ranked 3rd in importance	13%	33%	30%
E. Extra curricular involvement			
1. Ranked 1st in importance	0%	0%	0%
2. Ranked 2nd in importance	8%	0%	0%
3. Ranked 3rd in importance	8%	14%	20%

F. Essays			
1. Ranked 1st in importance	0%	3%	0%
2. Ranked 2nd in importance	0%	3%	0%
3. Ranked 3rd in importance	10%	19%	11%

Community colleges rank the ability to pay as the most important factor (57%) when considering applicants from Sub-Saharan Africa, closely followed, as was reflected in Table 4.17 by English proficiency (52%). Four-year private and public institutions, however, regard academic performance, measured by high school transcripts (61% and 56% respectively) to be of first importance, while community colleges rank this third (42%). This could be a result of the fact that the level of academic competitiveness at community colleges is not as high as other types of institutions and many community colleges have "open admission" policies, that is, they will accept anyone who applies, as commented on by community colleges in an additional comment.

Additional specific comments made by respondents on this question included other factors such as religious affiliation, athletic ability if applying for athletic scholarships, as well as the comment that the ability to pay is not an admission decision criterion, in that only after the admission decision is made, based on the institution's other specific admission requirements, must the student prove adequate financial resources in order to attend the institution.

4.2.9   Visa Issues

Table 4.22 deals with the difficulty in obtaining a visa once an admission letter and an I-20 are issued by the college.

Table 4.22   **Difficulty Experienced by Students from Sub-Saharan Africa in Obtaining a Visa**

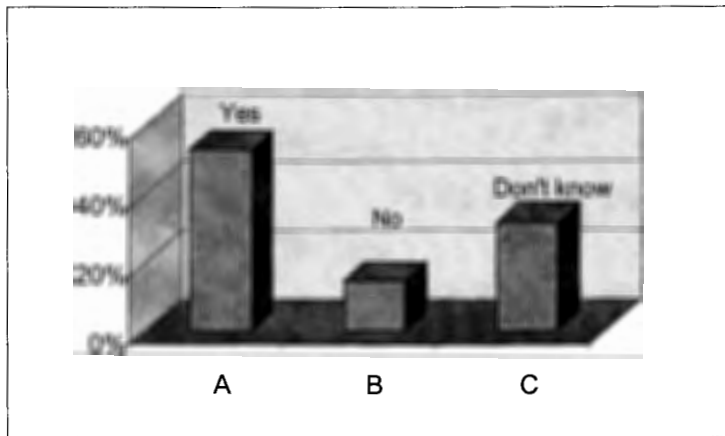| Difficulty in Obtaining a Visa	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Yes	53%	38%	56%
B. No	15%	47%	17%
C. I don't know	32%	15%	27%

Figure 4.22

Visa Difficulties at Community Colleges
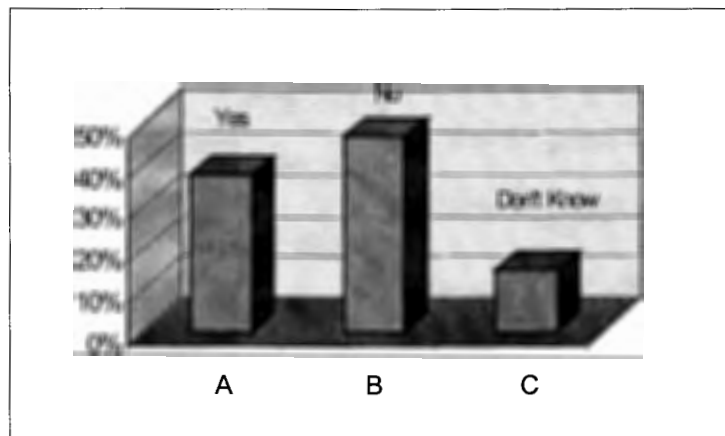

Figure 4.23

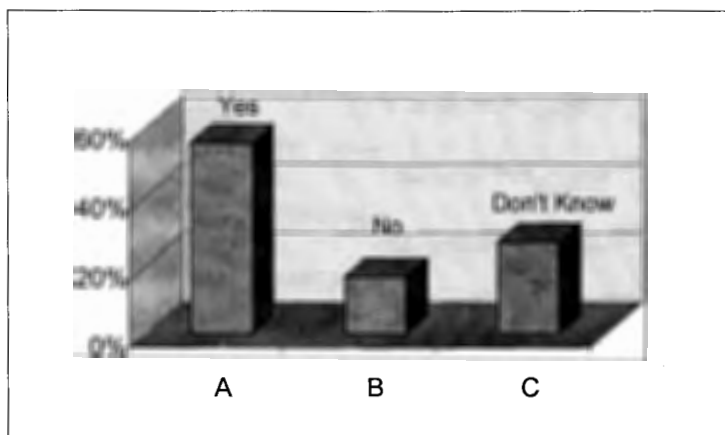**Visa Difficulties at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.24

Visa Difficulties at Four-Year Public Colleges

As illustrated in the figures and tables above, community colleges (53%) and the four-year public colleges (56%) experience the greatest difficulties. Additional comments from all institutions stated that visas were often canceled or delayed once a student had been sent his or her admission papers. Four- year private colleges also indicate a fairly high level of difficulty with visas (38%). Visa issuance, as discussed in Chapter 2, relates directly to the percentage of United States visa holders who return to their country of origin. Sub-Saharan Africa has what is considered to be a very high non-return rate, and hence, visa issuance becomes more difficult (Weed pers.comm. 2002).

4.2.10 Marketing, Recruitment, Exchange Programs and the Role of Educational Advising Centers

Table 4.23 deals with how institutions market themselves to students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 4.23   **Marketing by Colleges to Sub-Saharan African Students**

Marketing Practices	Community Colleges	Four-year Private College	Four-year Public Colleges
We Don't	38%	16%	22%
Via mailings to Educational Advising Centers throughout the world	11%	28%	24%
Via the Internet (World Wide Web home pages)	51%	40%	42%
College Fairs/Faculty travel outside the United States	0%	15%	12%
I don't know	0%	1%	0%

The most prevalent means of marketing was the Internet in the case of all institutions. However, less than half of the private colleges (40%) as well as less than half of the public colleges (42%) use this means to market themselves to Sub-Saharan African students. This trend is covered in more depth in Table 4.27.

Additional comments from institutions mentioned that they also advertise in magazines, do direct mailings to schools and students and use international schools based abroad to assist them in the promotion of their institution.

Table 4.24 illustrates the willingness to recruit an equal diversity of international students.

Table 4.24   **Attempts at Equal Diversity in Recruitment Efforts**

of International Students

Attempts Diversity	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	22%	36%	45%
No	67%	56%	48%
I don't know	11%	8%	7%

The majority of community colleges (67%), private colleges (56%) and public colleges (48%) do not attempt to recruit an equal geographical diversity of international students. However, at the four-year public institutions (45%) and to a lesser extent at the four-year private colleges (36%), a sizable percentage of institutions report that they do attempt to do so. A factor, which could be relevant to the large negative response rate, is that recruiting does not come free. Staff must be employed to manage recruitment and institutions must have specific budgets designed to support such an endeavor. This topic is addressed in more depth in the discussion of Tables 4.23 and 4.33.

Table 4.25 illustrates the availability of exchange programs between United States institutions and Sub-Saharan African institutions.

Table 4.25   **Availability of Exchange Programs**

Exchange Programs	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	0%	18%	31%
No	98%	73%	59%
I don't know	2%	9%	10%

Few institutions offer exchange programs at the undergraduate level. Various factors could contribute to this high negative response rate, such as the lack of information regarding Sub-Saharan African institutions with which one could form exchange agreements, as well as program personnel within the United States institutions that would be able to set up such a program. Of all institutions, four-year public institutions (31%) report the largest percentage of exchange programs with Sub-Saharan African countries.

Table 4.26 illustrates the interest in recruiting more students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 4.26   **Interest in Recruiting More Students from Sub-Saharan Africa**

Recruiting Interest	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	44%	61%	70%
No	34%	16%	12%
I don't know	22%	23%	18%

Four-year public colleges show strong interest (70%), decreasing to a fairly strong interest (61%) by four-year private colleges and decreasing yet further to an average interest (44%) by community colleges. Factors that relate to this issue also found in the discussion of the last segment of this questionnaire in Section 4.2.13 The main issue that influences a decision to recruit more students from this area is funding, or the lack of it, on the part of the applicants, as well as the inability of United States institutions to offer more in the way of scholarships or financial aid.

Table 4.27 deals with the use of the Internet to disseminate information regarding application materials and procedures.

Table 4.27   **Use of the Internet to Disseminate Information on**

Application Materials and Procedures

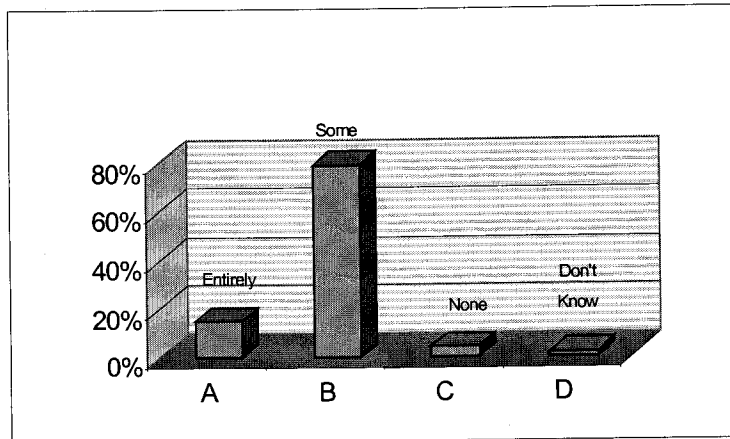| Internet Use	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Entirely	15%	18%	26%
B. Some	79%	82%	72%
C. None	4%	0%	0%
D. Don't Know	2%	0%	2%

Figure 4.25

Use of Internet for Information at Community Colleges

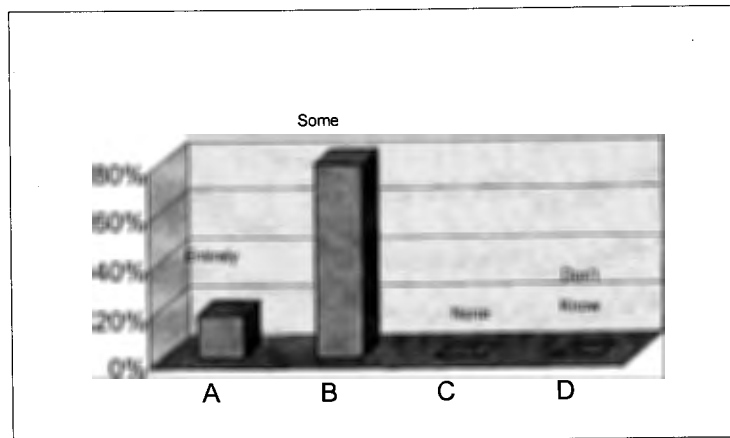Figure 4.26

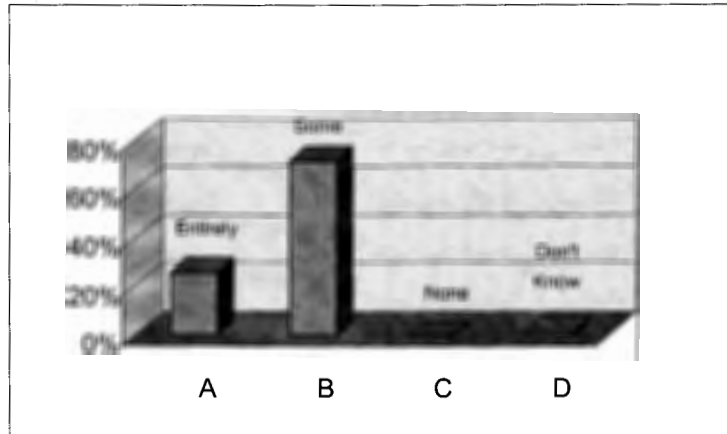**Use of Internet for Information at Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.27

Use of Internet for Information at Four-Year Public Colleges

The majority of all institutions report at least some reliance on the Internet for providing information regarding their institutions to international students. Only 4% of community colleges report that they do not use the Internet at all, with public and private colleges reporting 0% in the "none" category. This finding clearly indicates that students who do not have access to the Internet are severely handicapped in accessing information on United States institutions.

Table 4.28 deals with institution's knowledge of Educational Advising Centers.

Table 4.28 **Awareness of Educational Advising Centers**

Based Outside the United States

Awareness of Advising Centers	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	66%	89%	93%
No	34%	11%	7%

The majority of four-year private institutions (89%) and four-year public institutions (93%) indicate an awareness of Educational Advising Centers (cf 1.6), with community colleges reporting the largest (34%) amount of unfamiliarity.

Educational Advising Centers, as outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, exist solely for the purpose of promoting United States education to foreign nationals. Lack of awareness of these offices limits the institutions ability to market themselves for little or no cost.

4.2.11 Evaluation of Credentials

Table 4.29 deals with the method by which the institutions evaluate foreign credentials.

Table 4.29 **Methods Used to Evaluate Credentials from International Students**

Answer Options	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
In-house evaluation	49%	62%	65%
Independent evaluation	49%	25%	31%
Educational Advising Services	2%	13%	4%

The majority of four-year private (62%) and public institutions (65%) use in-house evaluators, followed by independent evaluators. Only 2% of the community colleges, 13% of the private colleges and 4% of the public colleges use Educational Advising Centers. As the responses to Table 4.28 indicated that the majority of institutions were aware of Educational Advising Centers, the small percentage of institutions that avail themselves of these services at Educational Advising Services may be due to the fact that they are not aware of the fact that Educational Advisers based outside the United States can provide this service at no cost, unlike independent evaluators, which all charge a fee.

Table 4.30 deals with the understanding of foreign credentials.

Table 4.30 **Understanding of Foreign Credentials by the Admission Department**

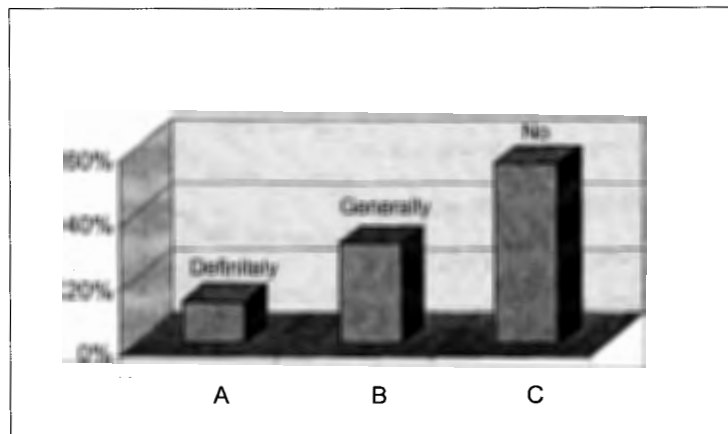| Credential Understanding	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Definitely	13%	17%	41%
B. Generally	31%	68%	46%
C. No	56%	15%	13%

Figure 4.28   **Credential Understanding at Community Colleges**
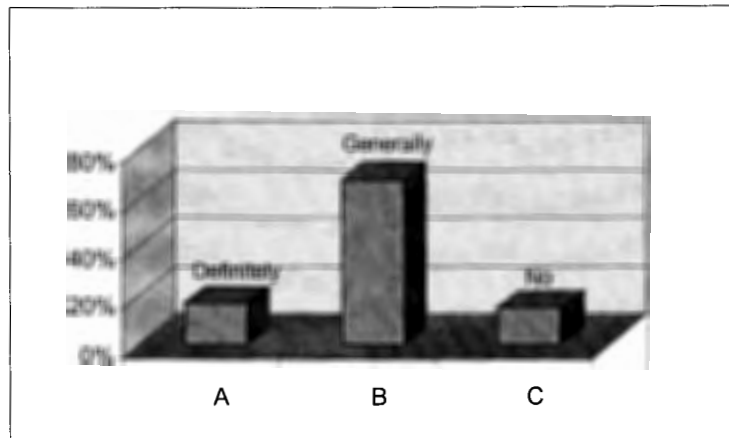
Figure 4.29   **Credential Understanding at Four-Year Private Colleges**
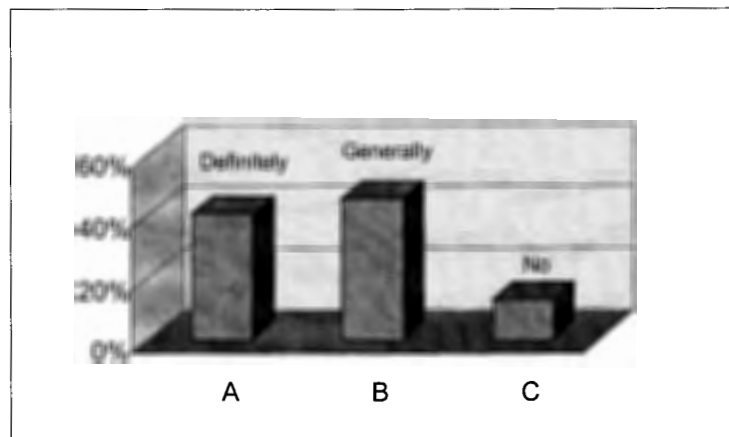

Figure 4.30   **Credential Understanding at Four-Year Public Colleges**

While the largest percentage of four-year private (68%) and public institutions (46%) believe that they generally do have a good understanding of foreign credentials, the majority of community colleges (56%) believe they do not. If the majority of four-year private and public institutions do their own credential evaluations, as indicated in Table 4.29, yet a substantial amount of these institutions believe that they do not have a strong understanding of these same credentials, the validity of the statements given in Table 4.20 (high school results) gives cause for concern.

Table 4.31 deals with authenticity of the credentials submitted by Sub-Saharan students.

Table 4.31   **Occasion to Question the Authenticity of Credentials Submitted by Sub-Saharan African Students**

Question Authenticy of Credentials	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
No	18%	6%	4%
Occasionally	33%	73%	65%
Fairly Often	7%	3%	6%
Regularly	2%	0%	6%
Don't Know	40%	18%	19%

Over two-thirds of private (73%) and public (65%) colleges occasionally question the veracity of credentials submitted by Sub-Saharan students. Even if an institution "occasionally" has instances where credentials from a given country have proven to be fraudulent, the reputation of that country's students will be negatively affected.

