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CULTURE SHOCK AND ITS EFFECTS ON
AMERICAN TEACHERS IN OVERSEAS SCHOOLS:
AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

A Dissertation Presented

By

THEODORE WARNER CALHOUN

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

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Education

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ABSTRACT

CULTURE SHOCK AND ITS EFFECTS ON
AMERICAN TEACHERS IN OVERSEAS SCHOOLS:
AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

(February 1977)

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The study explores culture shock, its symptoms and their effects on a group of fifty American teachers who are in their first position abroad at one of five overseas schools located in Western Europe. An explanation of culture shock and its causes is offered, based largely on writings in anthropology and other cross-cultural fields.

Purposes and Objectives

A comprehensive review of the literature concerning culture shock not only shows the historical development of the understanding of this phenomenon but provides a catalogue of many symptoms which have been observed by other authors. Based upon readings, interviews and personal experience, the writer offers five hypotheses concerning causal relationships in connection with culture shock, namely, that five factors can help reduce culture shock effects. They are: 1) more and varied prior teaching

experience; 2) positive cross-cultural motives and expectations concerning the move overseas; 3) prior knowledge of the host language; 4) extensive orientation upon arrival; 5) help in getting settled-in after arrival. The study aims to identify culture shock symptoms, to collect data relevant to hiring and orientation procedures, to explore the idea that culture shock can be a learning experience and to point out directions for further research.

Methods of Inquiry

Data were obtained through mailed questionnaires which had been written and field-tested by the author. Closed questions, agree-disagree items and a modified semantic differential were used to obtain information relevant to the education and training of the respondent, his reasons for and hopes about going overseas, the orientation program of the school and the symptoms of culture shock he experienced during the first four months at his new position. These data were analyzed across the sample to discover the frequency of individual symptoms and, within each questionnaire, to determine the number of symptoms per teacher. Finally, a cross check was made with respect to all of the factors which were represented in the hypotheses. The use of simple percentages was consistent with the exploratory nature of the study and the size of the sample. Tendencies were sought and trends noted.

Trends and Implications

The study established that many of the symptoms of culture shock

were experienced by the sample and that several of these symptoms existed for many of the teachers. One quarter of the symptoms were manifested by less than 25% of the sample. The data showed that about 14 symptoms was the average for this group.

There were indications that teachers with more and varied experience adjusted better, and that the same was true for those with positive cross-cultural motives and expectations. Intermediate knowledge of the host language seems to be the best for easy adjustment. A tendency toward an inverse relationship between the amount of orientation offered new teachers and the number of culture shock symptoms was noted; in addition, it seemed that help getting settled-in aided adjustment.

On the basis of the data and the indicated trends, suggestions are made relevant to hiring procedures, orientation programs and further research. While recognizing the exploratory nature of the study and its limitations, the author points out that culture shock is a necessary, and perhaps beneficial, aspect of cross-cultural experiences and that positive learning often results. Finally, a plea is made for research concerning the effects culture shock has on children, since that group has not yet been investigated in this context.

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C H A P T E R I

THE PROBLEM: "What happened to my excitement and enthusiasm"¹

Introduction

Culture shock, while not exactly a household word, exists as a concept which partially explains the quite human reactions which usually occur within an individual who spends a significant time in a foreign setting. It is a phenomenon which represents a particular problem in the general area of acculturation and seems to be, to a greater or lesser degree, an integral part of the process of adaptation to another culture.

The significance of the concept can be best understood in the light of a definition of culture. Philip Bock offers a very helpful one: "Culture, in its broadest sense, is what makes you a stranger when you are away from home. It includes all those beliefs and expectations about how people should speak and act which have become a kind of second nature to you as a result of social learning."² As a stranger in another culture, a person acts and reacts differently to the new stimuli. Culture shock is an outward manifestation of the often unexpected reactions which take place.

¹All titles, sub-titles and sub-headings in quotation marks, unless otherwise noted, are direct quotations from marginal notes on questionnaires completed by teachers in the study's sample.

²Philip K. Bock, Culture Shock: A Reader in Modern Cultural Anthropology (New York: A. A. Knopf, 1970), p. 17.

Most Americans who live overseas are faced with the problem of adaptation. They have been transplanted, voluntarily or involuntarily, from their familiar culture to an alien one. Probably all of them experience the phenomenon of culture shock. The nature of this experience and the extent to which it affects them undoubtedly varies widely. The purpose of this study is to explore this subject with respect to a special category of people, namely, Americans teaching overseas.

Need for the Study: "I'm So Disoriented; Tennessee Was
Never Like This."³

As will be shown below, the literature documents the existence of culture shock and indicates that often negative effects accompany the phenomenon. The presence of a significant number of American teachers abroad is substantiated as well.

Statistics from International Schools Services⁴ and the U. S. State Department's Office of Overseas Schools⁵ show that in more than three hundred overseas schools, over 10,000 teachers are working with approximately 110,000 pupils. About 5,500 of these teachers are Americans living in a foreign culture.

³This statement was made to the writer in Berlin on September 27, 1976 by a teacher who was explaining why he felt it necessary to break his contract after only six weeks of teaching at his first overseas job. He resigned four days later.

⁴Overseas Schools Enrolling American Students, 1972-73 (Princeton: International Schools Services, In-house document, 1973).

⁵An Investment in Human Futures (Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1971).

The problem to be studied is expressed by the following two questions:

- 1) What effect does culture shock have on American teachers in overseas schools?
- 2) Should these effects be avoided, ameliorated or reduced and if so, how?

Four sources provide data to substantiate that this problem exists.

One source is the literature. Sven Lundstedt, a psychologist, stated that stress caused by culture shock leads to "emotional and intellectual withdrawal."⁶ Barbara Anderson, expressing an anthropological opinion, wrote that before adjusting to a new cultural environment, a person experiences "a resultant failure in appropriate response mechanisms. . . a derangement of control. . . a neurotic condition."⁷ Alvin Toffler maintained that this condition "causes a breakdown in communication, a misreading of reality, an inability to cope."⁸ Throughout the literature the implication is that peace of mind, efficiency and professional effectiveness are decreased under this condition. Based on such observations, the nature of culture shock and its effects truly need exploration.

⁶Sven Lundstedt, "An Introduction to Some Evolving Problems in Cross-Cultural Research," Journal of Social Issues, 19, No. 3 (July 1963), p. 3.

⁷Barbara G. Anderson, "Adaptive Aspects of Culture Shock," American Anthropologist, 73, No. 5 (Oct. 1971), p. 1121.

⁸Alvin Toffler, Future Shock (New York: Random House, Inc., Bantam Books, 1971), p. 11.

A priori data comes from a second source. To mention only a few examples, the U. S. Department of State, the Agency for International Development and the Peace Corps have training components which are designed to prevent, counteract or at least alleviate the negative effects of culture shock. Although the overseas schools are neither equipped nor funded to provide similar preparation for new teachers, the schools do have orientation programs and procedures which may last up to a week prior to the beginning of school. The problem, therefore, is recognized by the people who make policy in the agencies and schools mentioned.

Experienced overseas administrators and teachers also substantiate the existence of this problem. Many of these people have expressed such a belief to the author. Dr. Ronald Jackson, a Fulbright scholar and formerly a school administrator in Taipei and Frankfurt, urged me to study the problem.⁹ Dr. John Sly, who has twelve years of overseas experience and who now directs International Schools Services, said that since the schools could not train their teachers prior to arrival, it was necessary to find ways to identify those teachers who could perform effectively as soon as possible and also ways to counteract the negative effects of culture shock.¹⁰ During a conversation in April, 1969 Mr. Jack Harrison, now Headmaster at London

⁹Conversation with Dr. Jackson in Amherst, Mass. on November 17, 1972.

¹⁰Two interviews with Dr. Sly, one in Washington on April 4, 1972 and one in New York on January 25, 1973.

and formerly at Beirut, Frankfurt and Paris, maintained that, during the month of September, an overseas school had to make a strong commitment to fulfilling the physical and emotional needs of the new teachers; otherwise, the school could expect to have a bad year.¹¹ His point was that, if not alleviated, the effects of culture shock could cause problems for the rest of the school year.

A fourth data source, the author's own experience and observation during eight years of overseas teaching and administration, confirms the existence of the problem and the need for its exploration.

As will be demonstrated in the following chapter, the paucity of literature which systematically investigates culture shock shows a need for more study. The phenomenon's relevance to U. S. teachers abroad has been indicated above. It is necessary to consider the importance of such an exploration.

Importance of the Study

To understand better human behavior is a major goal in many professions and academic areas. Discovery and definition of factors which affect that behavior are inherent to such a goal. This study aims at extending such understanding.

¹¹ Interview with Mr. Harrison in Frankfurt, Germany on April 7, 1969.

Since there is sufficient indication that culture shock has a significant effect upon persons in a culture new to them and, as there are more and more American teachers serving overseas, an original investigation linking these could lead to new insights in the general field of human behavior.

The author has found no evidence to show that culture shock has been systematically studied with respect to its symptoms. As will be indicated below, descriptions of culture shock have been anecdotal. This exploratory study tries to approach a closer definition of this phenomenon's symptoms.

Similarly, the study addresses a discrete group, namely, American teachers serving in overseas schools, in the light of a special dimension, that is, culture shock and its effects on the group. A thorough search of the literature produced no earlier investigation of this sort. In this sense, the originality of the study seems established. The existence of thousands of such teachers overseas and, in addition, their possible effects on many more children of all nationalities increases the import of such research.

Finally, the goal of discovering directions for further investigation concerning these subjects, with special emphasis on reducing negative effects, gave additional impetus for the study. These justifications were buttressed by the author's personal inclinations.

The Author's Interest in the Problem

Cross-cultural experiences have been part and parcel of the writer's personal and professional life for more than seventeen years. An inter-cultural marriage, a bi-lingual family, extensive overseas schools experience and frequent travel have given him significant motivation to investigate culture shock from this specific point of view. Constant opportunity to observe others during initial cross-cultural experiences naturally led to an interest in the process of adaptation to another environment. The most obvious question which continually came to mind concerned the reasons for easy or difficult and painful adaptation or, in extreme cases, the total failure to come to terms with an alien culture.

Unexpected, middle-of-the-year resignations, with the subsequent personal and professional ramifications for the teacher and the crisis caused at the school, are only extreme examples which indicate the problem. Preventing such situations, either by careful interviewing and hiring or by sufficient orientation and support for the newly-hired teachers, has been a professional challenge for this writer. The study aims to provide additional guidelines for the staffing of overseas schools, thereby helping the author and his overseas colleagues in this crucial task. In order to do so, a careful definition of the parameters was, of course necessary.

The Limits of the Study Defined: "I Won't Know How to Act
Back Home."

Culture shock has broad connotations. It refers to a condition which seems to afflict people in any new cultural environment, with little regard to the degree of difference between the new milieu and the individual's own frame of reference. While reviewing the literature, the author narrowed the scope of his investigation.

The very specific problems faced by anthropologists who enter a new field situation, often in a culture at the opposite extreme of the spectrum, has relevance only in a general way. The Peace Corps experience has been examined to help identify possible symptoms and patterns. It, too, lacks direct relevance because, like anthropologists in the field, Peace Corps volunteers were most often isolated in relatively "exotic" cultures and had received significant and specific cross-cultural training. The expectations and experiences of both categories differ from those of overseas teachers.

Similarly, studies concerning foreigners living in the United States, while informative for background material, lacked pertinence, in that the majority of the subjects were from "less developed countries" and also had different motives and expectations. Nonetheless, the similarities and discrepancies between their experiences and those of Americans overseas indicate intriguing possibilities for further research.

Finally, the concept of "reverse culture shock," described by the

Gullahorns¹², lies outside the parameters of this study. The initial cross-cultural experience was concentrated upon. A follow-up study would be necessary to investigate the process of re-acculturation to the United States after returning from an extended stay abroad.

As will be seen below, the focus was determined by the sample group explored. The author concentrated on American teachers used to a very high standard of living who were transplanted to Western Europe, which has considerable similarity to the United States. Additionally, these teachers were working at American overseas schools, and hence, were not culturally isolated. They worked with American teachers and children and usually used English at school. One of the study's purposes was to investigate culture shock within these specific conditions.

Procedures and Sources

The initial impetus for the study came from the author's experience and observations. Various interviews, mentioned above, and exploratory research led to a definition of the problem and the structuring of a research proposal. Raw data was obtained from a carefully defined sample of teachers who were actually faculty members at overseas schools in Western Europe when they responded to a self-constructed questionnaire. The tabulation and analysis of these data was done manually by the author.

¹²J. T. Gullahorn and J. E. Gullahorn, "An Extension of the U-curve Hypothesis," Journal of Social Issues, 19, No. 3 (1963), 33-46.

Literature research was carried out in many different locations. The libraries of the University of Massachusetts at Amherst and the Free University of Berlin were used extensively. Specialized literature was located in the libraries of the Peace Corps and the Foreign Service Institute, both in Washington, The Institute of International Education in New York and the School for International Training in Brattleboro, Vermont. The staff members of those smaller libraries were especially helpful. Without their assistance, the writer would not have found valuable sources.

An evaluation of the literature and the motives for the study determined that the study should be exploratory in nature, leading to conclusions which are tentative and indicate tendencies rather than statistically proven facts.

Order of Presentation

The study reviews the literature, surveying the reports concerning culture shock which have been written during the last twenty-five years. The lack of scientific studies on the subject is noted, as is the fact that the author found no evidence that any specific attention had been given to teachers overseas. Possible symptoms of culture shock are culled from the sources; these also provided the data from which hypotheses were formulated.

Following the literature review, the methodology of the study is described. Its general purposes and specific objectives are set forth, including an explanation of the hypotheses. The rationale for the research

approach taken, for the selection of the sample, for the type of data collected and for its analysis and assessment is given detailed exposition. The limitations of the study are noted.

The fourth section presents the data which resulted from the mailed questionnaires. This presentation follows the structure specifically imposed by the general purposes of the study and its specific objectives.

The final chapter is concerned with the conclusions which can be drawn from the data. The exploratory nature of the study was conceived with the fore-knowledge that the conclusions would be tentative and show tendencies concerning culture shock. These, in turn, have indicated the direction further research could take.

The problem of culture shock and its effect on American teachers in overseas schools is not solved, although the study leads to a better understanding of it. An investigation of some of the commentary on the phenomenon of culture shock offers some initial ideas.

C H A P T E R I I

THE LITERATURE: "I've Lost My Cultural Compass."

Introduction

This chapter focusses on culture shock, which is only one facet of acculturation. Although the author read widely concerning culture, cross-cultural contact and the problems of cultural adaptation while preparing this study, this investigation is limited to a narrower context. Therefore, the following sections refer to those writings which concern a specific phenomenon.

After establishing the paucity of scientific study concerning culture shock, the author uses the available literature to describe culture shock, its etiology, its symptoms and two notions which seem to be divergent from the main stream of thought about the topic. The following survey provides the basis for the study.

The literature on culture shock is limited and mostly descriptive. In 1965 Maretzki indicated that little was known about this phenomenon and that much study was needed.¹ Government, business and church organizations

¹Thomas Maretzki, "Transition Training: A Theoretical Approach," Human Organization, 24 (Spring 1965), p. 129.

with overseas operations had considered the general problem of adaptation, but culture shock was simply described and not studied.² The adjustment problems of foreign students at American universities received considerable attention from 1951 to 1966.³ Three business journals ran articles which pointed out that in overseas situations management skills had to be supplemented by cultural awareness and that ethnocentric behavior caused most of the problems in overseas businesses.⁴ The author found no evidence in the

²See Harland Cleveland, Gerard J. Mangone, and John C. Adams, The Overseas Americans (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960); George M. Guthrie, "Preparing Americans for Participation in Another Culture," Paper presented to the conference on "Peace Corps and the Behavioral Sciences," (Washington, D. C.: March 4-5, 1963); Francis C. Byrnes, Americans in Technical Assistance (New York: Praeger Co., 1965); William F. Hunter, A Survey of Psychological Evaluation Programs in the Selection of Overseas Missionary Candidates, (Mill Valley, Calif.: Golden Gate Baptist Theological Seminary, 1965); Robert B. Textor, ed., Cultural Frontiers of the Peace Corps (Cambridge, Mass.: The MIT Press, 1966).

³See Reisha Forstat, "Adjustment Problems of International Students," Sociology and Social Research 36 (Sept.-Oct. 1951) 25-30; Cora Du Bois, Foreign Students and Higher Education in the United States (Minneapolis, Minn.: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1956); Richard T. Morris, The Two-Way Mirror: National Status in Foreign Students' Adjustment (Minneapolis, Minn.: Univ. of Minnesota Press, 1960); Henry A. Selby and Clyde M. Woods, "Foreign Students at a High-Pressure University," Sociology of Education 39 (Spring 1966) 138-54. A comprehensive bibliography can be found in James H. Stirling, "Culture Shock Among Central Americans in Los Angeles", Diss. Univ. California at Los Angeles, 1968.

⁴James A. Lee, "Cultural Analysis in Overseas Operations," Harvard Business Review (March-April 1966) p. 112; Cameron McKensie, "Incompetent Foreign Managers," Business Horizons, (Spring 1966) p. 84; Richard B. Peterson, "A Cross-Cultural Perspective of Supervisory Values," Academy of Management Journal, 15 (March 1972) p. 114.

literature about training programs to alleviate business problems linked with culture shock. In fact, Batchelder expressed the view expressed by Cleveland, et al that international business was not willing to spend money for cross-cultural training.⁵

In 1967 Nash wrote: "We do have a number of impressionistic accounts in which the concept of 'culture shock' stands out, but systematic research organized by appropriate theory has hardly begun to throw light on this subject."⁶ Nash's study added to the literature, but Upchurch concluded in 1970 that little further work had been done.⁷ Two years later Adler wrote that the idea of culture shock has gotten "only passing attention and. . . remains refreshingly undefined."⁸

⁵Interview with Donald Batchelder, School for International Training, Brattleboro, Vt., 16 April 1973; Cleveland, et al Overseas Americans, p. xviii.

⁶Dennison Nash, "The Fate of Americans in a Spanish Setting: A Study in Adaptation," Human Organization, 26 (Fall 1967) 157.

⁷Harley M. Upchurch, Toward the Study of Communities of Americans Overseas (Alexandria, Va.: George Washington Univ. Hum RRO, May 1970), p. 3.

⁸Peter S. Adler, "Culture Shock and the Cross-Cultural Learning Experience," in Readings in Intercultural Education, Vol. II, ed. David S. Hoopes (Pittsburgh, Pa.: Regional Council for International Education, Univ. of Pittsburgh, 1972), p. 6.

American anthropologists have recognized the problem since the 1930's as an "occupational disease."⁹ They identified the phenomenon as one crucial part of the acculturation process which must be completed before successful field work can begin.¹⁰ In this context, culture shock is an anticipated hurdle to clear, a prerequisite to professional activity and germane to the field project. It soon became evident that not only anthropologists were affected, but that most transplanted people suffered from culture shock.¹¹

Culture Shock Defined

In 1954, a cultural anthropologist, Kalervo Oberg, gave a talk which has formed the basis for most subsequent writing on the subject of culture shock.¹² The text of this speech has been used in overseas training programs

⁹ Cora Du Bois, "Culture Shock," Institute of International Education Special Publication Series, No. I, (New York: Institute of International Education, 15 December 1951), p. 22.