4.2.12 Obstacles and the Institution's Role in Overcoming Them

Table 4.32 deals with what the institutions perceive to be the greatest obstacles that Sub-Saharan African students face when attempting to study in the United States.

Table 4.32   **Greatest Obstacles that Sub-Saharan Students Face**

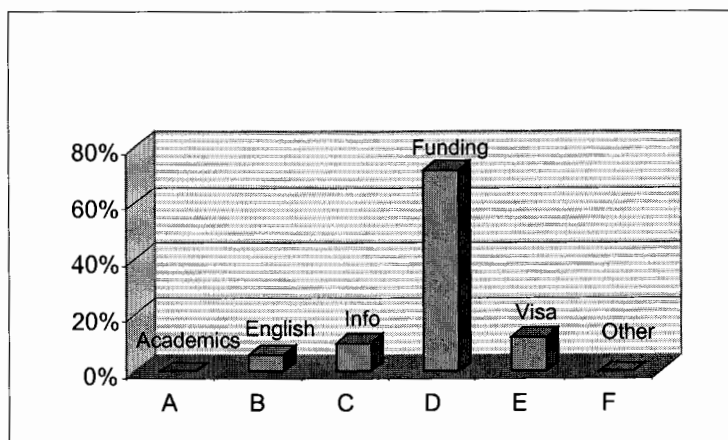| Obstacles Facing Sub-Saharan Students	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
A. Academic readiness	0%	2%	3%
B. English proficiency	6%	0%	3%
C. Lack of information about our institution	10%	5%	7%
D. Funding	72%	90%	81%
E. Visa	12%	3%	6%

Figure 4.31

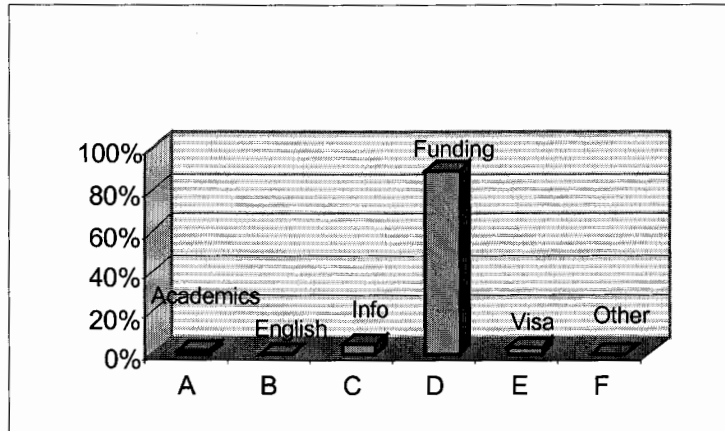**Greatest Obstacle in Applying to Community Colleges**

Figure 4.32

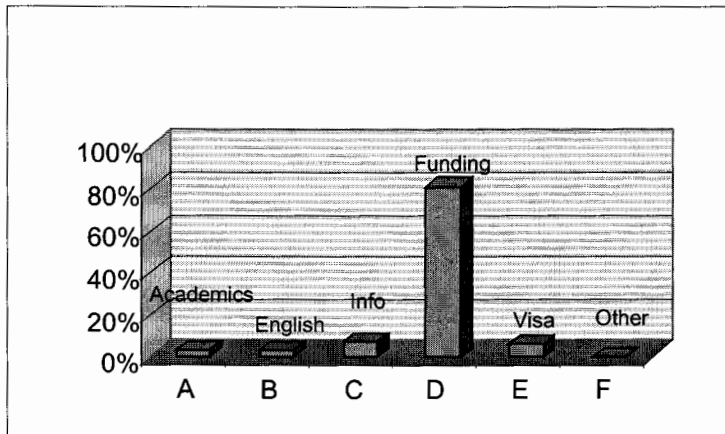**Greatest Obstacle in Applying to Four-Year Private Colleges**

Figure 4.33

Greatest Obstacle in Applying to Four-Year Public Colleges

By far the single largest obstacle prospective students face when applying to tertiary institutions in the United States is perceived by the institutions to be that of funding. 72% of community colleges list funding as the greatest obstacle, while 90% of private colleges and 81% of public colleges do. Each of the other categories show sparse responses compared to the responses shown in this area. As shown in 2.6.2, unemployment, per capita income and inflation must play a part in the Sub-Saharan African student's ability to pay for education in the United States. As comments following Table 4.33 indicate as well as comments at the end of the questionnaire, institutions are hampered in providing more aid by a variety of constraints. Combined,

these two factors seem to be the greatest obstacles Sub-Saharan African students face when attempting to pursue tertiary education in the United States and will be looked at later in this Chapter as well as in Chapter 5.

Table 4.33 deals with the opinion of the various institutions with regard to their role in overcoming these challenges.

Table 4.33   **Institutions Role in Overcoming Challenges**

Institutions Role in Overcoming Challenges	Community Colleges	Four-year Private Colleges	Four-year Public Colleges
Yes	30%	44%	54%
No	25%	16%	16%
I don't know	45%	40%	30%

Community colleges indicted (30%) that they believed their institutions could do more to overcome these challenges, while private colleges (44%) and public colleges (54%) indicated an even stronger percentage in agreement. In addition, various comments were given by respondents who answered "Yes" to this question. They included aspects such as traveling to areas within Sub-Saharan Africa to recruit more students, more contacts with Educational Advising Centers, as well as attempting to earmark more funding for students from this area. Comments were also made by several institutions that their budget does not allow for any further aid to international students, nor do they have the resources to begin or increase their recruiting efforts

Several comments dealt with the fact that there were no plans to increase international student enrolment from Sub-Saharan Africa. One such comment stated: "We hesitate to do more. Although we offer ninety per cent funding, most Sub-Saharan African students come without the remaining ten per cent and then ask for the rest on arrival. We had to finally deny entrance and send them home at our own cost."

Comments also centered on the area of recruitment only taking place in geographical areas where students traditionally have proven that they have the ability to pay, specifically Asia.

Receipt of fraudulent documents and their inherent problems with credentials from Sub-Saharan Africa was also mentioned as a reason for not wanting to recruit more students from this area (cf 4.2.11).

The majority of comments centered on the issue of funding, or lack of it (cf 4.2.5, 4.2.6). While many institutions expressed a desire to have more international students from Sub-Saharan Africa, lack of funding both on the part of the student and the institution was seen as an insurmountable difficulty.

4.2.13 General Comments and Additional Responses

Question 36 was an open-ended venting question asking for any further comments on the survey. The main responses again centered on the issue of funding as listed above as well as visa difficulties and the need to communicate more effectively with students from Sub-Saharan Africa to allow for more effective marketing. A comment which aptly summarizes these concerns states: "During the last three years we have seen a HUGE surge in applications from Africa. We require most of our applicants to submit credentials directly from the examination bodies in Africa due to the large number of fraudulent documents we receive. The biggest problem we have in Africa (Sub-Saharan Africa in particular) is their inability to pay for their education especially after they arrive. Many students will arrive with only $500. We are currently discussing the very real possibility of requiring students from Sub-Saharan Africa to submit pre-payment of tuition and fees before we issue the I-20."

Currently, students who are issued an I-20 (cf 1.6) are not required to fully pay tuition and fees to the institution until arrival in the United States. This comment proposes an interesting solution to the problem of students arriving in the United States without sufficient means to cover the cost of attendance and living expenses in that the issue of non-payment or the inability of the student to make payment upon arrival in the United States would not be an issue if students were made to pay the entire year's payment prior to arrival.

4.3 THE FINDINGS OF SURVEY 2

There are 28 countries with active Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa. Combined, these centers formed the working population of Group Two and each received a copy of the questionnaire. Of the 28 centers, 25 of these responded, giving an 89% response rate.

Several countries in Sub-Saharan Africa have more than one Advising Center. When more than one completed questionnaire was received from any given country, only one of the responses chosen randomly was used in compiling the statistics that follow. The Educational Advising Centers which responded can be found in Appendix B-2.

4.3.1 The Role of Educational Advisers

The role of Educational Advisers and the Centers in which they work is discussed in detail in Chapter 2 (2.6.1). The specific working conditions of the Advisers who responded to this questionnaire are outlined in this section.

Table 4.34 deals with the amount of hours that Advisers in Sub-Saharan Africa work on Advising per week.

Table 4.34   **Amount of Hours per Week Spent Advising**

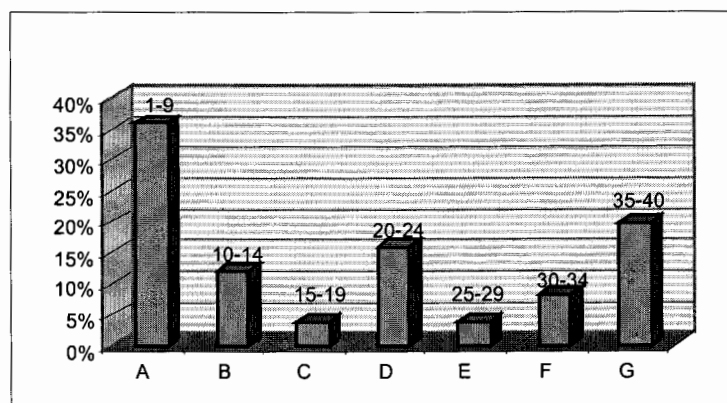| Hours	Percentage
A. 1 – 9 Hours	36%
B. 10 – 14 Hours	12%
C. 15 – 19 Hours	4%
D. 20 – 24 Hours	16%
E. 25 – 29 Hours	4%
F. 30 – 34 Hours	8%
G. 35 – 40 Hours	20%

Figure 4.34   **Hours Devoted to Advising**

The largest percentage of Educational Advisers (36%) who work in Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa work between 1 to 9 hours per week. The second largest percentage (20%) came from the respondents who reported working 35-40 hours per week on advising.

Table 4.35 deals with Advisers who have other job responsibilities at their place of employment.

Table 4.35 **Percentage of Advisers who Have Additional Job Responsibilities**

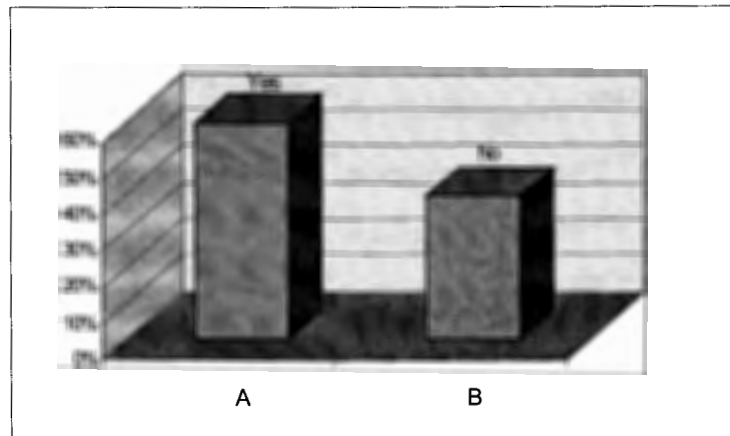| Additional Job Responsibilities	Percentage
A. Yes	60%
B. No	40%

Figure 4.35

Additional Job Responsibilities

What the response in Table 4.35 indicates is that the majority of Advisers (60%) has additional job responsibilities and devotes slightly more than one full day a week on advising issues (Table 4.34).

Table 4.36 indicates the total amount of employment time spent on advising by those Advisers who have additional job responsibilities.

Table 4.36 **Percentage of Job Time Devoted to Advising**

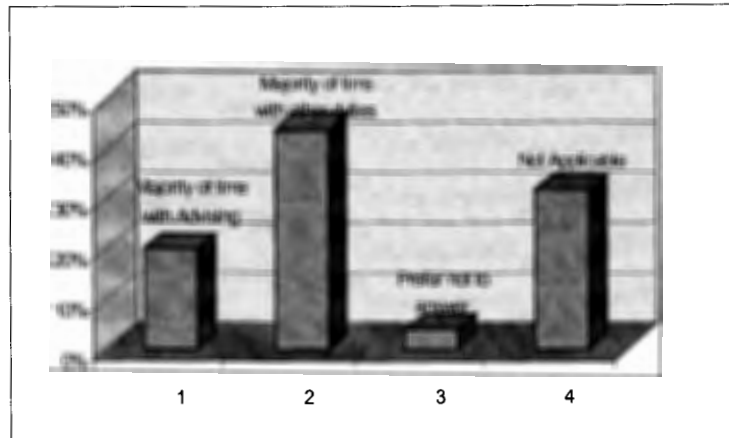| Percentage of Time Advising	Percentage
A. I spend the majority of my working time with Educational Advising	20%
B. I spend the majority of my time with other job responsibilities besides Advising	44%
C. I prefer not to answer	4%
D. Not Applicable	32%

Figure 4.36

Percentage of Employment Time Devoted to Advising

Of those Advisers who have other job responsibilities, 44% spend the majority of their time with work outside of advising, and only 20% spend the majority of time on work related to Educational Advising. 32% of the respondents indicated that this was not applicable to them, as their jobs do not entail other work responsibilities and they devote all of their employment hours to Educational Advising.

If such a large percentage of Advisers (44%) spend the majority of their employment hours in areas outside of Advising, it leads to the question of whether or not the volume of work which Advising entails can be coped with adequately and effectively.

Table 4.37 deals with the number of contacts that each Adviser has on a weekly basis.

Table 4.37   **Number of Weekly Contacts Regarding Undergraduate**

Study in the United States

Weekly Contacts	Percentage
0 – 10	16%
11-49	40%
50-99	28%
100-199	8%
Over 200	8%

The majority (40%) of Advisers reported that they deal with between 11-49 people per week on matters dealing with undergraduate study in the United States.

In summary, Tables 4.34 - 4.37 indicate that 36% of advisers work 1-9 hours per week, 60% of Advisers have other job responsibilities with which they spend the majority of their time and averaging out the total amount of contacts from Table 4.37, deal with an average of 30 prospective students per week. An inference that could be made is that the conduit, by which information on study in the United States in Sub-Saharan Africa is obtained, namely Educational Advisers, is not sufficient and could be negatively affecting the student flow from this area to the United States.

Table 4.38 deals with the adequacy of hours allotted to Advising.

Table 4.38　　　　　**Adequacy of Hours Allotted to Advising**

Opinion on Adequacy of Hours	Percentage
Yes, I have enough time to deal with all the advising workload and clientele	12%
No	20%
Most of the time I could use more hours	24%
All of the time I could use more hours	40%
I prefer not to answer	4%

The majority of Advisers feel that the hours allotted to them to deal with advising issues are not sufficient. Only 12% of the respondents reported that they believe the hours designated to them to perform their job responsibilities are adequate. This suggests that prospective students from Sub-Saharan Africa are not being offered sufficient resources in terms of Educational Advising, which must negatively impact on their ability to access information on the United States educational system.

4.3.2　Charging for Services

Table 4.39 indicates the percentage of Advising Centers that charge for services.

Table 4.39　　　　　**Percentage of Centers that Charge for Services**

Charge for Services	Percentage
Yes	52%
No	48%

Certain centers, as instructed by the post in which they work, charge for services. This is an arbitrary decision, based on the judgment of the Untied States Consular official at the Embassy or Consulate and is not mandated on a universal basis by the United States government. The split between centers who charge and those who do not is fairly evenly distributed.

Table 4.40 deals with opinions on whether charging prospective students hinders them from seeking Educational Advising services.

Table 4.40 **Opinions on Whether Charging for Services Affects the Use of Educational Advising Centers**

Opinion on Effects of Charging for Services	Percentage
Yes	60%
No	36%
Prefer not to answer	4%

The overall majority (60%) felt that charging hinders students from seeking Advising services.

Several comments were made regarding the issue of charging for services. They included the fact that people must travel from long distances to visit the center in the first place, and charging for services only increases the amount prospective students must pay to receive information. Comments were also made that this practice negatively affects the poor. However, other respondents felt that no matter how much is charged, it does not seem to deter prospective students from visiting the Educational Advising Center.

4.3.3 Recruitment by Institutions in the United States and Availability of Educational Advising Center Assistance

Table 4.4.1 indicates whether or not United States institutions visit Sub-Saharan African countries to recruit students.

Table 4.41 **Visits by United States Colleges to Recruit Undergraduate Sub-Saharan African Students**

Visits by Institutions in the United States	Percentage
Yes	52%
No	40%
Don't Know	8%

Over half of the centers (52%) reported that institutions from the United States do visit their country to recruit students. In addition, comments were made which stated that although these institutions did visit their countries, they never made contact with

the Advising Center. These comments could relate to the issue of availability of information and the awareness of Advising Centers as shown in Table 4.28.

Respondents were also asked to indicate willingness on part of the Advising office to render assistance to visiting United States institutions. 100% of the Advisers indicated that they would offer assistance as well as making the comment that Advising Centers would be useful in that they could direct them to the most appropriate institutions at which to recruit.

4.3.4   Examination Issues

It is important to note in this section that the availability of the standardized tests in a particular country is not a decision made by the Advising Center, but by the company (ETS) which administers these exams (cf 2.6.4). Decisions on frequency of the exams are made solely on the basis of financial viability. The more students who test, the more test dates and centers that are available (Kornbluh nd).

Table 4.4.2 deals with the number of times per year that the SAT (cf 1.6) is offered in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 4.42   **Number of Times per Year the SAT is offered**

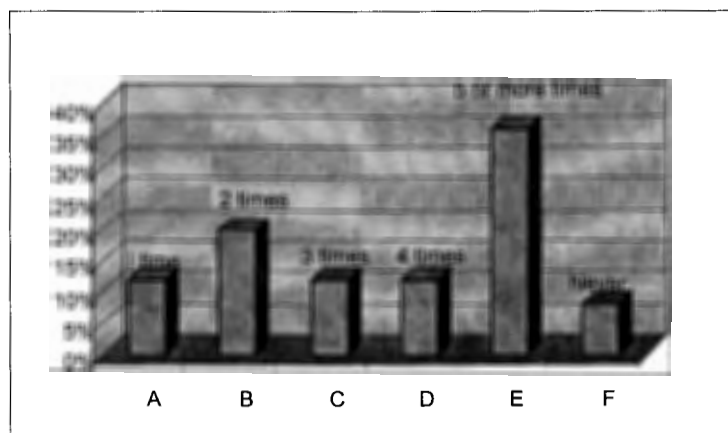| Number of Times SAT is offered	Percentage
A. 1 time a year	12%
B. 2 times a year	20%
C. 3 times a year	12%
D. 4 times a year	12%
E. 5 times or more a year	36%
F. Never	8%

Figure 4.37   **Number of Times SAT is Offered per Year**

It is noteworthy that 44% of the countries are permitted to offer the SAT exam three times or less per year, while only 36% of reporting centers have the SAT exams available 5 or more times a year. 8% of centers report that the SAT exam is never available.