¹⁰ See Morris Freilich, ed., Marginal Natives: Anthropologists at Work (New York: Harper and Row, 1970); Buford H. Junker, Field Work: Introduction to the Social Sciences (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1960); George Spindler, ed., Being an Anthropologist: Field Work in Eleven Cultures (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1970).

¹¹ Du Bois, "Culture Shock," p. 22.

¹² Kalervo Oberg, Culture Shock and the Problem of Adjustment to New Cultural Environments. This speech, given on 3 Aug. 1954, has been reprinted often: (Indianapolis, Ind.: Bobbs Merrill Co., 1954, Reprint A-328); (Washington, D.C.: Foreign Service Institute, Dept. of State, 1958); altered slightly to suit missionaries in Practical Anthropology 7 (July-Aug. 1960): 177-82; (Putney, Vt.: The Experiment in International Living, 1967). My references are from the Foreign Service Institute version.

and has been quoted in most documents which deal with the subjects of Americans living abroad.¹³

Oberg identified four phases of the "malady" called culture shock. The initial phase is characterized by excitement and fascination with regard to the new culture and lasts for a period of a few days to a few weeks, sometimes longer. When this honeymoon is over, the second, crucial stage of culture shock begins. Reactions to the new and alien situation begin to be manifested. These may be rejection of the host culture, glorification of the home culture, depression, aggression, withdrawal or hostility. Homesickness or loneliness may be the only signs, but this period is when they are most

¹³Oberg's ideas are emphasized in the following documents about the Peace Corps: Guthrie, Preparing Americans; Textor, ed., Cultural Frontiers; Maurice L. Sill, "The Four Stages of Transculturation," Peace Corps Observer (February 1967): 11-14; Roy Hoopes, ed., The Peace Corps Experience (New York: Clarkson N. Porter, Inc., 1968); Albert R. Wight, Mary Anne Hammons, and William L. Wight, Guidelines for Peace Corps Cross-Cultural Training (Estes Park, Colo.: Center for Research and Education, 1970).

Other training materials for U. S. civilian and military programs use Oberg as a starting point: Robert J. Foster, Examples of Cross-Cultural Problems Encountered by Americans Working Overseas: An Instructors Handbook (Alexandria, Va.: George Washington Univ. Hum RRO, May 1965); Robert J. Foster, Dimensions of Training for Overseas Assignment (Alexandria, Va.: George Washington Univ. Hum RRO, June 1969); Upchurch, Toward the Study.

Oberg is cited frequently in the following books on working and living overseas: Cleveland, et al., Overseas Americans; Clarence E. Thurber, "The Problem of Training Americans for Service Abroad in United States Government Technical Assistance Programs," Diss. Stanford Univ., 1961. Louise Winfield, Living Overseas (Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1962); George M. Foster, Traditional Cultures and the Impact of Technological Change (New York: Harper and Row, 1962); Conrad Arensberg and Arthur Niehoff, Introducing Social Change: A Manual for Overseas Americans (Chicago: Aldine Publishing Co., 1964); Byrnes, Americans in Technical Assistance.

apparent. Oberg, Stirling, Sill and Foster indicate that this phase lasts up to six months.¹⁴ If it lasts longer, the person usually returns home or, in some cases, has a breakdown.¹⁵ The third stage is one of gradual adjustment to the new culture. Du Bois points out that the newcomer approaches a kind of equilibrium between his culture and his understanding of and adaptation to the host culture.¹⁶ The final phase is "biculturalism," which may be reached by some.¹⁷ Adjustment cannot be more complete. Textor calls this the "transcultural" experience--being of two cultures.¹⁸ One is then fully cured of culture shock.

There seem to be four general responses to this affliction. Rhinesmith and Hoopes sum them up well: one response is flight, that is, rejecting the other culture and withdrawing into one's own cultural framework; another is dependency in which the newcomer "goes native;" a third response is fight where the stranger meets the new culture with hostility and aggression; a final one is adaptation, where one listens, observes and perceives.¹⁹ In this

¹⁴Oberg, p. 2; Stirling, Culture Shock, p. 2; Sill, "Four Stages, pp. 12-13; G. M. Foster, Traditional Cultures, p. 190.

¹⁵Oberg, p. 2.

¹⁶Du Bois, Foreign Students, p. 69.

¹⁷Stirling, p. 5.

¹⁸Textor, p. 6 and fn., p. 11-13.

¹⁹Stephen H. Rhinesmith and David S. Hoopes, "The Learning Process in an Intercultural Setting," in Readings, ed. D. Hoopes, p. 22.

author's view, fleeing and fighting are phase two phenomenon, while adaptation is more likely to occur during the third stage. "Going native" usually involves abandoning or rejecting one's own culture and does not lead toward biculturalism.

A number of authors offer suggestions for the causes of culture shock. Philip Bock indicates that people usually have a disturbing feeling of disorientation and helplessness if they are unable to predict or make sense out of the behavior of others.²⁰ Downs writes that human communication is based on mutual expectations about parameters of behavior.²¹ When in another culture, many expectations concerning behavior are not met. By moving into a strange culture, a person expects differences in climate, altitude, food, dress, language, scenery and even the job. It would be disappointing without those differences. Culture shock is caused by the less obvious, subtle deviations from the expected.

Oberg's early description has been cited very often by subsequent commentators. Although this author will avoid lengthy quotations, the following passage is reproduced entirely, both because of its impact on later students of the topic and because it is particularly apt.

²⁰ Bock, p. xi.

²¹ James S. Downs, Cultures in Crisis (Berkeley, Calif.: Glencoe Press, 1971), p. 6.

Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. These signs or cues include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves to the situations of daily life: when to shake hands and what to say when we meet people, when and how to give tips, how to make purchases, when to accept and when to refuse invitations, when to take statements seriously and when not. Now these cues which may be words, gestures, facial expressions, customs, or norms are acquired by all of us in the course of growing up and are as much a part of our culture as the language we speak or the beliefs we accept. All of us depend for our peace of mind and our efficiency on hundreds of these cues, most of which we are not consciously aware.

Now when an individual enters a strange culture, all or most of these familiar cues are removed. He or she is like a fish out of water. No matter how broadminded or full of good will he may be, a series of props have been knocked from under him. This is followed by a feeling of frustration and anxiety. People react to the frustration in much the same way. First they reject the environment which causes the discomfort: "the ways of the host country are bad because they make us feel bad." When Americans or other foreigners in a strange land get together to grouse about the host country and its people--you can be sure they are suffering from culture shock. Another phase of culture shock is regression. The home environment suddenly assumes a tremendous importance. To an American everything American becomes irrationally glorified. All the difficulties and problems are forgotten and only the good things back home are remembered. It usually takes a trip home to bring one back to reality.²²

Others have built on Oberg's description of culture shock's causes.

Upchurch has given the "signs, symbols and cues" the general label "cultural referents."²³ Bock postulates that the ethnocentrism which goes with culture shock is a defense against upsetting experiences; this attitude then leads to a

²² Oberg, p. 1.

²³ Upchurch, p. 7.

negative or hostile view of the other culture.²⁴ Anthropologist Anderson states the problem in stronger language. She maintains that the resultant failure in "appropriate response mechanisms" leads to a "derangement of control" and a "neurotic condition."²⁵

A careful examination of E. T. Hall's work concerning how other cultures deal with time, space and the senses of smell, touch and hearing explains why Americans, among others, experience uneasiness, frustration and anxiety when they have close contact with other cultures.²⁶ That a German wants his office door closed, that an Arab feels comfortable standing quite close to the person with whom he is speaking or that a Latin American has a very different view toward punctuality can be disturbing to one who is unprepared for such behavior. Although written for an American audience and addressed to a much larger topic than culture shock, Hall's books offer much which is universally helpful in cross-cultural understanding. In fact, reading his explanation of different cultural behaviors and expectations could be of aid in lessening the effects of culture shock.

²⁴ Bock, p. xi.

²⁵ Anderson, p. 1121.

²⁶ Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimension (Garden City, N. Y. : Doubleday and Co., Anchor Books, 1969) and Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language (Greenwich, Conn. : Fawcett Publications, 1959).

A psychological explanation of culture shock is offered by Lundstedt. He describes it as a form of personality maladjustment which is caused by unsuccessful attempts to adjust. It is a reaction to the stress produced by too many new stimuli. Being anxious, confused and apathetic, feeling isolated and lonely--are some of the symptoms he lists.²⁷ Another subjective trait of many persons suffering from culture shock seems to be a strong sense of personal ineffectiveness.²⁸ Most of the cultural referents which had helped one be an effective person are gone. Nothing seems to work,--hence, a feeling of ineffectiveness and an accompanying sense of loss.

Oberg acknowledges freely that the shocked condition grows out of the "genuine difficulty which the visitor experiences in the process of adjustment."²⁹ The problem is, however, that the newcomer does not perceive where the trouble lies. George Foster does see it:

Culture shock is a mental illness, and as is true of much mental illness, the victim usually does not know he is afflicted. He finds that he is irritable, depressed, and probably annoyed by the lack of attention shown him. Everything seems to go wrong, and he finds himself increasingly outspoken about the shortcomings of the country he expected to like. But it rarely occurs to him that the problem lies within himself; it is obvious that the host country and its unpredictable inhabitants are to blame.³⁰

²⁷ Sven Lundstedt, "Evolving Problems in Cross-Cultural Research," p. 3.

²⁸ G. M. Foster, Traditional Cultures, p. 192; R. J. Foster, Dimensions, p. 18; Adler, "Learning Experience," p. 8.

²⁹ Oberg, p. 2.

³⁰ G. M. Foster, Traditional Cultures, p. 187.

Symptoms of Culture Shock

Both Foster and Oberg, as well as most writers after them, make very clear that a main symptom of culture shock is a negative, critical, hostile, or aggressive attitude towards the host culture. Du Bois mentions this in discussing strangerhood.³¹ Smalley was very clear in his identification of the rejection of the host country.³² Nash's study seems to confirm the idea of a negative view.³³ A study done by Carlton Bentz about administrators in overseas schools provided tangential data which indicated a high level of resentment towards the host culture and host national teachers, but mostly in those teachers who returned to the United States before their contract was up. The data showed that many of these teachers had not recovered from culture shock.³⁴

Living in enclaves is seen by some observers as being related to a rejection of the host culture. Oberg implies this while Cleveland et al. make it very clear that it is a rejection.³⁵ On the other hand, others see the enclave

³¹ Cora Du Bois, "Research in Cross-Cultural Education," News Bulletin (Institute of International Education, New York, June 1953), unpagged reprint.

³² William A. Smalley, "Culture Shock, Language Shock and the Shock of Self-Discovery," Practical Anthropology 10 (March-April 1963); pp. 51-52.

³³ Nash, "The Fate of Americans," p. 159.

³⁴ Carlton L. Bentz, "The Chief School Administrator in Selected Overseas American-Sponsored Schools: A Study in Crisis Management," Diss. Michigan State Univ., 1972; pp. 192-193.

³⁵ Oberg, p. 1; Cleveland, et al., Overseas Americans, p. 29.

as a factor which helps alleviate culture shock. Nash and Schaw and Upchurch see "Little America" as a haven or defense which allows some cultural referents to be replaced.³⁶ Smalley concurs and adds that overseas schools often serve the same purpose.³⁷

Oberg catalogued other symptoms of this "illness:"

excessive concern over cleanliness and the feeling that what is new and strange is "dirty." This could be in relation to drinking water, food, dishes, and bedding; fear of physical contact with attendants or servants; the absent-minded, faraway stare (sometimes called the tropical stare); a feeling of helplessness and a desire for dependence on long-term residents of one's own nationality; fits of anger over delays and other minor frustrations, out of proportion to their causes; delay and outright refusal to learn the language of the host country; excessive fear of being cheated, robbed, or injured; great concern over minor pains and eruptions of the skin; and finally, that terrible longing to be back home, to be in familiar surroundings, to visit one's relatives, and, in general, to talk to people who really "make sense."³⁸

An extension of the "concern over minor pains and eruptions of the skin" is the notion that people who are in culture shock have a decline in the feeling of general well-being, are often tired, and have psychosomatic complaints. In this context Thurber mentions the "cultural adjustment syndrome."³⁹ Nash's evidence seems to bear this out,⁴⁰ and Stirling mentions

³⁶Dennison Nash and L. C. Shaw, "Personality and Adaptation in an Overseas Enclave," Human Organization 21 (Winter 1962): 257; Upchurch, Toward the Study, p. 6.

³⁷Smalley, "Culture Shock, Language Shock," p. 53.

³⁸Oberg, p. 1.

³⁹Thurber, p. 39.

⁴⁰Nash, "The Fate of Americans," p. 161.

"vague conditions of headaches, stomach distress, over-all malaise, or feelings of helplessness or loneliness" as being frequent symptoms.⁴¹

The literature suggests some additional manifestations. Oberg mentioned irrational "fits of anger," while "emotional outbursts" or "blowing up" are discussed in other descriptions of the culture shock condition.⁴² Nash indicates that, until one becomes adjusted to the new culture, time seems to pass very slowly.⁴³ An additional outgrowth of the frustration caused by the inability to communicate is the tendency to talk louder or even shout when speaking to non-Americans.⁴⁴

Culture Shock in Superficially Similar Cultures

In several descriptions or analyses of culture shock, various authors make a cogent point which is germane to this study. When Americans live in a culture where they expect to find many similarities, such as in Western Europe, or in a culture which has been "Americanized," the shock of missing cues is greater than would be expected. Stirling writes:

⁴¹ Stirling, p. 4.

⁴² Oberg, p. 2; Nash, "The Fate of Americans," p. 161; Arensberg and Niehoff, p. 188.

⁴³ Nash, "The Fate of Americans," p. 160.

⁴⁴ Arensberg and Niehoff, p. 188; Cleveland, Overseas Americans, p. 30.

Where people look and dress much like one's countrymen as in Europe, the newcomer may be led to expect them to behave and think like his homefolk as well, when actually they do not. Thus cultural differences he meets may find him less prepared than would be true in a more obviously different place.⁴⁵

Peace Corps experiences in the Phillipines and Jamaica seem to confirm this tendency. In these two areas, English is widely spoken and many American values are understood. The cultural similarity is superficial. It is the subtle differences which lead to severe signs of culture shock.⁴⁶ Comitas, in writing about Jamaica, states that "the dangers of misunderstanding are greater when the cultural cues are close but do not fit one's own."⁴⁷ Luebke believes that Americans who go to radically different cultures are mentally prepared for the shock but that when expectations of similarity are high, the subtle differences cause more problems.⁴⁸

⁴⁵ Stirling, p. 9.

⁴⁶ Guthrie, "Preparing Americans," p. 15; Guthrie in Textor, Cultural Frontiers, p. 24; Szanton in *ibid.*, p. 48.

⁴⁷ Comitas in *ibid.*, p. 213.

⁴⁸ Interview with Paul T. Luebke, Office of Overseas Schools, Washington, D. C., 24 March 1973.

Culture Shock--An Illness or a
Personal Growth Period?

Most of the literature has viewed culture shock as purely negative, a trying period which must be suffered through. One either "made it" or one had to return home. The anthropologists mentioned earlier saw it as a problem to be solved before the professional field tasks could begin. It was a sickness for which the only cure is a

forced draft, purposeful pushing-on ahead. The way to get over it is to work at making new persons and new ways familiar and known to return to them again and again until the strangeness is gone.⁴⁹

Smalley wrote that "the shock of self-discovery is sometimes a part of culture shock, but when it is it can be the beginning of healing."⁵⁰ As with Oberg and others who have built on his notions, culture shock is discussed in terms of sickness and cure.

There is an alternative way of considering the state called culture shock. While referring to the problem in connection with Americans overseas, Eric Severeid stated that culture shock is part of the process of "growing up."⁵¹ His idea suggests a learning experience rather than an illness. Peter Adler expands this to explain how someone can learn about oneself, one's

⁴⁹ Arensberg and Niehoff, p. 189.

⁵⁰ Smalley, p. 55.

⁵¹ Eric Severeid quoted in Peace Corps Seminar Readings (Aspen Papers), ed. David Christensen (Aspen, Colo.: American Foundation for Continuing Education, 1966), Vol. 1, pp. 10-11.

culture and another culture though the process of adaptation.⁵² In his summary Adler says that, although not everyone who lives abroad has a good or positive experience, for many "the culture shock process has served as a catalyst and a stimulant to deeply personal understandings about self and culture."⁵³

This author speculated about the application of Lewin's change theory to new teachers in culture shock.⁵⁴ Lewin maintains that attitudes need to be unfrozen by the removal of referents and supports before change can take place. If culture shock does unfreeze the attitudes of new teachers, then proper orientation could lead to changes in attitudes and behavior. The changes would lead to positive experiences in the new culture and serve as the reinforcement necessary for Lewin's third theoretical step, refreezing. This view compliments Adler's idea that "culture shock is at the very heart of the cross-cultural learning experiences."⁵⁵ Hopefully more work will be done to extend the understanding of the positive view of culture shock.

⁵² Peter Adler, pp. 6-21.

⁵³ Ibid., p. 20.

⁵⁴ Theodore W. Calhoun, "Education in a Multicultural Setting," (Comprehensive exam position paper, School of Education, Univ. of Massachusetts at Amherst, 1972), pp. 7-8.

⁵⁵ Adler, p. 13.

Summary

Culture shock is an experience which most people have when they live in another culture. It usually lasts from three to six months. Until recently the prevailing view of this condition was a generally negative one--that culture shock was a mental illness, a derangement, a neurotic condition. Additional research has led to the development of a more optimistic attitude, namely, that it is a valuable, sometimes unpleasant, part of any cross-cultural learning experience.

Oberg's initial complete description of culture shock included four phases, one "honeymoon" period of fascination, the "shocked" period during which most negative manifestations occur, the adaptation phase when adjustments to the new culture take place and the "bicultural" phase when one is fully acculturated. Oberg himself indicates that the crisis is over if a person enters phase three. In fact, phase two is the crucial one, and the real subject of this study.

The explanation for culture shock, although based on the complex structure of culture and its acquisition, is relatively simple. Every person learns and depends upon, to a greater or lesser extent, signs, symbols, cues, behaviors and responses which steer them within their own culture. In another culture many of these referents are no longer there. The person is not only on a strange ship in an alien sea, but is also without charts or a compass.

Persons unprepared for such a situation develop symptoms which signal the culture shock condition. They fall into four categories:

1) unfavorable, critical, aggressive or hostile attitudes towards the culture and people of the host country; 2) negative actions such as complaining, "blowing up," regressing into enclaves, talking louder; 3) subjective negative feelings such as anxiety, apathy, confusion, frustration, helplessness, homesickness, isolation, mistrust, uneasiness and slow passage of time; 4) physical reactions such as fatigue, general malaise and psychosomatic complaints. The symptoms do not appear all at once, but are situationally caused. Probably no one has had all of them. But all those mentioned have been observed.