Lack of availability of required standardized tests directly affects the student's ability to successfully meet the United States institution's admission requirements.

Table 4.43 indicates the availability of SAT test preparation materials at the Educational Advising Centers.

Table 4.43   **Availability of SAT Test Preparation Materials**

Availability of SAT Test Materials	Percentage
Yes, both SAT I and all SAT II subject test preparation materials are available	32%
We have only SAT I study preparation material available	28%
We have SAT I and only some of the SAT II study guides available	20%
No, we have no study preparation materials available for either the SAT I or the SAT II	20%

Only 32% of reporting centers stated that they have all of the study guides for both the SAT I and the SAT II subject test materials, while 28% indicated that they had only SAT I test preparation materials. 20% of Centers indicated that they had SAT I and only some of the SAT II subject test preparation materials and 20% of Centers indicated that they had no study materials for either the SAT I or the SAT II.

As outlined in 2.5, the results of the standardized exams required for admission form an important part of the admission decision. If exams and/or exam test preparation materials are not available, it would have a negative effect on the student's ability to meet admission criteria and to perform well on these exams.

As reported in Table 4.19, 42% of community colleges, 53% of private and 41% of public colleges indicated that test results from Sub-Saharan applicants are in the "average" category. If there are no test preparation materials available at Advising

Centers, then the student's access to this type of information is negatively affected and could result in lower test scores.

Table 4.44 deals with the availability of SAT preparation schools or courses in the particular country in which the Educational Advising Center is located.

Table 4.44 **Availability of SAT Preparation Schools or Courses**

Availability of SAT Preparation	Percentage
Yes	16%
No	76%
I don't know	8%

Students in the United States and many other foreign countries have professional SAT preparation courses available to them that claim to enhance the student's ability to achieve on these tests (Princeton Review 2002[Internet]). The majority (76%) of Educational Advising Centers indicated that no such courses are available to prospective students in the country in which the Center is located. Comments passed in addition to the responses indicated above were that where the courses were available, they were extremely expensive, highly unprofessional, exploitative and not useful.

Table 4.45 deals with the frequency of paper and pencil TOEFL exams per year in the various countries.

Table 4.45 **Frequency of Paper and Pencil TOEFL Exams per Year**

Frequency of Paper and Pencil TOEFL	Percentage
1 time a year	8%
2 times a year	20%
3 times a year	20%
4 times a year	8%
5 times or more a year	4%
Never	40%

The responses given indicate that 40% of centers never have the paper and pencil TOEFL exam available.

Table 4.46 deals with the frequency of the computer based TOEFL exam per year.

Table 4.46   **Frequency of the Computer Based TOEFL Exam per Year**

Frequency of Computer TOEFL	Percentage
1 time a year	4%
2 times a year	0%
3 times a year	0%
4 times a year	12%
On Demand	40%
Never	44%

44% of Centers indicate that the computer based TOEFL exam is available on demand. Although there are instances where it has been reported that either the paper and pencil or the computer based TOEFL exams are not available, it has not been reported that neither type is available. The results do indicate, however, that a very low percentage (12%) has the computer based TOEFL exam available 4 times a year and only 40% indicate that the exam is available on demand. This again has a negative effect on the student's ability to meet application requirements and deadlines.

Table 4.47 deals with the availability of TOEFL exam preparation materials.

Table 4.47   **Availability of TOEFL Exam Preparation Materials**

Availability of TOEFL Exam Preparation Materials	Percentage
Yes, we have both the paper and pencil and computer adaptive study guides available	60%
We have only paper and pencil TOEFL preparation available	16%
We have only computer adaptive TOEFL materials available	24%
We have no TOEFL test preparation materials available	0%

60% of reporting centers have both the paper and pencil as well as the computer based study materials available. The availability of TOEFL preparation materials in either format is far greater than the SAT test preparation materials, which is significant in that the TOEFL is required by a substantial majority of institutions as a basis for admission (cf Table 4.17).

Table 4.48 deals with the opinion of the Advisers as to whether or not the students are affected negatively by the computer based TOEFL.

Table 4.48   **Negative Effect of Computer Based TOEFL**

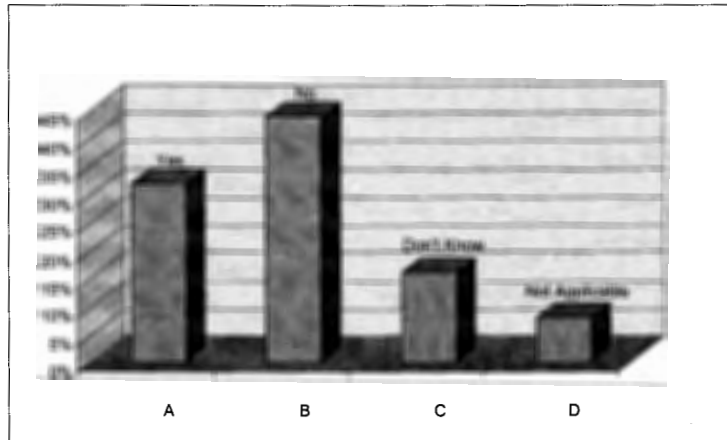| Opinion on Effect of Computer Based TOEFL	Percentage
A. Yes	32%
B. No	44%
C. Don't Know	16%
D. Not Applicable - Computer Based TOEFL is not offered	8%

Figure 4.38

Negative Affects of the Computer Based TOEFL

44% of respondents indicated that they did not believe that students were negatively affected. However, additional comments were made concerning the fact that students did not have easy access to computers, the cost of the computer based test is high and the exam is irrelevant to English speaking students.

4.3.5   Internet Access and Availability

Table 4.49 illustrates the availability of Internet access in the country in which the Advising Center is located.

Table 4.49   **Availability of Internet**

Internet Availability	Percentage
Yes	52%
No	48%

Over half the respondents (52%) indicated that Internet access was available. One respondent added that "Internet is available in my country IF: the phone lines are working; the electricity is working; the service provider is still around". Table 4.49 should also be understood in light of the information provided by Tables 4.50 and 4.51 below.

Table 4.50 deals with the issue of affordability of the Internet to the general public.

Table 4.50 **Affordability of the Internet to the General Public**

Affordability of Internet	Percentage
Yes	48%
No	52%

Tables 4.49 and 4.50 center on the availability and affordability of the Internet in Sub-Saharan Africa. This aspect is also covered in Chapter 2 (cf Figure 2.9). Responses to these questions indicate that while the majority of centers (52%) report that Internet access is readily available, the same majority (52%) indicate that it is not affordable to the general public. So, although Internet access might be available to the majority of potential students, the fact that it is not accessible financially severely limits student's access to information transmitted electronically.

Table 4.51 deals with the reliability and speed of the Internet in the country in which the Advising Center is located.

Table 4.51 **Reliability and Speed of the Internet**

Reliability and Speed of Internet	Percentage
Yes	40%
No	60%

As explained in Chapter 2 (section 2.6.1.2) many of the United States institutions' websites are extremely graphic intensive and require a high band width with high speed connectivity or the information can take an inordinate amount of time to download. If cost is a factor, the speed at which information can be accessed via the Internet is extremely important. Table 4.51 indicates that 60% of the responding centers have reported that the Internet connections are not reliable and of an acceptable speed. If the prospective student must meet deadlines that require Internet connectivity, such as exam registration, then reliability becomes a significant issue.

Table 4.52 deals with access by students to the Internet in the Adviser's centers.

Table 4.52 **Access to the Internet at Educational Advising Centers**

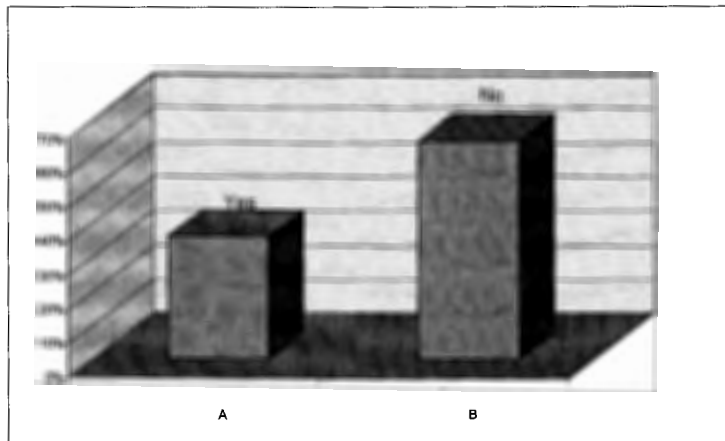| Access to Internet at Advising Centers	Percentage
A. Yes	36%
B. No	64%

Figure 4.39

Availability of Internet Access in Advising Centers

The majority of Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa (64%) report that they do not have Internet access for student's use. Students at these centers are therefore hampered in their ability to access electronic information relating to studying in the United States and applying to United States institutions.

4.3.6 Funding Issues

Table 4.53 deals with the availability of funding for students from their home government.

Table 4.53 **Availability of Home Government Funding**

Availability of Home Funding	Percentage
Yes	12%
No	84%
Don't Know	4%

A high percentage (84%) of respondents indicated that the government in the country in which they work has no funding available for study in the United States. A further comment was made that where funding is available, it was reserved for the use of graduate students. Taken in conjunction with discussion in Chapter 2 (cf 2.63), regarding the inability of most African countries to educate its own people, it is not surprising that Sub-Saharan African governments do not have the resources to fund study in the United States.

Table 4.54 deals with the awareness of other types of funding for prospective students on the undergraduate level for study in the United States.

Table 4.54   **Awareness of Alternative Funding**

Awareness of Alternative Funding	Percentage
Yes	12%
No	68%
I don't know	20%

At the majority of centers (68%) responded that no funding from private or commercial sources exist in their countries. Additionally, 20% of Centers reported that they did not know if this type of funding exists. If home country funding is not available from either government, private or commercial sources, then the only remaining source becomes the institution in the United States or the student's own personal resources.

Table 4.55 deals with the percentage of students who could afford to study in the United States without some type of financial assistance.

Table 4.55   **Percentage of Qualified Students Who
Do Not Need Financial Assistance**

Students Who Do Not Need Financial Assistance	Percentage
A. 0% - 5% of students do not need funding	60%
B. 6% - 10% of students do not need funding	20%
C. 11%-15% of students do not need funding	4%
D. 16% - 19% of students do not need funding	8%
E. Over 20% of students do not need funding	8%
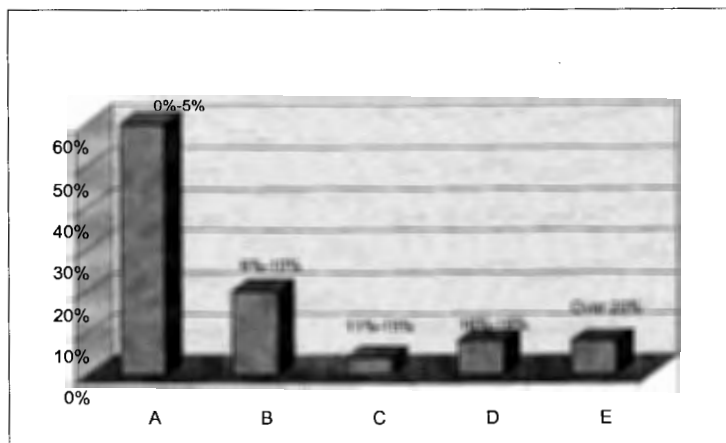
Figure 4.40

**Percentage of Qualified Prospective Undergraduates Who Can Afford to Study
in the United States Without Some Type of Financial Assistance**

As shown in Table 4.55 and Figure 4.44, the majority of respondents (60%) indicated that only 0-5% of prospective undergraduate students can afford to study in the United States without some type of financial assistance. This information agrees with Figure 2.13 (cf 2.6.3) in that the annual gross domestic product of Sub-Saharan Africa is the lowest in the world, and so it is to be expected that a very low percentage of the student population in Sub-Saharan Africa could afford to study in the United States without some type of additional funding. Yet, if the expectations are that over 80% of international students bring their funding for study in the United States from personal and family resources (cf 2.3.1.2), then the dichotomy becomes clear as respondents report that a very few centers (8%) have over 20% of their prospective undergraduates who can afford to study in the United States without some type of assistance. If students are limited to personal funding in Sub-Saharan Africa, then it is to be expected that the total amount of Sub-Saharan African students studying in the United States will the lowest in the world as indicated in Figure 1.1 (cf 1.3).

Table 4.56 deals with the issue of students limiting their choices of institutions to those who have the ability to offer substantial financial assistance.

Table 4.56   **Students Limiting Choices of Institutions Based**

on Availability of Funding

Students Who Chose Institutions Based On Availability of Funding	Percentage
Yes, students always choose an institution that will offer them some type of funding	48%
Usually	32%
Generally	8%
No	4%
I don't know	8%

Virtually half of all Sub-Saharan African prospective students (48%) limit their choices to institutions that have the ability to offer full or very substantial scholarships as is depicted in the table above. 32% of students usually limit their choices to institutions who offer full or substantial scholarships. Chapter 2 (section 2.6.2) outlines the issues that influence the need for funding as far as this area of Africa is concerned. If the student has very little in the way of personal funding and if there are

no home country sources of financial assistance, the only sources that remain open to them are the institutions in the United States which have the ability of offer funding.

Table 4.57 indicates the sources of funding for Sub-Saharan African students who study in the United States.

Table 4.57 **Sources of Funding for Sub-Saharan Undergraduates Studying in the United States**

Sources of Funding	Percentage
A. Family (local or overseas)	64%
B. Private sources (i.e. Church groups, overseas relatives, business sponsors)	4%
C. Scholarships or financial aid from US institutions (including sport scholarships)	4%
D. Home country government sponsorship	8%
E. Other (A combination of some of all of the above (the same response 5 times)	20%
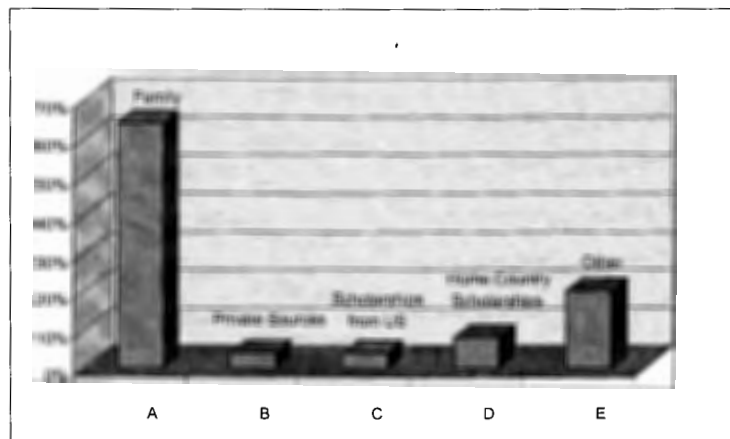
Figure 4.41

Sources of Funding

The table and figure above, which summarizes responses on how students fund their studies, agree with the same summary as published in *Open Doors*, found in Figure 2.4 (cf 2.3.1.2). Of Sub-Saharan students, 64% depend on family resources to finance their studies in the United States. Only 4% finance their studies from financial sources available at institutions in the United States. It would appear from the responses supplied, that although students might limit their choices based on an institution's ability to offer funding, those students who are successful in their applications and end up studying in the United States do so with finances provided from personal resources.

Table 4.58 indicates the existence of a branch of the United States Foreign and Commercial Services in their country.

Table 4.58   **Existence of a Foreign and Commercial Service Office**

Foreign and Commercial Service	Percentage
Yes	60%
No	8%
Don't Know	32%

The United States Foreign and Commercial Service is a branch of the United States Government that deals with trade. In addition to using Educational Advising Centers as a conduit for exporting United States education abroad, and as a result of former President Clinton's memo on support of an International Education Policy (White House 2001), various agencies within the United States government are taking a more active role in the promotion of not only United States education but also the internationalization of United States campuses. As reported by A. Ellery, Commercial Specialist at the United States Consulate in Durban, South Africa (April 1, 2002) the Foreign and Commercial Service is exploring new ways of supporting the promotion of United States education. Currently, only the countries with a history of having sufficient funding to send students to the United States are being promoted by the Foreign and Commercial Service (Ellery 2002), however, this could change and the availability of a Foreign and Commercial Service office allied to the Advising Center could prove to be a future benefit. 60% of centers reported the existence of a branch of the Foreign and Commercial service, while 8% reported not knowing if one existed and 32% reported that they did not have a branch of the Foreign and Commercial Service.

Table 4.59 deals with the perceived academic level of accepted Sub-Saharan African students who receive funding for undergraduate study in the United States.

Table 4.59   **Academic Ability of Students who Receive Funding**

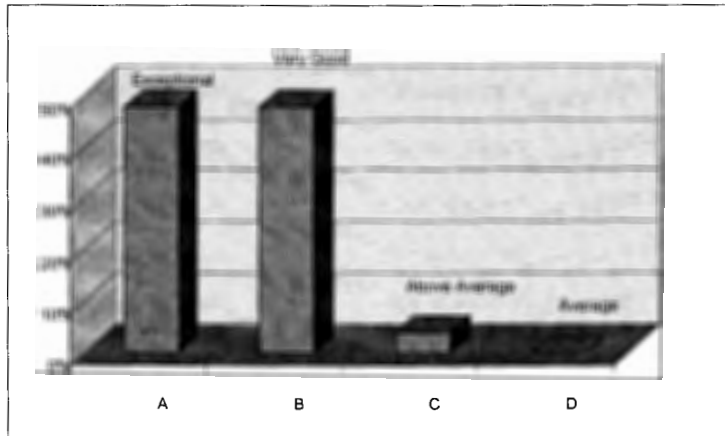| Academic Ability	Percentage
A. Are exceptional, that is, in the top 1% of our country's high school students academically	48%
B. Are very good students, in the top 5% of our country's high school students	48%
C. Are above average, but have other talents such as athletic ability or art talent	4%
D. Are average students	0%

Figure 4.42

Academic Ability of Students who Receive Funding

According to the responses received 96% of all students who receive funding fall into the top 1-5% of high school students. This concurs with the fact that this funding is highly competitive as outlined in Chapter 2 (cf 2.3.1.2).