The expectation of gross differences may offer a person better preparation for culture shock than the assumption that the culture is so similar that one can easily adjust. Americans living within Western European cultures undergo culture shock.

CHAPTER III

"I SHOULD HAVE STAYED HOME."

This exploratory study has three general purposes and five specific objectives which are described in this chapter. The research methodology used to achieve these goals is explained in detail. The components of the methodology include the rationale for the sample and the time frame, the design and implementation of the questionnaires, the way the resultant data are analyzed and assessed, and an exposition of the study's limitations.

General Purposes

The three general purposes of this study are:

1. To increase the understanding of the phenomenon culture shock;
2. To investigate the effects of culture shock on American teachers who work in overseas schools located in Western Europe;
3. To collect and analyze data about some previously untested hypotheses concerning factors which might alleviate or lessen the effects of culture shock.

The author has used the word hypothesis with the clear understanding that the study does not attempt to do the classical testing usually connected with the

concept. The hypotheses could also be referred to as exploratory research questions and the reader is asked to view them in this light. These purposes require some additional explanation.

Many references in the literature on culture shock state that much more investigation is needed to understand fully the phenomenon. One purpose for this exploration is to extend that understanding. The world is growing smaller and smaller; more and more people are involved in extensive cross-cultural contact. Every year the need for intercultural understanding becomes increasingly important. Any light shed on this insufficiently explored area should be helpful in indicating ways to facilitate intercultural communication and to accelerate adjustment to foreign settings. Governmental, institutional and commercial undertakings overseas require speedy acculturation in order that personnel can be efficient as soon as possible. A fuller understanding of the dynamics of culture shock will make it possible to train and prepare personnel for the adjustments necessary for living and working in an alien culture.

A second purpose is indicated by the fact that, according to the author's research, the overseas school teacher group has not been investigated with respect to culture shock or its effects. In this sense, this exploratory study is original. It provides data about the effects of culture shock on a specific group of professionals, American teachers working in five overseas schools in Western Europe. They, unlike Peace Corps Volunteers or Foreign Service

officers, have not been trained or prepared for the cross-cultural encounter which they experience.

Additional understanding of their adjustment problems could be beneficial in two important ways. Proper orientation and speedy adjustment would allow the teachers to be effective in their professional duties and to profit more from their cross-cultural experience. Perhaps more important is the idea that if a teacher is quickly adjusted to and positive about living in the host culture, then that teacher will soon be able to understand and help pupils (and parents) who are suffering from the effects of culture shock.

Hypotheses

One final purpose emerges from the literature and from the author's overseas experience. Documentary research and reflection have suggested five hypotheses which are investigated in this study. They are:

1. Veteran teachers with varied experience show the effects of culture shock less than teachers who have taught for three years or less at one school;
2. Teachers who have a positive cross-cultural motive to seek employment overseas and whose cross-cultural expectations are positive will have less adjustment problems than teachers without positive cross-cultural motives and expectations;
3. Teachers who can speak the host language prior to arrival are less affected by culture shock than those who cannot;
4. Extensive orientation upon arrival ameliorates the effects of culture shock;
5. Extensive help from the school in getting settled alleviates the effects of culture shock.

The development of these hypotheses requires some explanation and definition. The first hypothesis deals with veteran teachers who have varied teaching experience. It is important to note here that the teacher sample chosen contains only people who are on their first overseas assignment.¹ Nonetheless, this hypothesis is based on the idea that if a teacher has had practice in the skill of adjustment to new schools and job assignments, that person will more easily adjust to any new situation. Data concerning this hypothesis should be helpful in the recruitment of teachers.

Motivation and expectations are often closely linked. Hypothesis number two refers to a conscious "going out" towards another culture and its people. A differentiation has been made between the wish and expectation to experience actively the new culture and people and other reasons, which may well be positive when viewed from another vantage point. One can speculate that, if one is consciously open to a new culture, the lack of familiar cultural referents and a plethora of new ones will be relatively easily adapted to. For the purpose of this survey, other reasons, whether they are concerned with personal life-style, professional challenge, family decisions or leaving America, are not considered cross-culturally positive.

Language is one of our primary modes of symbolic communication.

The author hypothesized that teachers who are able to communicate in the

¹For this reason, I have not mentioned one trait of culture shock often cited in more recent literature, namely, that one can suffer from it many times, even when one returns to one's own culture (reverse culture shock). See G. M. Foster, p. 193; Byrnes, 1965, p. 25; Stirling, p. 14; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, pp. 37-42.

host language upon arrival will have some of their missing referents replaced in advance. Those teachers will feel less displaced and less disoriented.

The fourth hypothesis, concerning orientation, is self-explanatory.

The literature bears this out, as does the author's experience and the information gathered from his interviews.²

The final hypothesis is based on the author's perception (not original) of basic human needs. Strangely, no reference to this idea was found in the literature, although Harrison made the point quite strongly.³ If new teachers, especially those with families, are settled into living quarters as soon as possible and are aided in completing the usual bureaucratic paper work, they will then have more energy and concentration to devote to becoming adjusted to their new environment. Maretzki mentions that British overseas programs have always been based on the "sink or swim" philosophy, and that the British observers of American training programs showed "thorough skepticism" concerning such preparation.⁴ This study contends that strong initial support in "settling-in" and a good dose of "Tender Loving Care" can help new teachers cope with culture shock.

²Bentz, p. 176; Foster, Traditional Cultures, p. 193; Edward T. Hall, "Orientation and Training in Government for Work Overseas," Human Organization 15 (Spring, 1956): 7; Interview with Jack Harrison, American School of London, London, England, 7 April 1969; Oberg, pp. 4-6; Richard B. Peterson, "A Cross-Cultural Perspective of Supervisory Values," Academy of Management Journal 15 (March 1972): 115; Interview with John A. Sly, International Schools Services, Princeton, N.J., 15 January 1973.

³Interview with Harrison.

⁴Maretzki, p. 129.

The purpose of this study--increased understanding of culture shock, an investigation of its effects and the testing of five hypotheses about culture shock--are closely linked to the study's specific objectives.

Specific Objectives

This exploratory study has five objectives which relate directly to the purposes described above. The hypotheses are framed against these objectives and the instrument is constructed to produce data which will enable the author to achieve these specific goals.

The first objective is to identify some symptoms of culture shock which affect American teachers in Western European overseas schools. This is a direct outgrowth of the first two purposes, namely, to increase an understanding of culture shock and to investigate its effects on teachers in overseas posts.

A second objective is to collect data relevant to the screening and recruitment of American teachers for those positions. An investigation of the hypotheses concerning experienced teachers, concerning motivations and expectations and concerning prior language knowledge should provide insights about what sort of teacher will be able to adapt and adjust to a new cultural surrounding better or more easily.

The study also was planned to collect data relevant to the orientation and reception of American teachers newly arrived in their host culture. The

data produced from an investigation of orientation programs and the process of being helped to "settle in" may offer additional conclusions which will help in evaluating the process of aiding teachers to enter overseas positions.

A fourth objective is to explore the idea that culture shock can be a positive learning experience. This objective is a direct outgrowth of the need for more understanding of culture shock and its effects on overseas teachers. It also is connected with the hypothesis concerning positive motives and expectations and their influence.

A final objective is to arrive at insights relevant to which direction further research might take. The exploratory nature of the study and all the general purposes serve this end. An investigation of the hypotheses will give indications for further, more specific, and more scientific studies.

These objectives can only be reached through the collection and careful analysis of valid data. The research methodology is, of course, crucial to those ends.

The Research Methodology

This exploratory study is constructed so that data are collected from a sample of American teachers and their administrators in Western European overseas schools through two mailed questionnaires. The remainder of this chapter contains a description of the sample, the time parameter involved, how the questionnaires were designed, how the data were analyzed, and finally the limitations of the study. Since none of the variables was manipulated,

the study is non-experimental.⁵

Sample.

A need to limit the number of variables helped to establish parameters for choosing the sample.⁶ The group of teachers were to be drawn from the staffs of similar schools in Western Europe. This geographic limitation was imposed in order to reduce cultural dissimilarity of the respondents locations. Schools in Brussels, Frankfurt, The Hague, London, Madrid, Paris and Rome were originally chosen as sources for the sample. The author contacted an administrator in each school with the request that they act as the agent in the field. This was to entail identification of the numbers of teachers available in their schools, distribution of the questionnaires and returning them. Four contacts cooperated fully with the request. The American School in London declined to take part in the study. The school in Paris produced no completed questionnaires and Madrid did not reply to the initial request. Subsequently, a school in Berlin proved to be a fifth source of respondents.

The author's contacts at the various schools responded to the initial query by indicating how many teachers qualified for the sample. The proper number of questionnaires were mailed to each school and, after completion,

⁵In planning the methodology for this study, I have relied heavily upon consultations during January 1973 with Dr. Thomas Hutchinson, School of Education, University of Massachusetts at Amherst and on careful readings in Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioural Research (New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston, 1964) and John L. Hayman, Jr., Research in Education, (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1968).

⁶Dr. Hutchinson's advice was most helpful in this facet of the research design.

were returned to the author by air mail. The table below shows the number requested and how many were completed and returned.

Table 1
Questionnaire Breakdown by School

City	Number requested		Number Returned	
	Teacher	Administrator	Teacher	Administrator
Berlin	14	2	13	2
Brussels	9	4	7	3
Frankfurt	15	4	14	4
The Hague	18	4	16	4
Paris	4	3	0	0
Rome	<u>5</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>
Totals	65	20	54 (83%)	16 (80%)

Two questionnaires from Frankfurt were not used, one because the subject was British and one because it was totally inconsistent, being full of contradictions and absurdities (i. e., 2 years of experience in 17 different schools and three earned doctorates, etc.). Two respondents from other schools were not U. S. citizens and were excluded from the sample as well. Hence of the 54 teacher questionnaires, 50 were useable. All 16 administrative responses were utilized. In addition, all questionnaires were completely filled out.

The excellent cooperation of overseas administrators made it possible to obtain an unusually high percentage of return from a mailed questionnaire. The local contact was provided postage to return the completed forms.

The five schools have traits in common (see Appendix C). They are all located in a West European cultural setting, contain from 600-1500 pupils in Kindergarten through grade twelve. Their student bodies are international and multi-cultural, with at least half of the pupils and staff being American. English is the language of instruction (the Berlin school is bi-lingual). The schools are non-sectarian and independent, have similar educational goals and draw their students from families involved in many different overseas employment categories.

Teachers at these schools live "on the economy" and do not reside in enclaves or ghettos of their own culture. The language of the host culture is not English, although many people in those cities speak English as a second or third language. In every case, the schools are located in truly international cities.

Two additional conditions were imposed on the sample. The teachers had to have had at least two years of teaching experience prior to their first overseas position. Since most overseas schools have this as a requirement for hiring, it is unlikely that this condition reduced the sample significantly. In addition to increasing homogeneity, this condition was imposed to remove the possibility that data received from responses might be due to the shock of

the very first teaching experience. The final requirement was that respondents had begun their first overseas position no earlier than August 1971. Thus, the responses would refer to a period which could be no more than sixteen months removed in time, and hence relatively fresh in the mind of the respondent.

The parameters determining the sample produced respondents with these characteristics: an experienced American teacher having entered the first overseas position no later than August 1971, living in an international Western European city and teaching at a large, comprehensive overseas school. At least 50% of the pupils and staff are American and instruction is in English.

The administrative sample from the same schools, supervises teachers from the other sample and all have had experience in their home culture and abroad. Most likely, all of them have undergone culture shock at least once.

Time Parameter.

In structuring the study, it was necessary to define the segment of the teacher's experience in time. Two data sources dictated that the study examine the first four months of a teacher's first overseas position, that is, the period from the opening of the school year until the beginning of Christmas vacation. The first source is the literature which identifies this as being within the usual critical stage (see above page 17). The second source is equally pertinent. During frequent conversations over a

period of several years, experienced Western European overseas school personnel have expressed the idea that if new teachers "make it" until Christmas, they will be all right. The structure of an American-type school year offers a good explanation. The fall term is the longest without a significant break and is followed by a two or three week vacation. Adjustment problems seem to be resolved by then or not at all. The vacation provides an opportunity to "recharge batteries" and "to get away from it all." Thus, the questionnaires were designed to investigate the first four months of an initial overseas teaching experience.

Questionnaire design.

In constructing the questionnaires, it was necessary to consider the types of data desired, how it was to be used and how valid it would be. Oppenheim's book was extremely helpful in this regard.⁷

The teacher questionnaire (see Appendix A) elicited five categories of information. Questions 1-11 were designed to provide data about the respondent prior to arrival in the new cultural environment. All but two of these questions were of the fill-in-the-blank type. The ninth item forced a rank order choice concerning motivation for taking a position overseas. Question ten was a forced-choice about expectations.

The data produced in the first section provided the independent variables for the first three hypotheses mentioned above. Question 2 established the

⁷A. N. Oppenheim, Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement (New York: Basic Books, 1966).

prior language knowledge of the respondent. Questions 5-8 determined the duration and variation of the teacher's professional experience. Items 9 and 10 relate directly to prior motives and expectations.

The second group of questions (12-16) was included to provide the causal variable for the last two hypotheses, that is, the amount of help provided in getting settled and the type and amount of orientation given to new teachers. In this section, respondents were only asked to check the proper blank.

The next four questions referred to the initial four month period. Number 17 provided the number of sick days and relates to a possible symptom of culture shock. With whom the teacher lived during this period (No. 18) was considered relevant to the study, as was the type and frequency of social contact (No. 19) during the time span. Question twenty was considered crucial. It was designed to obtain the general attitude about living in the new culture at the mid-point of the initial period. This information was also to provide a check of internal consistency. Finally, it was to identify those respondents for whom the period was a positive cross-cultural learning experience rather than a negatively perceived period of difficult adjustment.

The next section of the teacher questionnaire (numbers 21-55) was composed of agree-disagree-no opinion questions which were to elicit data as to whether the respondent had various symptoms of culture shock. All the questions referred to the initial four month period; some concerned living in the culture; some concerned professional activities. Many of the questions

required a comparison with prior experience. Two thirds of the questions were phrased negatively so that agreement with the statement indicated that the respondent manifested that particular symptom.

All of the questions mentioned above relate directly to various symptoms of culture shock mentioned in Chapter II. Some, however, require specific explanation. The paired questions Numbers 27 and 46 concern the use of sarcasm with children. The author postulated that positive responses on these questions would be a sign of increased irritability, frustration or general lack of well-being and, hence, show evidence of culture shock. Question 41 concerned toilet articles, which one often takes for granted. The frustration of not being able to have Crest toothpaste or Mennen deodorant, for example, could be disturbing.

Questions 42 and 47 refer specifically to the regression phase. If one spends much time settling in (creating a nest or womb) or if one seeks to be closer to colleagues than usual, it might be a sign of an attempt to avoid the surrounding culture. Number 37 provided a check on number 47 and identified those subjects who tried to become acquainted with the host culture right away.

Questions 29, 31 and 44 pertain to both professional activity and the individual's attitude towards another culture. Relating the host culture to classroom activities and using local materials and pictures are natural pedagogical measures for overseas teachers. One who has uneasy feelings

about the host culture as a result of culture shock could be less likely to do so. Such a person could also have difficulty communicating with children from another culture.

The final section is a modified semantic differential which elicited reactions to nineteen paired words or phrases. Each item contains one of the symptoms categorized as "subjective negative feelings" (see page 29) and is paired with its opposite. The respondent was asked to react to the pair by indicating his typical feeling during the period of time in question. The position of positive and negative was changed arbitrarily to enhance careful reading. The data elicited in the latter two sections provided the dependent variables for the study.

Most of the items were closed questions which produced standardized responses. Closed questions discouraged individualized answers, but respondents were invited to comment spontaneously in the margin or on the reverse of the page if they wished to do so.

The author attempted to eliminate value words and loaded questions and also tried to diminish the threatening aspect of some areas by following Dr. Hutchinson's suggestion to use a method of counteracting ego defense. In asking about certain sensitive areas, paired questions were used--that is--teachers were asked about themselves and were then asked about their perception of their new colleagues with respect to the same behavior. According to Hutchinson, the latter perception could produce data which is more valid than that from the respondent concerning himself.

The administrator questionnaire (see Appendix B) paralleled in general the one just described. This second instrument was designed to serve three purposes. It provided descriptive data about the schools, staff and student body from which the samples came.

A second purpose was to elicit additional, if generalized, data concerning culture shock from a group of veteran overseas administrators. Of 40 Agree-Disagree-No Opinion type questions, 30 sought exactly the same data as the teachers' questionnaire. Ten others asked for generalized opinions about new teachers in their first four months overseas. These concerned punctuality, neglect of official duties, morale, grooming, extreme behavior and general ability to cope. It was not expected that the data received would be statistically significant, but that tendencies would be indicated. At the very least, impressionistic, subjective data from sixteen experienced overseas school administrators would be tabulated. Finally, it provided a subjective check against the data gained from the first sample. One comparison specifically anticipated was the difference, if any, between how the new teachers perceived their orientation and "settling-in" and the perceptions of the administrators in the same school.

Drafts of both questionnaires were sent to a pilot group of overseas teachers and administrators who had returned to America. They were requested to respond, offering suggestions and criticism. Many of the resulting ideas aided the author in his final revision of the questionnaire

which was then sent to the sample. The method of analysis used to consider the data produced is very important for the validity of any conclusions drawn.

Data Analysis.

The information from the questionnaires was analyzed with the three general purposes in mind. It was regarded simply from the point of view that it indicates the existence of symptoms of culture shock and that there are effects because of these symptoms on American teachers in overseas school positions. The data also was analyzed with respect to the hypotheses mentioned above.

The nature of the study and the relatively small sample precluded elaborate or sophisticated statistical analyses. Individual symptoms were examined for frequency of response and expressed in simple percentages as were the responses on the semantic differential.

When investigating the hypotheses, significant patterns were sought and recorded. An expected pattern was that teachers who fulfilled the experiential requirements stated in the hypothesis would exhibit less symptoms of culture shock and fewer effects from them. Another was that teachers who were given more orientation and help upon arrival in a new country would manifest less adjustment problems.

A tabulation of the raw data and an item analysis showed significant groupings within the sample. This then led to an assessment.

Assessing the data.

Once the data were analyzed, conclusions could be drawn. The author kept in mind that the exploratory nature of the study precluded any definitive test of the hypotheses. In addition, the results indicated by the data were considered tentative. Assessment was carried out with the aim of pointing in general directions, rather than arriving at specific destinations.

The implications of conclusions were noted and suggestions offered as to staffing guidelines, orientation procedures and further research.

Limitations of the Study

The paucity of literature indicated one limitation of this study. Relatively little is known about culture shock, its symptoms and their effects. These facts provided the motivation for doing the study but at the same time proscribed the scope. Culture shock's undefined nature was one factor which determined that the study was structured as an exploratory one.

A second factor contributed to the above mentioned structure. The teacher sample was too small to allow for the statistical analysis necessary to produce definitive results. The author's purpose was to explore the subject and draw tentative conclusions based on the resultant data. The questionnaire is designed to collect many varied data. The variety was such that only indicators can be sought. A study which was to have provided hard and fast conclusions would have necessitated fewer variables and many more controls.