4.3.7 Important Factors When Choosing an Institution and the Perceived Academic Ability of Accepted Students

Table 4.60 deals with the ranking of factors according to importance when choosing a tertiary institution in the United States by prospective Sub-Saharan African undergraduate students. Rankings to the fifth level were taken, but only the first three tiers are shown in the following table.

Table 4.60   **Importance of Various Factors When Choosing an Undergraduate Institution in the United States**

A. Location of College	
Ranked 1st in importance	16%
Ranked 2nd in importance	16%
Ranked 3rd in importance	56%
B. Number of other international African or African-American students on campus	
Ranked 1st in importance	4%
Ranked 2nd in importance	16%
Ranked 3rd in importance	16%
C. Availability of funding	
Ranked 1st in importance	68%
Ranked 2nd in importance	12%
Ranked 3rd in importance	12%

D. Academic Reputation of Institution	
Ranked 1st in importance	12%
Ranked 2nd in importance	52%
Ranked 3rd in importance	8%
E. Size of College	
Ranked 1st in importance	0%
Ranked 2nd in importance	4%
Ranked 3rd in importance	8%

In summary, the factors listed in order of importance are:

1. Availability of Funding (68% ranked as 1st in importance, 12% ranked as 2nd in importance)

2. Academics (12% ranked as 1st, 52% ranked as 2nd in importance)

3. Location (ranked as 1st and 2nd in importance by 16% and 3rd in importance by 56%)

4. Size (ranked as 1st in importance by 0%, 2nd in importance by 4%, 3rd in importance by 8% and 4th in importance by 52%)

This finding agrees with Table 4.56 in that students tend to limit their choices to and place a great deal of importance on institutions that have funding available.

In addition to the importance students placed on the factors listed above, comments were made that students also consider the following, albeit to a lesser degree:

- Number of other international students, not necessarily African international students;
- Location of friends and family;
- Where there are possibilities of on campus jobs;
- Safe campus with low crime rate;
- Racial issues, where students feel comfortable.

Table 4.61 deals with the level of academic ability of students from Sub-Saharan Africa who were accepted to study in the United States.

Table 4.61 **Academic Ability of Undergraduate Students Accepted for Study in the United States**

Academic Ability	Percentage
Top 1% of their home country high school students	20%
Top 5% of the of their home country high school students	44%
Top 10% of their home country high school students	28%
Top 25% of their home country high school students	4%
Average academic category	4%

It is interesting to note that the 64% (the combined percentages of 1-5%) of responses show that students who are accepted to study on the undergraduate level in the United States are in the top 1-5% academically in their home country. This finding concurs with the figures in the same range as shown in Table 4.59 in that 96% (combined 1-5%) of the students who receive funding fall into the same category.

Another interesting observation is the apparent contradiction with the response to Table 4.20 (cf 4.2.7) where the majority of United States institutions note the academic results of Sub-Saharan students as average. The conclusion that can be drawn from this apparent contradiction is that either the general level of education of students in Sub-Saharan Africa is lower than students from other parts of the world, or that the United States institutions have not correctly evaluated the academic results submitted from Sub-Saharan Africa.

An additional comment was made by a respondent that sports scholarships tend to fund the majority of undergraduate students.

4.3.8 Visa Issues

Table 4.62 deals with the occurrence of problems in obtaining visas for undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa accepted for study in the United States.

Table 4.62   **Difficulties in Obtaining a Student Visa**

Difficulty in Obtaining a Visa	Percentage
Yes, there is always some problem	40%
Occasionally the student experiences a problem	44%
The student only experiences a problem if their papers are not in order	12%
No, our students generally do not encounter problems when applying for a visa	4%

Visa information is described in more detail in Chapter 2 (cf 2.5.4 and 2.6.4). Table 4.62 indicates that 40% of visa applicants always experience some problems, while 44% occasionally experience problems. Only 4% of students generally do not encounter problems when applying for a visa.

The results shown above reflect a far larger level of difficulty in the area of visa issuance than is perceived by the United States institutions in Table 4.22. An

additional comment was also expressed that the level of difficulty as far as visa issuance goes increases when applying to two-year community colleges. This is dealt with specifically in the next Table.

Table 4.63 deals with difficulties in obtaining a visa when applying to two-year community colleges.

Table 4.63 **Increased Difficulties in Obtaining Visa for Study at Community Colleges**

Visa Difficulty at Community Colleges	Percentage
Yes	56%
No	28%
Don't know	16%

More than half of the respondents (56%) indicate that students face increased difficulties when applying for a student visa to study at a community college. A comment was made that visas for study at community colleges are seldom, if ever, issued. This comment, coupled with the comment made in the previous question as read together with the statistics reflected in the above Table, clearly indicate that visas for two-year community colleges appear to be difficult to obtain.

Table 4.64 deals with the availability of assistance given by the Consular Official to the Educational Adviser concerning the issuance of visas.

Table 4.64 **Availability of Assistance by Consular Official in Visa Concerns**

Assistance of Consular Official	Percentage
Yes, always	4%
Yes, sometimes	28%
Yes, very rarely	20%
No, never	40%
This is not applicable to me	8%

The majority of responses (40%) indicate that the Consular Officials never make themselves available to assist with visa issues. Only 4% of respondents indicated that the Consular Official is always available to assist in visa related matters. Low response rates (28% and 20%) indicated that assistance was "sometimes" or "very rarely" available. An additional comment stated that this depends on who the

Consular Officer is at the time. Some are willing to ask for information regarding the student, some aren't.

4.3.9 Challenges Facing the Prospective Undergraduate Student

Tables 4.65 – 4.70 deal with the perceived challenges relating to study in the United States as ranked by the Advisers. Respondents were presented with six possible ratings for each factor; however, only rankings from 1st to 3rd in importance are tabulated here. Therefore, totals do not add up to 100%.

Table 4.65   **Importance of Academic Readiness**

Importance of Academics	Percentage
A. Ranked 1st in importance	0%
B. Ranked 2nd in importance	16%
C. Ranked 3rd in importance	12%
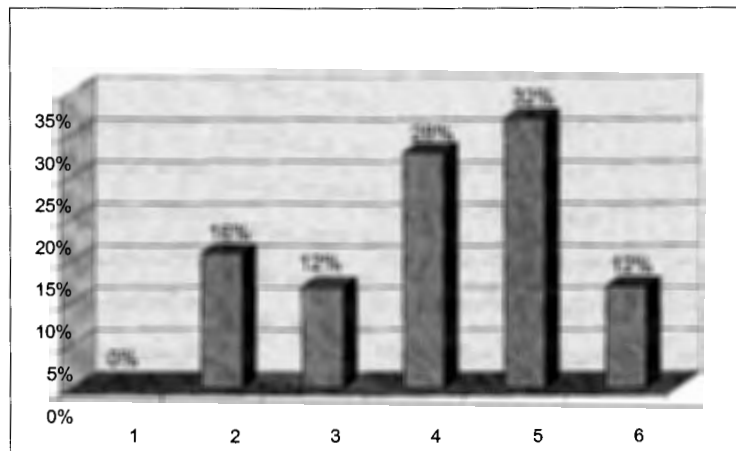
Figure 4.43

Importance of Academic Readiness

Table 4.66   **Importance of English Proficiency**

Importance of English Proficiency	Percentage
A. Ranked 1st in importance	20%
B. Ranked 2nd in importance	12%
C. Ranked 3rd in importance	16%
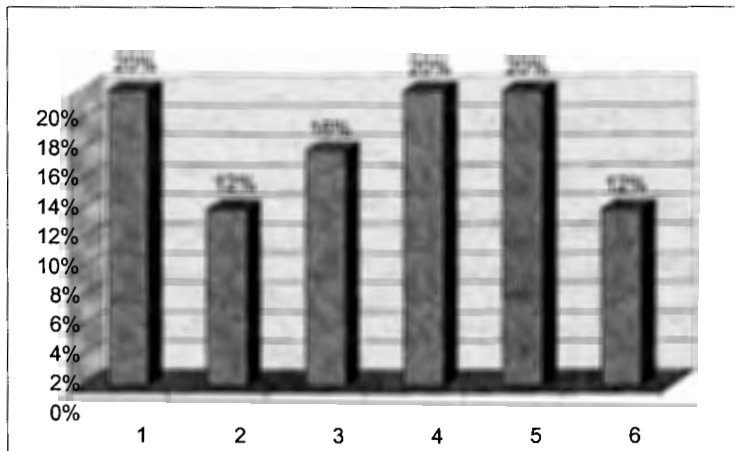
Figure 4.44

Importance of English Proficiency

Table 4.67 **The Importance of Lack of Information About Institutions**
in the United States

Importance of Lack of Information	Percentage
A. Ranked 1st in importance	0%
B. Ranked 2nd in importance	8%
C. Ranked 3rd in importance	8%
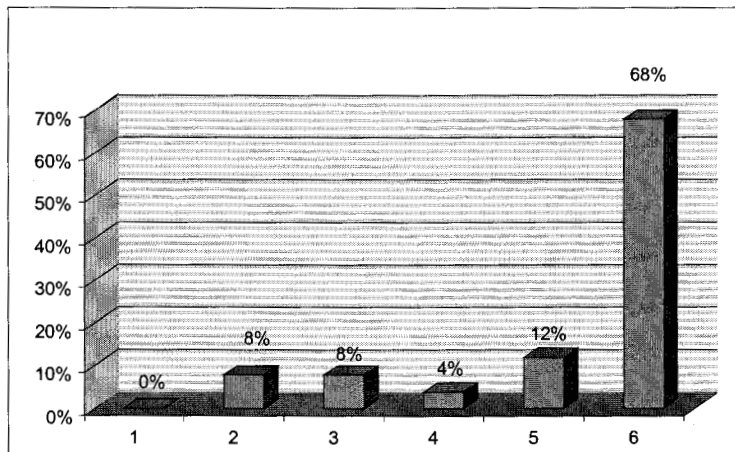
Figure 4.45

The Importance of Lack of Information About Institutions

in the United States

Table 4.68 **Importance of Funding**

Importance of Funding	Percentage
A. Ranked 1st in importance	64%
B. Ranked 2nd in importance	20%
C. Ranked 3rd in importance	8%
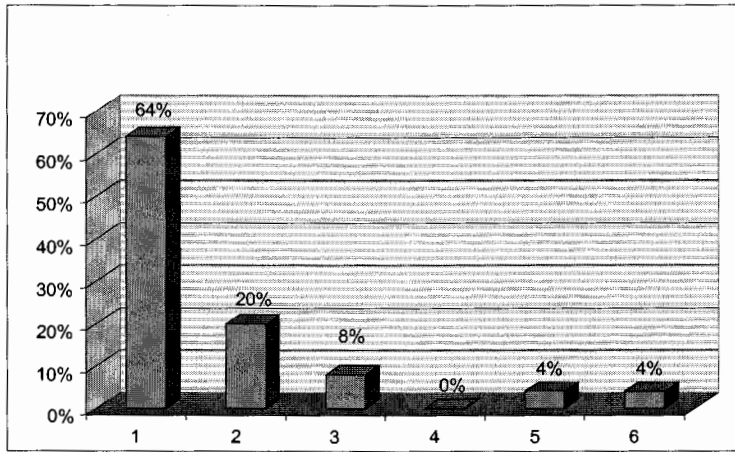
Figure 4.46   **Importance of Funding**

Table 4.69   **Importance of Visas**

Importance of Visas	Percentage
A. Ranked 1st in importance	16%
B. Ranked 2nd in importance	24%
C. Ranked 3rd in importance	16%
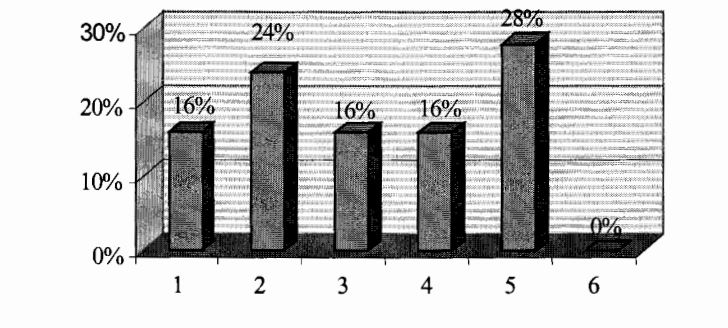
Figure 4.47   **Importance of Visas**

Table 4.70   **Importance of Testing Requirements**

Importance of Testing Requirements	Percentage
A. Ranked 1st in importance	0%
B. Ranked 2nd in importance	20%
C. Ranked 3rd in importance	40%
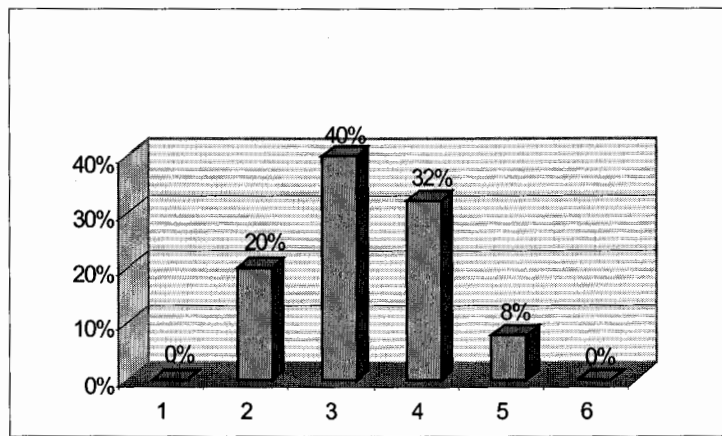
Figure 4.48   **Importance of Testing Requirements**

The summary of Tables 4.65 – 4.70 and Figures 4.43 - 4.48 shows that the following factors, listed in order, were the perceived greatest challenges prospective undergraduates face when contemplating study in the United States:

1. Funding
2. English Ability
3. Visas
4. Testing Requirements
5. Academic Readiness
6. Lack of Information

An additional comment, one that reflected that the application fees are so high as to present an additional obstacle was made.

4.3.10 Location of College, Cost of Travel and Availability of Housing

Table 4.71 deals with students choices based on location.

Table 4.71   **Choice of College Based on Location**

Choice of College Based on Location	Percentage
Students usually chose an institution that is the least expensive to travel to	4%
Geographical location makes no difference to student's choices.	36%
Students occasionally make a choice based on location.	60%
I don't know.	0%

The issue of location is explained in detail in 2.3.1.7. It would seem that the cost of traveling to and from an institution plays a very small part (4%) in a student's choice

of college. This is surprising given the fact that Advisers indicate funding (which necessarily excludes travel costs) to be the biggest challenge to students (Tables 4.60 and 4.68). The responses displayed in Table 4.32 indicate that the institutions likewise perceive funding to be the greatest obstacle.

Besides cost of travel, other areas indicated by additional comments that have a bearing on the question of location are the cost of living and the presence of family and friends.

Table 4.72 deals with the availability of housing for students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 4.72   **Availability of Student Housing**

Availability of Student Housing	Percentage
Yes, students will choose an institution that will offer them housing for all 12 months of the year	36%
Students usually are interested in institutions that offer housing for the academic year	40%
Students generally do not care if housing is available.	4%
Availability of housing makes no difference at all in a student's choice of institutions	12%
I don't know	8%

76% of students (combined percentage) choose a college that offer housing either for the full calendar or the full academic year. Housing on United States campuses was explained more fully in 2.3.1.8.

4.3.11   Availability of Exchange Programs

Table 4.73 deals with the availability of exchange programs for students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

Table 4.73   **Availability of Exchange Programs for Sub-Saharan Students**

Exchange Programs	Percentage
A. Yes, there are such programs available	24%
B. No, no such programs exist in my country	44%
C. I don't know	32%
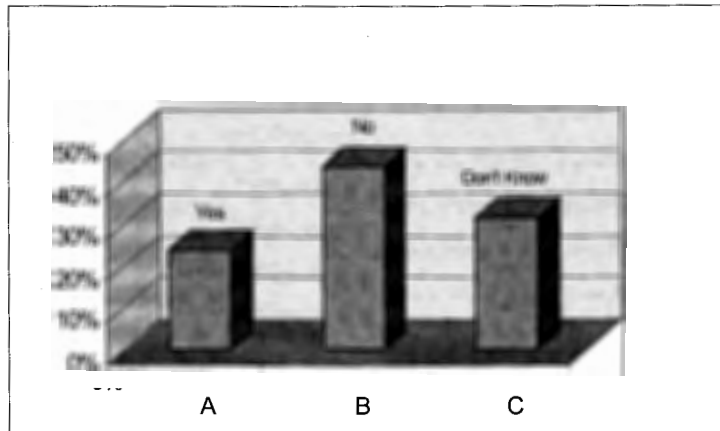
Figure 4.49

Availability of Exchange Programs for Sub-Saharan Student

44% of responding institutions have indicated that no such programs exist in their country while a fairly substantial number (32%) indicate that they don't know. This relates to the comment expressed that United State institutions who visit Sub-Saharan countries do not make their presence known to the Advising Centers (cf 4.3.3). If United State institutions set up exchange programs within the local tertiary institutions, they might also not make the Advising Center aware of these programs and hence, the Adviser's ability to make this information known to prospective students is hampered.

Additional comments were made regarding this issue that expressed a desire for such programs. One respondent, who answered "yes" to the question, also reported that only one such exchange program existed in his country.

4.3.12 Additional Comments

Question 37 of the questionnaire was a final open-ended venting question. The comments elicited by this question focused on such areas as the difficulty of visa issuance, political conditions that negatively affected student's access to the Center as well as access to information, as no Internet was available.

An interesting comment related to former colonization of many Sub-Saharan countries. Certain countries in Sub-Saharan Africa were colonized by the French and remain French speaking. This tends to make France as the preferred destination for further study for students from these countries.

4.4   COMPARISONS AND DISCUSSION OF TWO QUESTIONNARIES

The following section deals with the results of the two questionnaires and the comparison of results where applicable.

4.4.1   Characteristics of Respondents

The following information deals with descriptive information regarding the respondents.

4.4.1.1 Questionnaire to Institutions in the United States

Tables 4.1 and 4.2 provide background information regarding the respondents to the survey. Of the 173 returned surveys, 24% were from community colleges, 29% from private four-year colleges and 35% from public four-year colleges (cf Table 4.1). The majority of institutions who responded were in the "small" to "medium" range in size (1,000 to 9,999 students) (cf Table 4.2). The responses, therefore, best represent the views of the small to medium sized, public four-year institutions.