The sample could be considered limited from another point of view. There is a certain bias, since those teachers who did not adjust and left the school prematurely are not represented. The administrative questionnaire provided data which indicated that, during the period September 1970-March 1973, nine teachers failed to complete the first year of their contract, at least partly because they could not adjust to living in the host culture. Hence, only those who were relatively successful in adjusting were investigated. Those who could not adjust must be the subjects of another study.

An additional limitation was the distinct possibility that some of the respondents were so exhilarated by their new experience that culture shock and its symptoms were held at bay for a much longer time than seems usual. As a result, they might have felt the effects after the initial period had passed. It was also possible that some respondents never underwent culture shock. The data were considered in this light.

One more limitation was apparent. The teacher sample, while living in a foreign environment, taught in schools with English as the language of instruction. In addition, a majority of the staff and pupils spoke English as a mother language and were culturally oriented toward America. Thus, for many of the teachers, the school may have served as a cultural refuge. The author cannot objectively assess the impact of these conditions on the study. Nonetheless, the teachers did live in a foreign culture, and had constant contact with it when they were not teaching. In addition, they were not able

to surround themselves with American cultural referents.

Perhaps this limitation had positive value as well, in that, if the data showed significant negative effects on teachers in such a situation, then one could conclude that the effects would be more severe in a setting where teachers are more isolated from their own culture.

In retrospect, there were two alterations which would probably have made the questionnaire more effective. Respondents were asked to agree (A) or disagree (D) with 34 statements and to check no opinion (N) if they were in the middle. It is the author's contention that a better "middle of the road" response would have been No significant difference. In fact, two respondents commented on this fact. Additionally, had the questionnaire asked where the subject came from within the U.S., the resultant data might well have led to other interesting conclusions about cross-cultural adjustment.

Recognition of the study's limitations is part of scientific caution. It provided a brake on the researchers hopes and imagination. At the same time, consideration of the boundaries of a study can lead to further speculation and new directions to be taken. Such implications are discussed in the final chapter.

Summary

Overseas schools which hire and transplant American teachers have a vital interest in aiding these teachers to be efficient and effective as soon

as possible. An exploration of some of the factors which might inhibit speedy adjustment and adaptation has been undertaken. An increased understanding of culture shock as a phenomenon and an investigation of its effects on American teachers in Western European overseas schools are aims of this study. Ways to alleviate these effects are explored through data pertaining to five hypotheses.

The research methodology has been constructed with specifically detailed objectives in mind. The instruments and the method for evaluating the resultant data were designed accordingly. The raw data was supplied by people in the overseas education field, that is, by people who were relating to fresh and relevant experiences. Now this information must be examined.

C H A P T E R I V

ALL BUT ONE DRANK THE WATER!

This exploratory study produced a variety of data which is analyzed from a number of different perspectives. First, each questionnaire item was tabulated in order to meet the author's first purpose and objective, to better understand culture shock and its symptoms. Secondly, each teacher questionnaire was analyzed, with specific attention given to question number 20, which required each teacher to check the one statement which best described his feeling about the overseas job at the mid-point of the first four months. The resultant data allow conclusions to be drawn concerning culture shock as a learning experience (objective number 4). Thirdly, the data are cross-checked with respect to the hypotheses stated in Chapter III. Finally, an additional cross-check analysis was done which did not pertain to the hypotheses but did shed additional light on the general purposes.

What Data Were Produced?

Sample.

As described earlier, data were received from teachers and administrators employed by five different schools in four Western European countries. Sixty-five teacher questionnaires were sent out and 54 (83%) were returned. Sixteen (80%) of 20 administrators responded as well (see Table

1, page 38). As previously explained above, four teacher questionnaires were rejected as being either outside the established parameters or totally invalid due to gross, possibly intentional, inconsistency. Every item on each questionnaire was completed. Thus, for teachers' responses, N=50 and with administrators, N=16.

Teacher respondents had the following characteristics in common:

1. They were United States citizens
2. English was their mother language
3. They were in their first overseas post
4. They had earned at least a Bachelor's degree and were certified to teach
5. They had a minimum of two years teaching experience prior to going overseas
6. They responded to the questionnaire in March of their first or second year overseas.

The author made no attempt to differentiate between teachers who responded during their first or second year. It was necessary to have a large enough sample, and to start somewhere. The first four months seemed to be the crucial period. The writer felt that the initial experience would have made a strong enough impression to be retained for an additional year. The facts that an arbitrary time span was fixed and that an undertermined portion of the sample were responding about experiences which were "one year older"

are additional reasons for the exploratory nature of the study and the tentativeness of the conclusions drawn.

The administrators were all Americans with experience both in the states and overseas. Experience ranged from 19 years to three; mean experience was 9.7 years, with an average of 4 years in the U.S. and 5.7 years abroad.

Personal and background data--teachers. Fifty-eight percent of the sample were women and 42% men. The breakdown according to marital status is given below in Table 2.

Table 2

Sex and Marital Status (N=50)

	Single	Married
Female	40%	18%
Male	8%	34%

Included in the single female category were a divorced and a widowed respondent. Three married women had children, as did 9 men. Three families had three children, 6 had 2 children and three had one. From these figures and those in Appendix C, one can see that overseas schools appear to hire more women than men. This is probably due to the fact that all schools have a larger number of pupils in grades K-6 and hence draw from

the large pool containing a majority of female teachers. Another reason could be that men are less likely to go overseas and interrupt their careers and that some of the women respondents came to Europe because their husbands were posted overseas. The author's own overseas experience bears out such reasoning.

Although the questionnaire asked for information concerning general foreign language competency, the author was only interested in knowledge of the host country language. The responses on the second question were broken down into four categories: fluent, those who indicated fluency in both speaking and reading; intermediate, those who could read and converse superficially; beginners, those who could order a meal and find their way; none, no competency indicated. Competencies were as shown below:

Table 3
Language Competency (N=50)

	None	Beginners	Intermediate	Fluent
German	20%	4%	18%	8%
French	4%	2%	8%	0%
Dutch	28%	0%	0%	0%
Italian	6%	0%	0%	2%

Not surprisingly, the respondents from the John F. Kennedy School had the highest degree of language competency, as it actively seeks bi-lingual teachers. Of 13 respondents, four arrived being fluent in the language, six were at the intermediate stage. The Brussels school produced five of seven subjects who had some knowledge of French, which is again predictable, considering the strength of the French language in many U.S. schools in the 1950's and 1960's. The author did not wonder that the new teachers at The Hague and Rome schools had no prior knowledge of the host language.

One could ask why schools do not do more recruiting for linguists. One reason is that schools need subject specialists first and foreign language competency is low on the list of recruiting priorities. Another consideration is that the language teachers in overseas schools are often native speakers, who may be better language teachers and more readily available. Finally, American education is not noted for its fine record in producing linguists.

Twenty-three subjects indicated that they had traveled abroad prior to teaching overseas.

Table 4

Prior Travel (in months) (N=50)

	0	1-3	4-6	7-12	More
Teachers	54%	30%	12%	2%	2%

In both cases where more than six months overseas travel was checked, the respondents noted in the margin that they had gone around the world in easy stages, picking up work as they went. Five of those who had not traveled at all commented that they would have done so much sooner had they known the pleasures of another culture. One said that, had she known, she would have stayed home.

A majority of the teachers (27 or 54%) had Masters' degrees, twenty-two had Bachelors' and one had an Ed.D. Their prior experience ranged broadly, as did the number of schools in which they had worked. Table 5 indicates the range.

Table 5

Professional Background (N=50)

		Years of Experience						
		2	3	4	5	6	7	7
Number	1	16%	20%	6%	-	4%	-	2%
of	2	-	4%	10%	8%	2%	6%	-
schools	3	-	-	4%	2%	2%	2%	2%
employed	4	-	-	-	2%	-	2%	4%
	5	-	-	-	-	-	-	2%

The data make evident a number of things. Overseas schools often hire young teachers but are not afraid to hire experienced, more expensive ones as well. Forty percent of the respondents have five or more years of experience.

On the other hand, schools seem to be wary of the teacher who has moved around frequently. Only five have taught in more than three schools, and six have taught in three. The questionnaire does not ask if the moves were within a school district, as two respondents pointed out.

Overseas schools seems to be reasonably successful in hiring teachers with the preferred credentials; as stated above, 27 respondents held Master's degrees. All administrators indicated that, for high school teachers, a Master's was preferred. Twenty-four respondents were teachers in grades 7-12 and 26 taught in the K-6 range. Of the former, 19 held Master's degrees, as did 8 of the latter. Three of the High School teachers had taught fifth and sixth grades in their previous employment while four of the other group had some experience in the Junior High School.

It was interesting to note that the five schools were very successful in giving their new teachers assignments at a grade level or in subjects which matched their prior experience. Only three teachers were expected to teach an age group which they had not previously encountered. The author's earlier experience, particularly with smaller or newer schools, indicates that new teachers are often assigned to radically new subject areas or age groups.

Motivation.

What caused these trained, experienced professionals, many with families, to move to Europe? What did they expect to find there? The author hoped to discover a link between the answers to these two questions and the degree of culture shock experienced.

The reader will remember that the second hypothesis was concerned with positive cross-cultural motives and expectations. Question 9 asked respondents to indicate in rank order the two most important reasons for going overseas to teach. Five responses were offered; an opportunity to give other reasons was given. The results are tabulated below:

Table 6
Motives (N=50)

First Choice	Second Choice	
24%	38%	A desire to live in another culture
32%	28%	A desire to travel in Europe
20%	14%	A desire to get away from my own country and culture
-	18%	A desire to teach in a totally different situation
12%	-	My spouse was coming to this city
12%	2%	Other

For the purposes of this study, only the first response was considered cross-culturally positive. Here the author has made a conscious distinction between the wish to live in another culture and travel or a different teaching situation.