Tables 4.4 and 4.5 dealt with the percentage of International Students on campus and specifically those from Sub-Saharan Africa. Of all the reporting institutions, private four-year colleges had the most international students as well as the most students from Sub-Saharan Africa.

4.4.1.2   Questionnaire to Educational Advising Centers

Tables 4.34 – 4.37 provide information about the Advisers and their duties regarding Advising. The greatest percentage (36%) of Sub-Saharan Educational Advisers work between 1 to 9 hours per 40-hour week in Advising (cf Table 4.34). The majority of the Advisers (60%) have other job responsibilities besides Advising (cf Table 4.35), and of that 60%, 44% spend the majority of their time in job duties other than Educational Advising (cf Table 4.36). Most of the Educational Advisers deal with between 11-49 contacts regarding study in the United States per week (cf Table 4.37). The majority of Adviser's also believe that they need more hours in the week to deal with their Advising workload as shown in Table 4.38.

4.4.2   Questionnaire 1 - Issues of Cost and Financial Assistance

Costs of attendance were shown in Table 4.3 and as expected, the community colleges ranked in the low end of the cost scale, while private four-year institutions reported the highest costs.

Table 4.3 relates to Tables 4.10, 4.11 and 4.12 in that the majority of community colleges are in fact cheaper than any other institution, yet they offer the least amount of aid. Private four-year colleges are the most expensive but offer the most aid. Yet as Table 4.12 shows, the majority of institutions do not offer funding which will cover the entire cost of an academic year. So, while the aid offered at private four-year colleges might be more, the majority of it does not cover full costs, and so it could end up cheaper for the student to attend a community college.

Table 4.14 also deals with the issue of cost in the sense that it plays an extremely important role in the admission process. While the responses illustrated in Table 4.32 and the comments given in Table 4.33 indicate a knowledge of the lack of funding available to the Sub-Saharan student, Table 4.15 indicates that the majority of community colleges and four-year public institutions will not waive the application fee, and rate the ability to pay to be the most important factor when considering the admissibility of Sub-Saharan students, as shown Table 4.21.

The results shown in Table 4.16 indicate that the majority of institutions who do not already fully fund undergraduate international students would not be willing to consider doing so.

4.4.3   Questionnaire 2 - Issues of Funding

Tables 4.53-4.57 and Table 4.59 deal with the issue of funding. As Figure 2.13 shows, the average per capita income for Sub-Saharan Africa is $2,086, and as stated in Chapter Two (cf 2.3.1.2) and from the findings depicted in Table 4.3, with the average cost of a year at an American undergraduate institution being approximately $10,000 to $23,000, the need for financial assistance becomes clear.

However great the need, the availability of funding from home country sources is very little, as illustrated in Table 4.53 and other sources, such as companies or foreign

governments, presents almost as negative a picture, as shown by the responses presented in Table 4.54.

The ability of the Sub-Saharan African student to fund him or herself is almost non-existent as shown in Table 4.55 and most of the students will limit their choice of institutions based on that institution's ability to offer financial assistance, as outlined in Table 4.56.

Despite the paucity of financial backing, the majority of students who do attend United States institutions fund themselves from family sources as shown in Table 4.57, yet the majority of respondents indicated that the most important factor when choosing an institution in the U.S is the availability of an institution to fund them (cf Table 4.60). Advisers rank funding as the main challenge to be faced when contemplating study in the United States on the undergraduate level.

As dire as the financial situation might seem, the majority of United States institutions report that the undergraduate enrolment of Sub-Saharan students has either increased or remained the same (cf Table 4.8).

4.4.4 Greatest Obstacles Facing Sub-Saharan African Students

When comparing the results of Table 4.32 and Tables 4.65 – 4.70, all of which deal with the perceived greatest obstacles that Sub-Saharan African students face when attempting to pursue undergraduate education in the United States, the results are remarkably similar in certain areas.

Both groups indicated that funding was the main obstacle by a vast majority. Questionnaire 2 indicates that English proficiency is regarded as the second greatest obstacle (cf Table 4.66), while Questionnaire 1 ranks it far lower, as the 4th greatest obstacle (cf Table 4.32). This could be due to the fact that while a large contingent of African countries are English speaking, there remains a group within Africa, known as the Francophone countries whose main language is French, and so for them, English is a challenge to be overcome.

Both groups rate visas as the third major challenge and academics as the 5th greatest obstacle (cf Tables 4.32 and 4.65).

An interesting difference however, is how each group ranks "information" as a challenge. Questionnaire 1 respondents rank it as 2nd in importance (cf Table 4.32) while the issue of importance of information does not rank at all in the top three concerns of Questionnaire 2 (cf Table 4.67). This could be due to how each group perceives the idea of information or the lack of it. Group One might see this concept as whether or not they have marketed their institution effectively so that they are known internationally. Group Two, on the other hand, might see this as how their offices make information available to students and by ranking it lower, they make it known that they are properly performing their job responsibilities in making sure that their clients receive the necessary information.

4.4.5 Issues Involving Academic Ability and Standardized Testing in Admission Decisions

In Table 4.21 of Questionnaire 1, institutions in the United States are asked to rank the most important factors they consider when receiving applications from Sub-Saharan students. The results were:

1st: English ability

2nd: Ability to pay

3rd: Strong high school transcripts

As far as the reporting of results on high school transcripts is concerned, Table 4.20 of Questionnaire 1 indicates that the majority of students from Sub-Saharan Africa present transcripts that are in the "Average" category, while Table 4.61 in Questionnaire 2 reports that accepted students are in the top 5% of students in their countries. This discrepancy could be due to the fact that while the Sub-Saharan students are in the top 5% academically in their country, they are only in the average category when compared to students that form the rest of the application pool at a given college. Another explanation could be that the United States institution does not understand the credentials that are given to them, and so, do not evaluate them correctly. This issue is covered in Table 4.30, which reports that although the greatest percentage of respondents feel that they generally have a strong understanding of

foreign credentials, the second largest group report that they do not, while the least amount of respondents report that they definitely have a strong understanding of foreign credentials.

Table 4.59 illustrates that students who are accepted for study in the United States and receive funding are equally dispersed between the top 1% and the top 5% of students in their country.

The issues that revolve around standardized testing are covered in Tables 4.42 - 4.48 in Questionnaire. 36% of centers report that the SAT is available 5 or more times a year, an almost equal amount of centers (32%) report that the SAT is available only 1-2 times a year. 8% of the centers report that the SAT is never offered at all. The decision as to the availability of these exams is made by Educational Testing Services (ETS), the company that designs and administers the exams, not the Advising Centers, who merely assist in the administration.

Tables 4.45 and 4.46 deal with the availability of the TOEFL exam in paper and pencil format and computer based format. The majority of centers report that the paper and pencil exam is offered 3 times or less a year, while the computer based exam, 44%of centers report, is never offered. Again, the availability of these exams is decided by ETS.

The issue of availability of exams directly affects the student's ability to comply with the admission requirements of the United States institution.

As far as availability of test preparation materials is concerned, Table 4.43 in Questionnaire 2 reports that 32% of centers have both the SAT I and SAT II exam preparation guides, while 68% of the other response options indicate that they have either have no guides available or only the SAT I and some of the SAT II study guides.

A large majority of centers (76%) also report that they have no SAT preparation schools or courses available in their countries (cf Table 4.44). Of those countries that

do have these courses, comments were made that they are expensive, unprofessional and not useful.

All centers report in Table 4.47 that they have some form of TOEFL test preparation materials, either for the paper and pencil or the computer based exam. 44% of respondents also indicate that they do not believe that the computer-based exam negatively affects their prospective students.

Table 4.17 deals with the required exams for admission. The majority of the schools require TOEFL and SAT I. Table 4.18 of Questionnaire 1 deals with the issue of waiving the TOEFL requirement if the student can provide acceptable proof that he is a native English speaker. A large majority of all types of reporting institutions stated that they would (cf Table 4.18).

Questionnaire 2 did not have a question dealing with the actual test results, as these results are strictly confidential, reported only to the institution at the student's request. From Table 4.19, however, the institutions report that the largest percentage of schools received average test result reports, with the second highest percentage in the "not applicable" category as they do not require any type of admission exam. The third largest reporting group fell into the "no response" category, perhaps due to the confidentiality issue, and the 4th largest area of responses was in the "Strong results – top 10% of all applicants".

The fact that the institutions reported that most of the Sub-Saharan applicant test scores fell within the average range could be due to several factors. Firstly, the SAT has often been criticized for the fact that it was created for students who are used to the multiple-choice format, uses verbal sections that are primarily American based, and that it is designed for the United States test taker (Steinberg 2001). Secondly, United States students and many of their first world counterparts have access to professional SAT test preparation classes (Princeton Review 2002 [Internet]), that Questionnaire 2 (cf Table 4.49) shows that Sub-Saharan students do not. Studies also show that students who prepare themselves for the SAT exam do better than those who do not (Princeton Review 2002 [Internet]). Table 4.43in Questionnaire 2 shows that only 32% of Educational Advising Centers have access to both the SAT I and all

of the SAT II study guides. Preparation for the SAT and TOEFL can, to a certain extent be done online, but if there is no easy access to Internet connectivity (cf 4.49) there can be no easy access to the test preparation materials available online.

Although the greatest percentage of centers in Questionnaire (44%) state that they believe that their students are not negatively affected by the computer-based TOEFL exam (cf Table 4.48), certain international scholars state in an article published in *The Chronicle of Higher Education* (January 1999) that the shift to computer based testing in TOEFL "will result in a dramatic decline in African students attending American universities".

4.4.6   The Issue of Information Availability

Several areas in Questionnaire 2 deal with the topic of availability of information. In the age of the information superhighway, access to the Internet is increasingly becoming the main conduit through which societies are acquiring needed information.

Tables 4.49-52 deal with the Internet, its availability, its cost, its connectivity and access at Advising Centers. The overall picture that is portrayed from these responses is one that agrees with section 2.6.1.2 in that centers report that for a large percentage of the Sub-Saharan African population, Internet access is not easily accessible, it's costly, the connections are not reliable and the majority of reporting centers do not have access for their students.

The comment made in conjunction with Table 4.49 of Questionnaire 2 sums up the situation rather well, "Internet is available in my country IF: the phone lines are working, the electricity is working and the service provider is still around".

The importance of having Internet that is available and accessible to potential students becomes clear if one looks at Tables 4.23 and 4.27. The information supplied deals with how institutions in the United States promote themselves and supply students from Sub-Saharan Africa with information and application materials. By far, the majority of institutions use the Internet to do so, although not exclusively. One could assume that this trend, which was unheard of 10 years ago, would continue to

increasingly dominate the application process and the purveyance of information including admission criteria and the availability of funding.

Another issue that affects the availability of information is the access students have to Educational Advising within Sub-Saharan Africa. As Tables 4.34-4.38 of Questionnaire 2 indicate, most Advisers work between 1-9 hours per week in Advising and have other "hats" that they wear at their jobs which deal with work outside the Advising arena and with which they spend the majority of their time. They deal with an average of 11-49 contacts per week and respond that they need more hours to meet the needs of the workload.

More than two years ago, the United States Congress passed legislation that made charging for services at United States government supported Advising Centers permissible. The idea behind charging for services was that it could help supplement the cost of a center and as a result, cost the United States government less in center support. While this idea possibly made good economic sense to the Congressmen and women who supported such legislation, the reality is that in Sub-Saharan Africa, it became another hurdle for the already economically challenged students to face. While the majority of respondents to Table 4.40 indicate that they do not believe that charging for services hinders people from seeking their services (60%), two comments made at the end of the question do challenge this belief. The comments were: "People spend too much time to travel to my center, that charging for services adds to their costs" and "The charging for services affects the poor".

The need for information flows both ways. While the Sub-Saharan students need information about United States institutions, so do the United States institutions need information about Sub-Saharan students. Table 4.28 shows that although most of the institutions are aware of Educational Advising Centers, there is still a substantial percentage of colleges, especially in the two-year range that do not. Should an institution require information concerning a particular student's credentials and system of education, then the knowledge that a specialist exists to fulfill that need is important. Or, should the institution desire to get information about its institution to Sub-Saharan students, and not be aware of EAS, then their ability to send information regarding their institutions is compromised. Table 4.32 of Questionnaire 1 shows that

institutions believe that the lack of information about their institution is the 2nd greatest obstacle that Sub-Saharan students face when applying to their institution.

Information about Educational Advising Centers could also mean that United States institutions would have a direct source for evaluating credentials and so increase not only their information concerning Sub-Saharan students but also lessen the cost of the evaluations that formerly were done by credential evaluating companies. Table 4.29 indicates that a very small percentage of institutions use Educational Advising Centers to assist in evaluations. This response could be indicative of the level of trust that United States institutions have in Educational Advising Centers or it could be because that United States institutions are not aware of the centers existence or the availability of free credential evaluation as part of their services to United States institutions.

The information provided in Table 4.31 deals with the veracity of credentials. The largest majority of institutions report that they occasionally have cause to question the legitimacy of credentials presented to them. Although unpleasant, it is a fact that certain countries have a reputation for fraudulent documents, an issue that will be discussed at a later stage, but information on Educational Advising Centers, where documents can be verified would be useful in assisting institutions when there is any question of authenticity.

4.4.7 The Difficulty in Obtaining Student Visas

In Questionnaire 2, Tables 4.62, 4.63 and 4.69 deal the issue of visas. 44% of respondents indicate that occasionally there is a problem in visa issuance; while the second largest group (40%) answers that there is always a problem. The non-return rate of specific countries has always been a concern to visa issuing officers at United States Consulates abroad (Bratsberg, 1995). The higher the non-return rate, the more difficult it is to obtain a visa. Sub-Saharan African countries experience a higher than normal non-return rate and so, the visa issuing officer is encouraged to be extremely thorough and cautious when interviewing and issuing student visas to this geographic region (Weed pers.comm.14 January 2002).

The issue of visa difficulty seems greater when applying to community colleges as shown by the responses in Table 4.63, and one comment states that "Visas to community colleges are seldom, if ever, issued". This concern is echoed in Table 4.32, as community colleges report the highest percentage (12%) in the question that deals with visas as an obstacle faced when applying to their institution. Questionnaire 1 also comments on the visa issue in Table 4.22. By far, the largest majority of institutions report that once admitted, students from Sub-Saharan Africa experience a delay or admission is canceled due to visa difficulties.

The fact that the majority of visa officers do not seek the advice of an Educational Adviser when issuing student visas is shown in Table 4.64 and is discussed further in the comment made: "This really depends on who the Consular Officer is at the time. Some are willing to ask for information regarding the student, some aren't".

4.4.8 Issues of Housing and Geography When Choosing an American Tertiary Institution

Tables 4.60, 4.71 and 4.72 deal with the issues of location and housing in choosing a United States institution. In the ranking of responses that students consider most important when choosing an institution, location places 2nd. This could be due to a variety of factors, such as existing family in the U.S, travel costs and/or climate. The issue of travel costs is shown in Table 4.76, where answers indicate that travel costs occasionally influence a student's choice of institution. The majority of respondents in Questionnaire 1 report that they believe that their geographical location has a positive impact on the attendance of international students on their campus (cf Table 4.6).

As to housing, Table 4.72 shows that most students (76%) choose an institution that either offers 12 month housing or housing for the full academic year. This response places community colleges in a decidedly unfavorable position since the majority of them have no housing to offer students, while the majority of private and public four-year institutions do (cf Table 4.7).

4.4.9 Recruiting and the Availability of Exchange Programs

In Questionnaire 2, the issue of United States institutions recruiting in Sub-Saharan countries is covered in Table 4.41. The majority of centers (52%) report that there is

recruiting activity within their countries, but two comments expressed the same concern: "Universities do come to our country, but they never make contact with the Advising Office to let us know". This could be due to the fact that the institutions are not aware of Educational Advising Centers or if they are, that they are not aware of the type of assistance that could be offered if they made their presence known. This is shown in Section 4.3.3 where a comment states: "We would be useful in that we could direct them to the appropriate schools at which to recruit" and where 100% of the respondents indicate that they would be willing to offer United States institutions assistance with their visits.

The issue of recruitment from a United States institution's perspective is shown in Table 4.9, where the majority of respondents indicate that they have no plans to increase international student enrolment from Sub-Saharan Africa, although a very close positive response was also shown. Table 4.23 also deals with the question of recruitment in the answers given on how an institution promotes itself to Sub-Saharan students. The second largest response, after use of the Internet, was the fact that they don't. Various reasons for this can be found in the comment section Table 4.33, but perhaps the reason voiced most often is that Sub-Saharan undergraduate students are not financially viable.

As to whether or not United States institutions attempt to recruit an equal geographical diversity of international students, Table 4.24 indicates that they do not although Table 4.26 shows that by far, the majority of institutions are interested in recruiting more students from the Sub-Saharan region.

When responding to the question posed in Table 4.33 as to whether or not their institutions could do more to recruit international students, specifically those from Sub-Saharan Africa, the majority of institutions responded in the affirmative, with a close second response stating that they don't know. There were 76 comments in addition to the three responses offered as part of this question. Most of the responses dealt with the challenge of finding the funding necessary to allow more Sub-Saharan African students to attend their institution. Comments were also made stating the need to recruit more, either by direct visits, mailings or contacts with Educational Advising Centers. Several institutions state that their mandate is to educate the United States

citizens in their area and as a result do not recruit and have no plans to do so. The fact that certain institutions only recruit "where the money is", primarily Asia, was mentioned. The topic of using education as a means to immigration was mentioned as one of the reasons why certain institutions do not recruit more in the Sub-Saharan African region. They find the legitimacy of the student's intentions questionable and the non-return rate (which can now get the institution into trouble with the Immigration and Naturalization Service) too serious an issue to deal with. Fraudulent documents, fraudulent certificates of finances, unpaid debts and the inability of Sub-Saharan students to come up with the remaining funds when partial scholarships are given were all listed as reasons why recruitment in Sub-Saharan Africa is not an option for many institutions.

The availability of exchange programs between United States institutions and their counterparts in Sub-Saharan Africa was dealt with in Table 4.25 and also in Table 4.73. In both instances, the majority of responses indicated that such programs were not available.

4.4.10 General Comments
Each survey offered respondents a section with an open-ended venting question, which allowed for any type of additional comments. The comments from Questionnaire 1 will be presented first followed by the comments from Questionnaire 2.

General comments in Questionnaire 1 as shown in the results of Question 36 (cf 4.2.13) primarily dealt with the extension of the previous Table and covered mostly areas of recruitment. Comments also dealt with the availability of funding and/or the lack of it as well as a few comments on how low test scores and poor English ability are seen as being difficulties. The issue of non-payment of debt and the arrival on campus without sufficient funds were also mentioned.

A wider variety of issues were mentioned in response to the open ended question at the end of Questionnaire 2. These comments also concerned challenges, but only one comment dealt with funding. Others included the fact that successful candidates were the progeny of influential citizens. Visa concerns were mentioned as well as the fact

that Francophone countries tend to choose France as a destination for overseas study. Political instability was viewed as a hindrance to clients visiting Advising Centers. A lack of basic equipment was mentioned as a reason for not charging, as in the Adviser's view, there was nothing to charge for. Another comment suggested that challenges are not always to be judged by the capability of the student, but can also include his/her political environment.

4.5   A SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

In answering the problem statement posed in Chapter One of this dissertation, "What are the factors influencing the participation of undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa in higher education in the United States?" the reply would be one, as found through the literature presented and through the results of the surveys, which would involve several areas.

The most obvious factor that influences the participation of Sub-Saharan African students is the financial aspects of pursuing study in the United States Not only is the African continent the poorest of all (cf Figure 2.13), but the poverty is magnified by an exceptionally high rate of inflation (cf Figure 2.14), and a high unemployment rate (cf Figure 2.12). The high cost of applications, standardized tests and tuition and fees, all payable in United States dollars, make it impossible for all but the truly rich to pursue study in the States without some form of financial assistance (cf Table 4.55). The fact that very few, less than 10%, of United States institutions offer aid to non-Americans compounds this problem.

As to the issues of equal access and representation of undergraduate Sub-Saharan African students in the American higher educational system, the findings of the research suggest that there is an inherent inequality in not only the representation of Sub-Saharan African Students on campuses in the United States (cf Table 4.5), but also in the ability of Sub-Saharan African students in obtaining information regarding United States study (cf 2.6.1.1). Access to information at Educational Advising Centers is not available to the same extent as in other countries and the equipment necessary to obtain it, primarily the Internet, is not freely accessible (cf Table 4.35).

United States institutions tend not to recruit in an area that they see as being "financially non-viable" although in their defense, they are limited by their budgets, institutional charters and funds made available through endowments (cf 4.2.12).

Other issues also play a role in the unequal representation of Sub-Saharan African students on United States campuses. Academic ability, test results and the institution's capability, or lack of it, in understanding African credentials also influence the attendance of these students at American schools (cf 4.2.8, 4.3.7).

Visa issuance has hindered and will continue to hinder the African student's participation at United States colleges, as long as students do not return home when their studies are completed (cf 4.2.9, 4.2.13, 4.3.8).

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

"Educational exchange can turn nations into people, contributing as no other form of communication can to the humanizing of international relations. Man's capacity for decent behavior seems to vary directly with his perception of others as individual humans with human motives and feelings, whereas his capacity of barbarism seems related to his perception of an adversary in abstract terms, as the embodiment, that is, of some evil design or ideology."

Senator J. William Fulbright, 1983

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study has been to determine the factors influencing the participation of undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa in higher education in the United States.

In this chapter, a summary will be made of the findings of the research as well as suggestions for further research.

5.2 A SYNOPSIS OF THE FINDINGS

As a result of the research conducted and described in Chapter 4 of this dissertation, it was determined that the factors determining participation on both the part of the United States institutions and the Sub-Saharan African students fall into two main categories; funding and information.

5.2.1 Issues of Funding

Chapter One (cf Figure 1.1) illustrated the fact that African students are among the least well represented of all international students on United States campuses. The research compiled in Chapter 4 has shown that the low rate of attendance (cf Table 4.4) of these students on American campuses could be attributed to a variety of factors, but primarily to the issues of cost (cf Table 4.3) and funding on the part of the United States institutions (cf Tables 4.10-4.12) and the lack of financial resources on the part of the Sub-Saharan students (cf Table 4.55).

These constraints are, most likely, here to stay. From the African student perspective, the economies of the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa are in perilous times, and at best, could only hope for modest recovery in the coming decade (Eshiwani 1999:35). Research has shown (cf Figure 4.53) that very few countries in the Sub-Saharan African region have governmental or other types of funding to assist prospective undergraduate students. Research has also shown that the average income for this region is so low (cf Figure 2.13) as to prohibit all but a few from being able to obtain adequate funding to further their studies on the undergraduate level in the United States.

So, is the answer then for United States institutions to realize that there is an inequality of international student representation and begin giving out unlimited scholarships to address this imbalance? As quickly as this might solve the problem, the reality that it could happen borders on the far side of impossible (Young 1998:2).

Since September 11, 2001 the economy of the United States has taken a sudden and dramatic downturn. As shown by historical research, one of the many things to diminish in times of fiscal trouble is funding for education (Brownstein 2001:1). Since the majority of institutions (*The College Handbook* 2002 27:1497) are public institutions and they are funding by the state in which they exist, this trend will have a far reaching effect across the United States. Reports have shown that costs, especially at four year public institutions, have already risen dramatically for the 2002-03 academic year (Brownstein 2001:1). While one cannot predict the future, economic trends tend to last for a period of years, and so the ability of United States institutions to give more aid to non-Americans, when they are permitted to do so, does not look favorable.

In the case of private institutions, especially those with large endowments, the situation differs. A few of them are beginning a new process which will allow students, no matter how financially disadvantaged, to attend as long as they can meet the admission criteria (Marcus & Hartingan 2000:1). This financial aid policy, called "need-blind" is not new, but only recently has been applied to international students and only at a handful of United States institutions (McMurtie 2000:1). What it means is that if a student can meet the admission criteria, and these institutions are at the top end of

admission difficulty range (Princeton Review 2002), then regardless of the student's ability to pay, he or she will be admitted and the institution will pay the cost. This is a step in the right direction, but one that can only be considered by institutions with strong financial backing and a strong commitment to enhancing the diversity of international students (Kellogg 2001:1). A decision to become "need-blind" for international students faces strong criticism from many in the United States in that these funds could be used to educate Americans and by giving the money to international students, they are placing financially needy United States students at a distinct disadvantage, as it widens the already competitive admissions pool (Golden 2002:2).

Another aspect to consider is that the level of difficulty and the competition of admission to these institutions are so great and international student applicants are so numerous, that a Sub-Saharan African student would have to be truly an academic prodigy to gain admission. He or she would have to score in the top 99% of the SAT exams and have extremely competitive high school results to even make the first cut-off in the admissions decisions stage (Princeton Review 2002). This is not a feasible solution for students from the African continent, where research shows that even where their high school results are in the top 5% of their high school class (cf Table 4.61), their test results and high school performance are mostly in the "average" range when compared to other international students (cf Tables 4.19 and 4.20).

United States institutions place great store in their "admissions competitiveness" and this is mostly judged by how many students that applied had consistently high SAT scores and ranked in the top levels of their high schools. If the institutions do not maintain their level of competitiveness, then their attractiveness to potential students wanes and their applicant pool drops to unacceptable levels. Hence, the reluctance of most institutions to accept students who do not meet pre-ordained admission criteria (Princeton Review 2002).

Most institutions in the United States are tuition driven, that is, they manage to continue to exist from year to year by the income generated by the tuition paid by their students. Federal funding to state institutions and donations from corporations, former students and grants from foundations to both private and state institutions, often make up the

additional funds necessary to meet running costs (Brownstein 2001:3). Federal funding for students to assist them in pursuing tertiary education is reserved solely for the use of American citizens with the only eligible non-Americans being those who possess permanent residency status (Marcus & Hartigan 2000:68). Federal funding is usually the only type of funding available at state institutions, be they four-year or two-year. This hinders, to a large extent, the ability of public institutions to become benefactors of the financially disadvantaged international student. The main type of financial contributions for international students at public institutions comes from sports scholarships, or "grants-in-aid" which do not fall under the federal funding constraints (Suggs 2002:1).

So although it might appear at first glance that United States institutions are not willing to assist, in many cases they are, when they have the means to do so. However, it would be unwise to expect the solution to the problem to come from the United States institutions alone.

5.2.2   Issues of Information
During the course of this study, research has also shown that the Sub-Saharan students are negatively affected by their inability to access information as shown in Chapter 4 (cf . 4.35). Not only is Internet access difficult for the Sub-Saharan student, it is also costly and unreliable.

Since most institutions in the United States use the Internet as part of their marketing strategy (cf Table 4.23) the inability to access these information on the part of the Sub-Saharan student means that these strategies do not work in this area and intended information is not received.

5.2.2.1   Information Concerns vis-à-vis the United States Institutions
Access to information regarding the countries that make up Sub-Saharan Africa in relation to their potential international students is vital if institutions wish to market their institutions and recruit these students (cf 4.35).

Access to information regarding credential evaluation is also important, as the research has shown that the receipt of fraudulent credentials is an area of concern for United States college admission personnel (cf Table 4.31).

Knowledge of Educational Advising offices in Sub-Saharan Africa is equally important as both marketing and validation of credentials could be done by contacting the relevant Adviser (cf Table 4.28).

5.2.2.2 Information Concerns vis-à-vis the Sub-Saharan Student

With such an enormous tertiary educational system in the United States, as outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, the ability to find pertinent information, such as which institutions offer full funding to international students, is vital to a successful application.

Several areas relating to the inability to access information were found in the research, namely;

1. *Internet access*. As United States institutions move more and more to providing information via electronic means, the ability to access the Internet becomes a crucial commodity. As shown by the research, the majority of Educational Advising Centers do not have Internet access for student use. This impacts severely on the student's ability to not only learn of institutions which are appropriate for his or her field of study, but also impacts on ascertaining which institutions might be able to offer funding (cf Table 4.49)

2. *Educational Advising*. With the majority of Educational Advisers working less than 10 hours per week, yet dealing with a substantial amount of students, the ability to impart the necessary information must be compromised (cf Tables 4.34 and 4.37).

3. *Standardized Exams*. Without information, such as study guides for standardized exams, the Sub-Saharan African student is seriously jeopardized in his or her attempt to further their studies in the United States (cf Tables 4.43 and 4.47).

4. *Visas*. If the consular officer at a given post is unaware of the existence of or the assistance that an Educational Adviser can provide when conducting visa interviews, the outcome of the student's application could be negatively affected, as shown in the results of the surveys (cf Tables 4.67 and 4. 69).

5.3   RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The following recommendations are made which would hopefully address the issue of under representation of undergraduate Sub-Saharan African students on United States tertiary campuses:

5.3.1   Exchange Programs

It is recommended that further research be conducted on the feasibility of increasing the number of exchange programs between United States institutions and their Sub-Saharan counterparts (cf 4.3.11).

As the ability to access funding on both the part of the Sub-Saharan student and the United States institution is problematic, the exchange between students could be done at little or no additional cost. Programs could be set up at tertiary institutions in various Sub-Saharan countries that would allow for the one-on-one exchange of undergraduate students, each paying his own tuition at his home institution. The only cost involved would be the airfare, as accommodations could be exchanged as well.

Although this might not allow for a full degree program to be accomplished, it would allow for substantial involvement in international education for both the United States and Sub-Saharan students.

5.3.2   Federal Funding

It is also recommended that further research be undertaken which would explore the possibility of the Federal government in the United States funding specific regions for undergraduate study in the United States.

As shown in Chapter 1, the United States benefits greatly from the presence of the international student at American campuses. In addition to the monetary aspect, there is also the exposure to another culture on its campuses, and hopefully the exposure of the

United States culture on the international student, which assists both cultures in understanding each other.

The imbalance of the African cultures on campus has been shown in this study and it could be addressed by a program similar to the Fulbright exchange program, which is funding for study by international graduate students in the United States. A program of this type could be put in place on the undergraduate level, for underrepresented international students on United States campuses.

Also, the Foreign Commercial Service (cf 4.3.6) has in the recent past, investigated the possibility of promoting United States education as part of its agenda. The Foreign Commercial Service, an arm of the United States government, has as its primary mission, the task of promoting United States businesses abroad. As the education of foreign nationals is one of the top exports within the United States, FCS could undertake a funding program as part of its promotional efforts.

5.3.3 Foundation Support

There are a variety of foundations in the United States which offer funding for education in the United States, but almost without exception, these like the Fulbright Program, are solely for graduate education. Further research could be conducted into the possibility of foundations, such as the Ford Foundation, (Lewin 2000:1) which already has a strong presence in Sub-Saharan Africa as an educational benefactor, to invest in the undergraduate student.

5.3.4 Educational Advising Services

As shown by the research in this study, Educational Advising Services (EAS) are limited in most Sub-Saharan countries. Several countries have no EAS centers. Further research could be conducted with the aim of establishing whether or not the EAS centers currently available in Sub-Saharan Africa are comparable with what is offered in other areas of the world. This study would define if the services are equal in terms of the total amount of centers, number of staff and funding as well as resources. If they are not, then recommendations could be made on how to overcome this imbalance.

The Educational and Exchange Bureau of the State Department, as outlined in Chapter 1, could also do research into the possibility of making United States institutions more aware of EAS centers and the fact that credential evaluation and general country information could be obtained from these centers, thus hopefully assisting in lessening fraudulent credential concerns.

5.4   LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

While no method of educational research is totally without its limitations, it was believed that for the purposes of this research, as outlined in Chapter 3, quantitative research, based on a random sampling and taking the form of two mail out surveys, would be the most appropriate for this study.

As a research project involving quantitative research, the main limitations can be found in erroneous assumptions that are made about the subjects under study. For example, it was assumed in this study that all students in Sub-Saharan Africa have the same level of desire and/or interest in pursuing education in the United States as do students from other parts of the globe. This might not be the case, and in itself be a reason for poor representation of Sub-Saharan students on United States campuses.

The method of research, namely mail out survey questioning, also has its limitations, primarily the response rate. While every effort was made to ensure a significant response from each institution, the result of 29% for Survey 1 was less than hoped for and could have had an impact on the validity of the findings. However, indications are that, as outlined in 4.2, the response rate was adequate enough to ensure replication should this study be repeated. Survey 2, however, provided a much more positive response rate, i.e. 89%.

As quoted in the beginning of Chapter 3, "To ask the right question is already half the solution of a problem" (Jung, Carl). The information gleaned in this study was totally dependant on the pertinence and relevance of the questions that formed each of the surveys. Also, there are inherent limitations in any type of research. Surveys tend to collect information about a segment of a population at a given time but cannot show future trends or impending changes.

The primary goal of this research was, as stated by Alreck and Settle (3.2.7), to initiate "the other half of a conversation, so there's two-way communication between the message sender and the audience" and to begin a dialogue which would allow for and hopefully encourage further research into this topic.

5.5   CONCLUSION

Africa has, for many years, been called the "dark continent". Whether this is a disparaging term or not, it does hold true for this continent's representation of international students in the United States.

With all of its troubles, Africa has astounding potential. To reach this potential, education is vital. Not only education which would allow for basic literacy skills, but also an education which would prepare the continent for its place in the global village, to allow it to become a serious world competitor.

International education is an integral part of any continent's survival. Without an international perspective, new ideas cannot flow, be examined and held as true or false.

There is no one nation that can exclusively offer the benefits of an international educational exchange. All continents have equal capacity for enriching each other. This study was conducted to explore those benefits in relation to the United States and Sub-Saharan Africa in the hope that, where inequality was found, methodologies could be put in place to address them.

"As the traveler who has once been from home is wiser than he who has never left his own doorstep, so a knowledge of one other culture should sharpen our ability to scrutinize more steadily, to appreciate more lovingly, our own".
Margaret Mead (1901-1978)

Gentlemen, I am ready for the questions to my answers."
Charles de Gaulle (1890-1970)

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APPENDIX A-1
LISTING OF THE WORKING POPULATION OF GROUP ONE AND INDICATIONS OF RESPONSES TO SURVEY ONE

The two-year colleges and private and public four-year colleges were chosen via simple, stratified, random sampling from the *2002 Higher Education Directory* according to the Carnegie Classification (Rodenhouse 2002:1-467). Institutions marked in ***italic bold*** responded to Survey One.

State, Institutional Level and Name	
ALABAMA	**MONTANA**
2-year colleges:	*2-year colleges:*
Bishop State Community College	Flathead Valley Community College
Chattahoochee Valley Community College	Helena College of Technology of the University of Montana
Lawson State Community College	Salish Kootenai College
Northwest-Shoals Community College	Stone Child College
4-year private colleges and universities:	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Huntingdon College	Carroll College
Judson College	***Rocky Mountain College***
Samford University	University of Great Falls
Spring Hill College	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 private colleges exist)
4-year public colleges and universities:	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Athens State University	***Montana State University: Billings***
Jacksonville State University	***Montana State University: Bozman***
Troy State University	***University of Montana-Missoula***
University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa	Western Montana College of the University of Montana
ALASKA	**NEBRASKA**
2-year colleges:	*2-year colleges:*
Chugiak-Eagle River	Central Community College – Columbus Campus
Kenai Peninsula College	***Mid Plains Community College***
Tanana Valley	***Northeast Community College***
Prince William Sound Community College	Western Nebraska Community College
4-year private colleges and universities:	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Alaska Bible College	Bellevue University
Alaska Pacific College	College of Saint Mary
Sheldon Jackson College	Creighton University
(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 private colleges exist)	Union College
4-year public colleges and universities:	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
University of Alaska, Anchorage	University of Nebraska – Kearney
University of Alaska, Fairbanks	***University of Nebraska – Lincoln***
University of Alaska, Southeast	University of Nebraska – Omaha

(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 public universities exist)	Wayne State College
ARIZONA	**NEVADA**
2-year colleges:	*2-year colleges:*
Arizona Western College	***Community College of Southern Nevada***
Cochise College	Great Basin College
Gateway Community College	Las Vegas College
Glendale Community College	Western Nevada Community College
4-year private colleges and universities:	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University	Morrison College
Grand Canyon University	Sierra Nevada College
Prescott College	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 2 private colleges exists)
Southwestern College	
	4-year public colleges and universities:
4-year public colleges and universities:	***University of Nevada: Las Vegas***
Arizona State University, East	University of Nevada: Reno
Arizona State University, West	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 2 public four-year colleges exist)
Northern Arizona University	
University of Arizona	**NEW HAMPSHIRE**
	2-year colleges:
ARKANSAS	Hesser College
2-year colleges:	McIntosh College
Crowley's Ridge College	New Hampshire Community Technical College: Berlin
East Arkansas Community College	New Hampshire Technical Institute
Garland County Community College	
Northwest Arkansas Community College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Daniel Webster College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Dartmouth College
Harding University	Franklin Pierce College
Lyon College	Saint Anselm College
John Brown University	
University of the Ozarks	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Keene State College
4-year public colleges and universities:	Plymouth State College of the University System of New Hampshire
Arkansas State University	University of New Hampshire, Durham
Arkansas Technical University	University of New Hampshire at Manchester
Henderson State University	
University of Central Arkansas	**NEW JERSEY**
	2-year colleges:
CALIFORNIA	Atlantic Cape Community College
2-year colleges:	Berkeley College
Alan Hancock College	Mercer County Community College
Butte College	Sussex County Community College
Gavilan College	
Yuba College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Bloomfield College
4-year private colleges and universities:	College of Saint Elizabeth

Pacific Union College	Rider University
Pepperdine University	Seton Hall University
St. Mary's College of California	
University of Southern California	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Kean University
4-year public colleges and universities:	Montclair State University
California Polytechnic State University	**Ramapo College of New Jersey**
California State University, Stanislaus	The College of New Jersey
Humboldt State University	
Sonoma State University	
	NEW MEXICO
	2-year colleges:
COLORADO	**Clovis Community College**
2-year colleges:	New Mexico Military Institute
Colorado Mountain College	New Mexico Junior College
Front Range Community College	San Juan College
Morgan Community College	
Red Rocks Community College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	College of Santa Fe
4-year private colleges and universities:	**College of the Southwest**
Colorado Christian University	St. John's College
Naropa University	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 private four-year colleges exist)
Nazarene Bible College	
University of Denver	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Eastern New Mexico State University
4-year public colleges and universities:	**New Mexico Highlands University**
Adams State College	**New Mexico Institute of Mining and Technology**
Metropolitan State College of Denver	New Mexico State University
University of Colorado, Boulder	
University of Colorado, Denver	**NEW YORK**
	2-year colleges:
CONNECTICUT	American Academy of Dramatic Arts
2-year colleges:	**Berkeley College**
Briarwood College	City University of New York: Borough of Manhattan
Naugatuck Valley Community College	Westchester Community College
Norwalk Community College	
Three Rivers Community College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Bard College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Canisius College
Albertus Magnus College	Fordham University
Connecticut College	Saint John's University
Quinnipac University	
University of Hartford	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	City University of New York: Brooklyn College
4-year public colleges and universities:	City University of New York: York College
Charter Oak State College	State University of New York at Purchase
Southern Connecticut State College	State University of New York at Plattsburgh
University of Connecticut	
Western Connecticut State University	**NORTH CAROLINA**
	2-year colleges:

DELAWARE	Alamance Community College
2-year colleges:	Forsyth Technical Community College
Delaware Technical and Community College, Central	Montgomery Community College
Delaware Technical and Community College, Owens	Sandhills Community College
Delaware Technical and Community College, Stanton Wilmington	
Delaware Technical and Community College, Terry	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Elon College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Queens College
Goldey-Beacon College	Saint Andrews Presbyterian College
United States Open University	Wingate University
Wesley College	
Wilmington College	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	East Carolina University
4-year public colleges and universities:	***North Carolina State University***
Delaware State University	***University of North Carolina at Charlotte***
University of Delaware	Western Carolina University
(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 2 public colleges exist)	
	NORTH DAKOTA
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA (WASHINGTON, D.C.)	*2-year colleges:*
2-year colleges:	***Bismark State College***
(No selections in this category could be made as there are no Community Colleges in the District of Columbia)	Lake Region State College
	Minot Sate University: Bottineau Campus
4-year private colleges and universities:	***United Tribes Technical College***
American University	
Gallaudet University	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Howard University	***Jamestown College***
The Catholic University of America	***Medcenter One College of Nursing***
	Trinity Bible College
4-year public colleges and universities:	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 private four-year colleges exist)
University of the District of Columbia	
(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 1 public college exists)	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Dickinson State University
FLORIDA	Mayville State University
2-year colleges:	Minot State University
Atlantic Coast Institute	Valley City State University
Central Florida Community College	
Florida Community College at Jacksonville	**OHIO**
Florida National College	*2-year colleges:*
	Davis College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Edison State Community college
Clearwater Christian College	Hocking Technical College
Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University	Hondros College
Flagler College	

Florida Institute of Technology	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Ashland College
4-year public colleges and universities:	***Mount Union College***
Florida Atlantic University	***Ohio Wesleyan College***
Florida State University	***Wittenberg University***
University of Florida	
University of West Florida	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Bowling Green State University
GEORGIA	Central State University
2-year colleges:	Cleveland State University
Andrew College	Kent State University, Stark Campus
The Art Institute of Atlanta	
Herzing College	**OKLAHOMA**
Middle Georgia College	*2-year colleges:*
	Carl Albert State College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Eastern Oklahoma State College
Agnes Scott College	***Tulsa Community College***
Emory University	Western Oklahoma State College
Life University	
Morehouse College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Oklahoma Baptist University
4-year public colleges and universities:	***Oral Roberts University***
Georgia State University	Southern Nazarene University
Macon State College	***University of Tulsa***
Savannah State University	
Valdosta State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Cameron University
HAWAII	***East Central University***
2-year colleges:	Northeastern Oklahoma State University
Hawaii Business College	Oklahoma Panhandle State University
Hawaii Community College	
Hawaii Tokai International College	**OREGON**
Transpacific Hawaii College	*2-year colleges:*
	Chemeketa Community college
4-year private colleges and universities:	***Linn-Benton Community College***
Brigham Young University, Hawaii Campus	Portland Community College
Chaminade University of Honolulu	***Rogue Community College***
International College and Graduate School	
Hawaii Pacific University	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Concordia University
4-year public colleges and universities:	George Fox University
University of Hawaii at Hilo	Lewis & Clark College
University of Hawaii at Manoa	Pacific University
University of Hawaii West Oahu	
(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 public colleges exist)	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Eastern Oregon University
IDAHO	***Oregon Institute of Technology***
2-year colleges:	Portland State University
College of Southern Idaho	Southern Oregon University
Eastern Idaho Technical College	
North Idaho College	**PENNSYLVANIA**
Ricks College	*2-year colleges:*

	Bucks County Community College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Delaware County Community College
Albertson College of Idaho	***Harcum College***
Boise Bible College	Manor College
Brigham Young College	
Northwest Nazarene University	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
	Albright College
4-year public colleges and universities:	***Bryn Mawr College***
Boise State University	***Drexel University***
Idaho State University	***Rosemont College***
Lewis-Clark State College	
University of Idaho	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
	Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
ILLINOIS	***California University of Pennsylvania***
2-year colleges:	Lincoln University
Black Hawk College	West Chester University of Pennsylvania
Heartland Community College	
Rock Valley College	**RHODE ISLAND**
Spoon River College	*2-year colleges:*
	Community College of Rhode Island
4-year private colleges and universities:	New England Institute of Technology
Columbia College Chicago	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 2 two-year college exists)
De Paul University	
Loyola University of Chicago	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Saint Xavier University	Brown University
	Bryant College
4-year public colleges and universities:	Johnson & Wales University
Eastern Illinois University	Providence College
Governors State University	
Northern Illinois University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Southern Illinois State University	Rhode Island College
	University of Rhode Island
INDIANA	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 2 public four-year colleges exist)
2-year colleges:	
Ancilla College	**SOUTH CAROLINA**
Holy Cross College	*2-year colleges:*
Ivy Tech State College: Central Indiana	Aiken Technical College
Vincennes University	Forrest Junior College
	Northeastern Technical college
4-year private colleges and universities:	Piedmont Technical College
Anderson University	
Bethel College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Indiana Wesleyan University	Charleston Southern University
University of Notre Dame	Coker College
	Limestone College
4-year public colleges and universities:	North Greensville College
Ball State University	
Indiana State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Indiana University – Fort Wayne	***Francis Marion University***
Purdue University	Medical University of South Carolina
	University of South Carolina, Columbia

IOWA	*Winthrop University*
2-year colleges:	
AIB College of Business	**SOUTH DAKOTA**
Hawkeye Community College	*2-year colleges:*
Iowa Central Community College	**Kilian Community College**
Waldorf College	Lake Area Technical Institute
	Mitchell Technical Institute
4-year private colleges and universities:	Southeast Technical Institute
Buena Vista University	
Drake University	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Grinnell University	Augustana College
Wartburg College	Huron University
	Mount Marty College
4-year public colleges and universities:	University of Souix Falls
Iowa State University of Science and Technology	
University of Iowa	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
University of Northern Iowa	**Black Hills State University**
(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 public colleges exist)	Dakota State University
	South Dakota State University
KANSAS	University of South Dakota
2-year colleges:	
Allen County Community college	**TENNESSEE**
Hesston College	*2-year colleges:*
Neosho County Community College	**Cleveland State Community College**
Pratt Community College	Dyersburg State Community College
	Motlow State Community College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Roane State Community College
Baker University	
Bethany College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Bethel College	**Belmont University**
Sterling College	**Carson-Newman College**
	Lee University
4-year public colleges and universities:	**Tennessee Wesleyan College**
Emporia State University	
Fort Hays State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
University of Kansas	Austin Peay State University
Wichita State University	**East Tennessee State University**
	Middle Tennessee State University
KENTUCKY	**University of Memphis**
2-year colleges:	
Ashland Community College	**TEXAS**
Hopkinsville Community College	*2-year colleges:*
Louisville Technical Institute	**Kilgore College**
Southeast Community College	Lamar State College at Port Arthur
	McLennan Community College
4-year private colleges and universities:	**Montgomery College**
Asbury College	
Bellarmine University	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Georgetown College	Schreiner University
Transylvania University	**Trinity University**
	University of Saint Thomas

4-year public colleges and universities:	Wiley College
Kentucky State University	
Morehead State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Murray State University	Lamar University
Western Kentucky University	Midwestern State University
	Prairie View A&M University
LOUISIANA	***Texas Woman's University***
2-year colleges:	
Education America -Remington College	**UTAH**
Delgado Community College	*2-year colleges:*
Louisiana Technical CollegeNorth Central Campus	College of Eastern Utah
Our Lady of the Lake College	ITT Technical Institute
	Mountain West College
4-year private colleges and universities:	***Snow College***
Centenary College of Louisiana	
Louisiana College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Loyola University New Orleans	Brigham Young University
Xavier University of Louisiana	Western Governors University
	Westminster College
4-year public colleges and universities:	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 3 private four-year colleges exist)
Grambling State University	
Louisiana State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Louisiana Tech University	***Dixie State College of Utah***
University of New Orleans	Southern Utah University
	University of Utah
MAINE	Utah State University
2-year colleges:	
Andover College	**VERMONT**
Central Maine Technical College	*2-year colleges:*
Kennebec Valley Technical College	Community College of Vermont
Mid-State College	***Landmark College***
	New England Culinary Institute
4-year private colleges and universities:	Vermont Technical College
Bates College	
Bowdoin College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Colby College	***Bennington College***
Thomas College	***Burlington College***
	Champlain College
4-year public colleges and universities:	***Woodbury College***
Maine Maritime Academy	
University of Maine	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
University of Maine at Presque Isle	Castleton State College
University of Southern Maine	Johnson State College
	Lyndon State College
MARYLAND	University of Vermont
2-year colleges:	
Allegany College	**VIRGINIA**
Howard Community College	*2-year colleges:*
Maryland College of Art and Design	New River Community College
Prince George's Community College	Paul D. Camp Community College

...

	Southside Virginia Community College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Wytheville Community College
Baltimore Hebrew University	
Hood College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Johns Hopkins University	***Randolph-Macon Woman's College***
Mount St. Mary's College	Shenandoah University
	Virginia Wesleyan College
4-year public colleges and universities:	***Washington and Lee University***
Coppin State College	
Frostburg State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Salisbury State University	Christopher Newport University
University of Maryland: University College	College of William and Mary
	George Mason University
MASSACHUSETTS	Norfolk State University
2-year colleges:	
Berkshire Community College	**WASHINGTON**
Fisher College	*2-year colleges:*
Massachusetts Bay Community College	***Big Bend Community College***
Nothern Essex Community College	***North Seattle Community College***
	Peninsula College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Whatcom Community College
Babson College	
Boston College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Mount Holyoke College	***Gonzaga University***
Tufts University	Seattle Pacific University
	Seattle University
4-year public colleges and universities:	Whitworth College
Bridgewater State College	
Fitchburg State College	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
University of Massachusetts, Boston	***Central Washington University***
Westfield State College	***Evergreen State College***
	University of Washington
MICHIGAN	Western Washington University
2-year colleges:	
Delta College	**WEST VIRGINIA**
Glen Oaks Community College	*2-year colleges:*
Lake Michigan College	Potomac State College of West Virginia University
Mott Community College	Valley College of Technology at Boone
	Valley College of Technology at Logan
4-year private colleges and universities:	West Virginia Northern Community College
Albion College	
Calvin College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Concordia College	Alderson-Broaddus College
Olivet College	Bethany College
	Davis and Elkins College
4-year public colleges and universities:	Ohio Valley College
Central Michigan University	
Grand Valley State University	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Wayne State University	Bluefield State College
Western Michigan University	***Concord College***
	Fairmont State College

MINNESOTA	West Virginia University Institute of Technology
2-year colleges:	
Central Lakes College	**WISCONSIN**
Globe College	*2-year colleges:*
Rainy River Community College	College of the Menominee Nation
Saint Cloud Technical College	Lac Courte Oreilles Ojibwa Community College
	Herzing College
4-year private colleges and universities:	University of Wisconsin - Richland
Augsburg College	
Gustavus Adolphus College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Saint Catherine's College	***Lawrence College***
Saint Olaf College	Marian College of Fond du Lac
	Mount Mary College
4-year public colleges and universities:	***Wisconsin Lutheran College***
Bemidji State University	
Minnesota State University, Mankato	*4-year public colleges and universities:*
Saint Cloud State University	University of Wisconsin – Eau Claire
Southwest State University	***University of Wisconsin – Stevens Point***
	University of Wisconsin - Stout
MISSISSIPPI	***University of Wisconsin – Superior***
2-year colleges:	
Copiah-Lincoln Community College	**WYOMING**
Meridian Community College	*2-year colleges:*
Mississippi Gulf Coast Community College	Casper College
Northwest Mississippi Community College	Central Wyoming College
	Eastern Wyoming College
4-year private colleges and universities:	Sheridan College
Belhaven College	
Blue Mountain College	*4-year private colleges and universities:*
Millsaps College	(4 selections in this category could not be made as there are no private colleges)
William Carey College	
	4-year public colleges and universities:
4-year public colleges and universities:	University of Wyoming
Alcorn State University	(4 selections in this category could not be made as only 1 four-year college exists)
Delta State University	
Mississippi State University	
University of Southern Mississippi	
MISSOURI	
2-year colleges:	
Cottey College	
Jefferson Community college	
Mineral Area College	
Three Rivers Community College	
4-year private colleges and universities:	
Drury University	
Maryville University of St. Louis	
Missouri Valley College	
Washington University in St. Louis	

4-year public colleges and universities:	
Central Missouri State University	
Harris Stowe State College	
Missouri Southern State College	
University of Missouri: St. Louis	

The following are the additions to the population of Group One chosen via simple, stratified (4-year private and 4-year public institutions only), random, sampling to equalize the distribution of sub-groups.

4-year private colleges and universities (5 required)
Bay Path College (Massachusetts)
Florida Southern College (Florida)
Hillsdale College (Michigan)
St. Bonaventure University (New York)
Westminster College (Pennsylvania)
4-year public colleges and universities (9 required)
Angelo State University (Texas)
Fashion Institute of New York (New York)
Ferris State University (Michigan)
The Ohio State University (Ohio)
Old Dominion University (Virginia)
The Pennsylvania State University (Pennsylvania)
Rowan University (New Jersey)
State University of New York College of Technology at Canton (New York)
University of South Florida (Florida)

Total of Surveys sent to Group One: 594

Total Responses from Group One: 173

Response Rate for Group One: 29%

APPENDIX A-2

LISTING OF THE WORKING POPULATION OF GROUP TWO
AND INDICATIONS OF RESPONSES TO SURVEY TWO

The following Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa, chosen from the *Directory of Overseas Educational Advising Centers* (Farhat (ed.) 2000) and where necessary from the ADSEC/OSEAS website (<http://oead.ac.at/fulbright/oseas_adsec/>) form the working population group for Survey Two. The countries highlighted in italic bold indicate that a response was received.

COUNTRY
1. *Angola*
2. *Benin*
3. *Burkina Faso*
4. *Cameroun*
5. *Chad*
6. *Congo*
7. *Cote D'Ivoire*
8. Eritrea
9. *Ethiopia*
10. *Ghana*
11. *Guinea*
12. *Kenya*
13. Liberia
14. *Madagascar*
15. *Malawi*
16. *Mali*
17. *Mauritania*
18. *Mauritius*
19. *Mozambique*
20. *Niger*
21. *Nigeria*
22. *Senegal*
23. *South Africa*
24. *Swaziland*
25. *Tanzania*
26. Togo
27. *Uganda*
28. *Zimbabwe*

Total of Surveys sent to Group Two: 28

Total Responses from Group Two: 25

Response Rate for Group Two: 89%

APPENDIX B   QUESTIONNAIRE GROUP ONE

February 18, 2002

Dear International Admissions Counselor,

My name is Roberta Paola. I am currently doing research in my private capacity, for a dissertation entitled "Factors Influencing the Participation of Undergraduate Students from Sub-Saharan Africa in Higher Education in the United States of America."

I have been employed as the Educational Adviser at the United States Consulate in Durban, South Africa for the last fourteen years. As such, I assist those in South Africa who wish to study in the United States.

The subject matter of my dissertation is of tremendous importance to me and to those whom I assist in their quest to further their studies in the United States.

It is the purpose of my research to attempt to identify the various factors that could affect the flow of Sub-Saharan undergraduate students to the United States in order to suggest possible solutions.

I am particularly interested in the opinions of postsecondary institutions in the United States. To this end I have designed a survey which is being sent to various 2-year colleges as well as 4-year private and public tertiary institutions in each of the fifty states. Your institution was randomly selected to form part of the survey sampling.

I have tried to ascertain the correct person at your institution who deals with international student admission. If this survey has reached you in error, could you please forward it to the correct person on your campus?

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers to the questions in the survey. While the listing of institutions that have been contacted and those who have responded to this survey will be stated in an Appendix, the particular responses will be treated, at all times, as confidential.

Your participation in this survey research would be greatly appreciated and hopefully will result in more students from the Sub-Saharan African area being able to participate in American tertiary education.

I estimate that the time to complete the survey is between 10-15 minutes. I would be extremely grateful if you could respond by **March 4, 2002.**

You may complete the survey, which is attached in "Word 7.0" format, and return it to me via email at: usisdbn@iafrica.com or to: paolarj@state.gov. Alternatively, you may fax it to: R. Paola, 011 27 31 5632399. I have also pasted the survey at the bottom of this letter, should you not be able to view the attachment.

I look forward to hearing from you!

Regards,
Roberta James Paola
Durban, South Africa

...

Survey to Two and Four Year Colleges and Universities in the United States

Topic: "Factors Influencing the Participation of Undergraduate Students from Sub-Saharan Africa in Higher Education in the United States of America."

Please return to: Roberta Paola. Email: usisdbn@iafrica.com or paolarj@state.gov or by fax to: (International dialing code: 011) (Country code: 27) (City code:31) Fax number: 3042847.

Instructions: Please indicate (with an "X") one response only to each question *unless indicated otherwise.* I would appreciate it greatly if you could respond and return the survey by *March 4, 2002.* A listing of Sub-Saharan countries can be found on the last page of this survey.

1. In what state are you located?

   A. _____

   B. I prefer not to answer.

2. What type of institution do you represent?

   A. Two year college

   B. Four year private college or university

   C. Four year public college or university

   D. I prefer not to answer

3. What is the size of your undergraduate enrolment?

   A. 1 – 999

   B. 1,000 – 3,999

   C. 4,000 – 9,999

   D. 10,000 – 14,999

   E. 15, 000 and over

4. What is the approximate cost for a full academic year, including tuition, fees, room and board (if applicable) for an international undergraduate student?

   A. $1,000 - $9,999

   B. $10,000 - $14,999

C. $15,000 – $19,999

D. $20,000 - $24,999

E. $25,000 - $29,999

F. $30,000 - $34,999

G. $35,000 and above

5. What percentage of international students makes up your undergraduate student body?

A. 0 – 0.9%

B. 1% - 1.9%

C. 2% - 4.9%

D. 5 % - 10%

E. Over 10%

F. I don't know

6. What percentage of your undergraduate international student population originates from Sub-Saharan Africa? (For a listing of countries that comprise Sub-Saharan Africa, see page eight).

A. 0 – 0.9%

B. 1% - 1.9%

C. 2% - 4.9%

D. 5 % - 10%

E. Over 10%

F. I don't know

7. In your opinion, what impact, if any, does the geographical location of your institution play in the attendance of international students on your campus?

A. Positive impact

B. Negative impact

C. No impact at all

8. Does your institution have housing for international students?

A. Yes, during the academic year only

B. Yes, during the academic year as well as during breaks and summer

C. No, our campus has no housing for international students

9. Over the last ten years (from 1991 to 2001) has your enrolment of undergraduate Sub-Saharan African students:
   A. Increased
   B. Decreased
   C. Remained the same
   D. I don't know

10. Do you have any plans to increase international student enrolment from Sub-Saharan Africa on your campus in the future?
    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. I don't know

11. Does your institution provide any funding for international based on academic or other forms of merit?
    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. I don't know

12. Does your institution provide any funding for international students based on financial need?
    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. I don't know

13. Does your institution provide funding for international students that would cover the entire cost (tuition, fees, and room and board) of attendance at your institution?
    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. I don't know

14. Do you have funding specifically for international students from particular geographical areas, such as Africa?

    A. Yes

    B. No

    C. I don't know

15. If your answer to question 14 was yes, please list the countries that you have funding for:

16. To what degree does the international student's ability to pay influence a decision to admit him/her to your institution?

    A. None at all

    B. Some

    C. Admission is based entirely on ability to pay

    D. I don't know

17. Does your institution waive the application fee on request from international students?

    A. No

    B. Yes

18. If your institution does not already fully fund undergraduate international students, do you feel that it would be willing to consider such a step?

    A. Yes

    B. No

    C. I don't know

    D. Not applicable, we do offer full funding

19. What entrance exams do you require for admission? (mark all that apply)

    A. SAT I

    B. SAT I and SAT II

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C. TOEFL

D. None

E. Other (please specify)

20. If an international student can supply acceptable proof that he is a native English speaker, will you waive the TOEFL requirement?

A. Yes

B. No

C. This does not apply to our institution

21. In your experience, do students from Sub-Saharan Africa submit applications that show test results that are:

A. Extremely competitive, in the top 1% of all applicants

B. Very strong, in the top 5% of all applicants

C. Strong results, in the top 10% of all applicant

D. Average results

E. Below average results

F. This does not apply to our institution as we require no admission tests

22. In your experience, do students from Sub-Saharan Africa submit applications that show high school academic results that are:

A. Extremely competitive, in the top 1% of all applicants

B. Very strong, in the top 5% of all applicants

C. Strong results, in the top 10% of all applicant

D. Average results

E. Below average results

23. Please rank in order, (with 1 being the most important) what your institution considers to be of most importance when considering applicants from Sub-Saharan Africa for admission:

A. English proficiency

B. Strong academic ability based on high school transcripts

C. Strong academic ability based on standardized admissions tests

...

D. Ability to pay

E. Extra curricular involvement

F. Essays

G. Country of origin

H. Other (please specify)

24. Once a student from Sub-Saharan Africa has been admitted to your campus, do you often find that admission is delayed or canceled due to difficulty experienced by the student in obtaining a visa?

A. Yes

B. No

C. I don't know

25. How does your institution promote itself to international students from Sub-Saharan Africa? (Mark all that apply)

A. We don't

B. Via mailings to Educational Advising Centers throughout the world

C. Via the Internet (World Wide Web home pages)

D. College Fairs/Faculty travel outside the United States

E. I don't know

F. Other (please specify) _____

26. Does your institution attempt to recruit an equal geographical diversity of international students on your campus?

A. Yes

B. No

C. I don't know

27. Does your institution offer exchange programs on an undergraduate level with students from Sub-Saharan Africa?

A. Yes, there are such programs available

B. No, no such programs exist at our institution

C. I don't know

28. In your opinion, do you believe that your institution is interested in recruiting more undergraduate students from Sub-Saharan Africa?

    A. Yes

    B. No

    C. I don't know

29. To what extent do you rely on the Internet or other electronic means to provide international students with information and application procedures?

    A. Entirely

    B. To some degree

    C. Not at all

    D. I don't know

30. Are you aware of Educational Advising Centers based outside the United States, which offer information on United States educational institutions?

    A. Yes

    B. No

31. What method does your institution use to evaluate international credentials?

    A. We use in-house evaluators

    B. We use an independent credential evaluating company

    C. We use Educational Advisers based in the student's home country to assist us

    D. Other (please specify)

32. Do you feel that your admissions department has a strong understanding of educational credentials from other countries?

    A. Yes, definitely

    B. Yes, generally, but we often need clarification

    C. No, we need more information to assess transcripts from other countries

33. Does your institution ever have occasion to question the veracity of the credentials submitted to you by Sub-Saharan African applicants?

    A. No, never

    B. Occasionally

    C. This happens fairly often

    D. This happens on a regular basis

    E. I don't know

34. In your opinion, what is the greatest obstacle that prospective Sub-Saharan African students face when applying to your institution?

    A. Academic readiness

    B. English proficiency

    C. Lack of information about our institution

    D. Funding

    E. Visa

    F. Other (please specify)_____   _____

35. Do you feel your institution could do more to recruit international students, specifically those from Sub-Saharan Africa?

    A. Yes*

    B. No

    C. I don't know

    *If you answered "Yes" to the above question, please explain how

36. Do you have any additional comments? Please list them below.

Thank you for your time. I look forward to receiving your responses, which will be of extreme importance, as they will form the basis of my research in this topic

Sub-Saharan Africa is comprised of the following countries:

Angola	Gambia	Reunion
Benin	Ghana	Rwanda
Botswana	Guinea	Sao Tome and Principe
Burkina Faso	Guinea Bissau	Senegal
Burundi	Kenya	Seychelles
Cameroun	Lesotho	Sierra Leone
Cape Verde	Liberia	Somalia
Central African Republic	Madagascar	South Africa
Chad	Malawi	Swaziland
Comoros	Mali	Tanzania
Congo (DRC)	Mauritania	Togo
Cote D'Ivoire	Mauritius	Uganda
Djibouti	Mozambique	Zambia
Eritrea	Namibia	Zimbabwe
Ethiopia	Niger	
Gabon	Nigeria	

APPENDIX C   QUESTIONNAIRE GROUP TWO

February 18, 2002

Dear Fellow Advisers,

Most of you know me, my name is Roberta Paola and I am the Educational Adviser in Durban, South Africa. I am writing to ask for your assistance.

I am currently doing research in my private capacity, for a dissertation entitled "Factors Influencing the Participation of Undergraduate Students from Sub-Saharan Africa in Higher Education in the United States of America." I have been working on this project for nearly a year now, and I do feel that the research compiled as a result of this effort will assist us all in our quest to ensure that more students from Sub-Saharan Africa are represented on America's campuses.

I know how limited your time is and how many demands are placed upon it. I know that the last thing we look forward to in our busy days is another survey to complete. I have attempted to design the survey so that it will take a minimum of your time and effort.

There are no "right" or "wrong" answers to the questions in the survey. While the Advising Centers that have been contacted and who respond to this survey will be stated in an Appendix, the particular responses will be treated, at all times, as confidential.

Your participation in this survey research will be greatly appreciated and hopefully will result in more students from the Sub-Saharan African area being able to participate in American tertiary education.

I estimate that the time to complete the survey is between 15-25 minutes. I would be extremely grateful if you could respond no later than **March 4, 2002.**

You may complete the survey, which is attached in "Word 7.0" format, and return it to me via email at: usisdbn@iafrica.com or to: paolarj@state.gov. Alternatively, you may fax it to: R. Paola, 011 27 31 5632399. I have also pasted the survey at the bottom of this letter, should you not be able to view the attachment.

I look forward to hearing from you!

Regards,

Roberta James Paola
Durban, South Africa

Survey of Educational Advising Centers in Sub-Saharan Africa

Topic: "Factors Influencing the Participation of Undergraduate Students from Sub-Saharan Africa in Higher Education in the United States of America."

Please return to: Roberta James Paola. Email: usisdbn@iafrica.com *or* paolarj@state.gov *or* by fax to: (Country code 27) (City code 31) Fax number: 5632399

Instructions: Please indicate (*by placing an "X"*) one response only to each question unless indicated otherwise. I would appreciate it greatly if you could respond and return the survey no later than *March 4, 2002.*

1. How many hours, based on a forty-hour week, do you devote to Advising?
   A. 1 – 9
   B. 10 – 14
   C. 15 – 19
   D. 20 – 24
   E. 25 – 29
   F. 30 – 34
   G. 35 – 40

2. Do you have other job responsibilities besides Educational Advising at your place of employment (i.e. – Cultural Assistant, etc.)?
   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. I prefer not to answer

3. If the answer to Question #2 is "yes", please answer the following:
   A. I spend the majority of my working time with Educational Advising
   B. I spend the majority of my time with other job responsibilities besides Advising

   C. I prefer not to answer
   D. This question is not applicable to me as I answered "no" to question #2

4. During an average week, how many contacts do you have regarding study on the undergraduate level in the United States (include in-person, telephone, email, and letter)?
   A. 0 – 10
   B. 11 – 49
   C. 50 - 99
   D. 100 – 199
   E. Over 200

5. Do you feel that the hours you are assigned to Advising Services are sufficient to meet the needs of your Advising clients and workload?
   A. Yes, I have enough time to deal with all the advising workload and clientele

   B. Occasionally I need more time to handle the workload
   C. Most of the time I could use more hours to manage the advising workload

   D. I find that all of the time I need more hours to carry out my advising responsibilities
   E. I prefer not to answer

6. Do you charge for advising services or advising materials?
   A. Yes
   B. No

7. In your opinion, do you think that charging for services hinders people from seeking your services?
   A. Yes
   B. No
   C. I choose not to answer

8. Do United States college and university representatives come to your country to recruit undergraduate students?
   A. Yes
   B. No

C. I don't know

9. If United States college and university representatives were to come to your country to recruit, would you be able to assist them in meeting appropriate students?
   A. Yes
   B. No

10. How many times a year is the SAT offered in your country?
    A. 1 time a year
    B. 2 times a year
    C. 3 times a year
    D. 4 times a year
    E. 5 times or more a year
    F. Never

11. Do prospective undergraduate students who make use of your Center have access to SAT I **and** SAT II test preparation materials *(in addition to the free sample test from ETS)?*
    A. Yes, both SAT I and all SAT II subject test preparation materials are available

    B. We have only SAT I study preparation material available
    C. We have SAT I and only some of the SAT II study guides available
    D. No, we have no study preparation materials available for either the SAT I or the SAT II

12. Does your country have SAT test preparation schools or courses?
    A. Yes
    B. No
    C. I don't know

13. How many times a year is the *paper and pencil* TOEFL offered in your country?
    A. 1 time a year
    B. 2 times a year
    C. 3 times a year

D. 4 times a year

E. 5 times or more a year

F. Never

14. How many times is the *computer-based* TOEFL offered in your country each year?

    A. 1 time a year

    B. 2 times a year

    C. 3 times a year

    D. 4 times a year

    E. On demand

    F. Never

15. Does your center have TOEFL test preparation materials available for student use?

    A. Yes, we have both the paper and pencil and computer adaptive study guides
       available

    B. We have only paper and pencil TOEFL preparation available

    C. We have only computer adaptive TOEFL materials available

    D. We have no TOEFL test preparation materials available

16. In your opinion, are students in your country negatively affected by the computer-
    based TOEFL exam?

    A. Yes

    B. No

    C. I don't know

17. Is Internet access easily accessible available in your country?

    A. Yes

    B. No

18. Is Internet access affordable to the general public in your country?

    A. Yes

    B. No

19. Are Internet connections reliable and generally of a speed acceptable to users?

A. Yes

B. No

20. Do you have Internet access for student's use in your Center?

A. Yes

B. No

21. Does your government of the country in which you work offer scholarships for its citizens to pursue undergraduate study in the United States?

A. Yes

B. No

C. I don't know

22. Are you aware of any organizations, companies or foreign governments within the country in which you work that offer scholarship assistance to prospective undergraduates to study in the United States?

A. Yes

B. No

C. I don't know

23. What percentage of qualified prospective undergraduates can afford to study in the United States without some type of financial assistance?

A. 0% - 5%

B. 6% – 10%

C. 11% - 15%

D. 16% - 19%

E. Over 20%

24. Do qualified prospective undergraduate students from your country limit their choices of US institutions to those colleges or universities who have the ability to offer a full or very substantial scholarship or financial aid?

A. Yes, students always choose an institution that will offer them some type of funding

B. Students usually chose institutions based on the availability of funding

C. Students generally do not care if funding is available

D. Availability of full funding makes no difference at all in a student's choice of institutions

E. I don't know

25. How do the majority of the prospective undergraduate students at your center fund their studies?

A. Family (local or overseas)

B. Private sources (i.e. Church groups, overseas relatives, business sponsors)

C. Scholarships or financial aid from US institutions (including sport scholarships)

D. Home country government sponsorship

E. Other (please identify)

26. Do you have a branch of the Foreign and Commercial Service at your United States Consulate or Embassy?

A. Yes

B. No

C. I don't know

27. Students who are accepted for undergraduate study in the United States and receive some type of funding from that institution usually

A. Are exceptional, that is in the top 1% of our country's high school students academically

B. Are very good students, in the top 5% of our country's high school students

C. Are above average, but have other talents such as athletic ability or art talent

D. Are average students

28. Please rank in order (1 being the most important) the factors that undergraduate students from your center find most important when choosing an institution in the US:

A. Location

B. Number of other international African or African-American students on campus

C. Availability of funding

D. Academic reputation in the student's field of study

E. Size

F. Other (please specify)

29. Academically, students who are accepted at United States tertiary institutions for undergraduate study usually fall into the

    A. Top 1% of their home country high school students

    B. Top 5% of the of their home country high school students

    C. Top 10% of their home country high school students

    D. Top 25% of their home country high school students

    E. Average academic category

30. Once a student from your Center has been accepted for undergraduate study in the United States, does that student experience difficulty in obtaining a visa?

    A. Yes, there is always some problem

    B. Occasionally the student experiences a problem

    C. The student only experiences a problem if their papers are not in order

    D. No, our students generally do not encounter problems when requesting a visa

31. Do your students face more problems in obtaining a visa if they are applying to 2-year colleges?

    A. Yes

    B. No

    C. I don't know

32. If a student experiences a problem in obtaining a visa, does the visa officer at your Consulate or Embassy ever discuss this with you to try and assist the student?

    A. Yes, always

    B. Yes, sometimes

    C. Yes, very rarely

D. No, never

E. This is not applicable to me

33. Please rank in order, with 1 being the most difficult, what you believe to be the greatest challenges prospective undergraduates from your country face when contemplating study in the United States.

A. Academic readiness

B. English proficiency

C. Lack of information about United States institutions

D. Funding

E. Visa

F. Testing requirements

G. Other (please list and rank)

34. To the best of your knowledge, do students from your country choose an institution based on its proximity to your country so as to lessen travel costs?

A. Students usually chose an institution that is the least expensive to travel to

B. Geographical location makes no difference to students choices

C. Students occasionally make a choice based on location

D. I don't know

35. Does the availability of student housing make a difference to student's choices?

A. Yes, students will choose an institution that will offer them housing for all 12 months of the year

B. Students usually are interested in institutions that offer housing for the academic year

C. Students generally do not care if housing is available

D. Availability of housing makes no difference at all in a student's choice of institutions

E. I don't know

36. Are you aware of United States institutions that offer exchange programs on an undergraduate level with students from your country?

A. Yes, there are such programs available

B. No, no such programs exist in my country

C. I don't know

37. Any additional comments? Please list them below.

Dear Advisers,

Thank you very much for your time. I look forward to receiving your responses, as they will form the basis for my research. Your input is extremely valuable to me and is very much appreciated. To complete my research on time, please could you let me have your responses by March 4, 2002.

Take care,

Roberta Paola