The responses given under "other" should be noted. Two single women stated that they hoped to find a man (and one indicated that she had).

Two single men wished to meet girls, although neither indicated whether they had any success.* One man wished to make more money and one woman had married a German and therefore moved to Frankfurt. The last "other" response, a second choice, was to meet people.

Initially the author anticipated difficulties in deciding whether the above-mentioned responses were cross-culturally positive. In this case a decision was made to view only the final one, meeting people, as such. Although it might seem arbitrary, wishing to meet only the opposite sex, while not negative per se, did not appear to qualify as a positive motive in a purely cross-cultural sense.

Each teacher was categorized either as positively motivated or other. Thirty-one chose the first, or positive, response as one of their selections. As it turned out, of those who listed their own "other" choice, three women indicated a desire to live in another culture; among these was that teacher who wanted to meet people. Hence, within the author's definition, 62% of the sample had a cross-culturally positive motive for going overseas. The motives elicited from the nineteen remaining respondents were classified as other.

Expectations.

Question ten was designed to discover the expectations teachers had prior to arrival at their new school. Five responses were given; again

*The author found the choice of words by women and men tangentially interesting, the women wanting to find a man and the men hoping to meet girls.

other responses were taken into consideration. Respondents were asked to check all choices which applied. The data are summarized in Table 7.

Table 7
Expectations (N=50)

76%	able to travel extensively and often
44%	get to know the people of the host country
54%	get to know the host culture
24%	have a challenging professional experience
28%	have a cosmopolitan life style
14%	other

This information was handled basically in the same way as in the preceding section.

The responses which dealt with getting to know the host country and its people were the only ones considered cross-culturally positive. Again, extensive travel and professional experience are considered to be outside the positive category from a cross-cultural point of view. Within the "other" rubric were three teachers who wrote that they had no expectations and the same four subjects mentioned earlier expected to find a man or meet girls.

Again each teacher was categorized as having a positive expectation or other. Twenty-eight subjects checked at least one of the two responses

considered positive and were assigned to the former category. The remaining 44% were considered to have given only other expectations. The mean number of responses checked by the teachers was 2.4. All indicated at least one reason and no one checked more than four.

In a later section of this chapter the relationship between cross-culturally positive motivation/expectation and the incidence of culture shock will be explored. The schools' input concerning the new teachers is considered next.

What the Schools Did

All teachers were recruited, given information about their prospective school, brought to the host country, settled into their new environment and were given some sort of orientation. These initial contacts are important and an analysis of the data is revealing.

Method of recruitment.

The questionnaire offered a number of responses to check concerning recruitment; they included: by mail, telephone interview, personal interview, "coming in off the street," and other methods. Although subjects were asked to check all which applied, only the farthest reaching method was tabulated, that is, if a contact was made by mail or telephone and then by personal interview, only the latter was considered. The results are given below:

Table 8
Recruitment (N=50)

Final Contact	Mail	Telephone	Personal Interview	Off the Street
	2%	6%	76%	16%

Other methods were specified by four teachers, namely, three through personal contact and one through a fiancee already at the school who introduced the prospective teacher. It was logical to assign all four to the personal interview category.

Conclusions to be drawn here are rather simple. The Headmasters make a recruitment trip and interview candidates. Since people who come off the street are interviewed presumably as well, direct personal contact between employer and prospective teacher occurs in most cases; for this sample, it happened for all but four of the teachers. Three of those had telephone interviews. Only one teacher was hired on the basis of letters or a resume and recommendations alone.

Question seven on the administrator questionnaire was included to collect the perceptions of experienced overseas recruiters of teachers concerning those special traits particularly needed by teachers. Although the data are not specifically related to culture shock, the possession of these traits may help the adjustment of those who have them. The author records

them here for future reference. The following traits were mentioned repeatedly, with the frequency indicated in parentheses: adaptability (9), maturity (6), flexibility (8), versatility (8), and tolerance for frustration (5) and ambiguity (6). Four administrators stated that single and childless married teachers were sought, either because the pay was too low or because suitable housing was scarce or expensive. Two other responses bluntly expressed an opinion that single teachers often did not take overseas teaching seriously enough.

Prior information--"They didn't send enough".

Knowing what one is getting into is an established practice. The respondents' perceptions about the amount of material they received concerning their imminent overseas position is revealing.

Table 9

Prior Information (N=50)

Re:	None	Minimal	Some	Much
School	44%	10%	34%	12%
Community	54%	14%	26%	6%
Host Culture	52%	12%	34%	2%

In marginal notes, eleven teachers stated that they wished that more information had been forth-coming. On the other hand, three subjects wrote that all the

information they received could not have prepared them enough. Reading and experiencing seemed to be two different things. Nonetheless, it would appear that schools could improve their communication prior to the arrival of new teachers.

Arrival before school started--"I should have come earlier".

As a rule, with the Berlin school excepted, teachers did not arrive in the host country very long before school started. The breakdown is given in Table 10.

Table 10

Time of Arrival Prior to Opening of School (N=50)

0-2 days	one week	two weeks	three weeks	longer
6%	54%	10%	24%	6%

The Berlin school conducts a required three week orientation course which accounted for 11 of those who arrived three weeks before school opened.

Although the author neglected to include an administrative question concerning the school's policy about time of teacher arrival, it has been subsequently possible to ascertain the information. All schools, save the one in Berlin, recommend that teachers arrive a week early, and have two or three days orientations. Teachers could, and did, arrive earlier on their

own initiative, as is indicated in the table above. The arrival date has obvious implications for the extent of orientation and help in getting settled.

Settling in--"Our sponsor family was invaluable".

The data produced indicated that schools could do much more in helping new teachers become established overseas. Administrative responses generally correlated with those of teachers which are given below:

Table 11
Help in Getting Settled (N=50)

	the school did it	the school helped	the school left me on my own
Obtaining temporary housing	20%	14%	66%
Obtaining permanent housing	16%	32%	52%
Obtaining furnishings	8%	20%	72%
Finding shopping facilities	10%	8%	82%
Finding medical facilities	34%	40%	26%
Doing bureaucratic paperwork	50%	36%	14%

An examination of the figures above indicated the priorities set by the schools. Only seven teachers were left on their own to do paperwork; one might construe this as being purely in the school's interest because residence and work permits are of prime importance. So are healthy teachers; hence,

perhaps, 37 subjects were aided in finding medical facilities. In all other areas at least one half of the teachers were left to their own devices.

The fact that four schools suggested only one week to do all the initial adaptation indicates, in the author's view, disregard for the complexities of relocation to another culture, jet lag and the speed with which people can adjust to a new situation.

Teacher orientation--"Much more was needed".

Considering the time allowed, it is not surprising that the orientation of teachers was far from comprehensive. Any items in question 15 which were covered were to be checked. The results follow:

Table 12

Teacher Orientation (N=50)

Responses

46%	An explanation of the main cultural mores of the host culture.
12%	Special difficulties for foreigners living in that country.
6%	Special advantages of living in that country.
54%	A tour showing you "the lay of the land."
72%	Idiosyncracies of the school.
22%	Idiosyncracies of the community.
14%	An explanation of your role as a foreigner in the country.

In three areas less than 15% of the teachers felt that they had been informed. Twenty-two percent were oriented to the school community. About one-half received an explanation concerning the mores (46%) and the geography of the areas (54%). Special attention was given to the school, but one teacher out of four (28%) was not even given this much orientation.

The author broke down this information in another way. In order to place valuation on the teachers' individual orientation, four categories were created: none, little, some and good orientation. The number of items checked determined to which category a teacher was assigned: 0 items = none; 1-2 items = little; 3-4 items = some; 5-7 items = good. Table 13 indicates the quality of orientation in another manner.

Table 13

Quality of Orientation--Teacher's View (N=50)

None (0)	Little (1-2)	Some (3-4)	Good (5-7)
36%	24%	22%	18%

Sixty percent of the sample received little or no orientation.

In turning to the data from the administrative sample, a significant discrepancy is apparent, since the administrators viewed quite differently the program offered the new teachers. Using the same breakdown as before, the following results are obtained.

Table 14

Orientation--Administrative View (N=16)

	None	Little	Some	Good
Berlin	-	-	6.25%	6.25%
Brussels	-	-	-	8.75%
Frankfurt	-	-	12.50%	12.50%
The Hague	-	-	6.25%	18.75%
Rome	-	-	6.25%	12.50%

The difference in perception is obvious. Only closer, on-site investigation could discover all the reasons but one fact stands out. Teachers feel that much more needs to be done and administrators have an unrealistic notion about how much meaningful orientation has been offered in a week or less.

Thus far, the data describe fifty teachers who were mostly recruited through a personal interview with the head of the school. They received varied amounts of information about their new location prior to arrival, which in a majority of cases was a week or less before school started. Settling in was aided by the school for some, while too many had to shift for themselves. Generally, their employers believed that the new teachers received sufficient orientation but a majority of the teachers disagreed.

Life Until Christmas

School opened for fifty teachers who were more or less settled in and oriented to a new school and a new culture. The questionnaire requested some data relevant to language training, sickness, and types and frequency of social contact during their first four months overseas.

Language training.

Question 16 produced surprising results. Twenty-seven teachers reported that they did not begin to learn the host country language soon after arrival. Five of these were already fluent in the language when they arrived. Hence, 22 teachers were not able to communicate in the host language. Twelve began with school financed lessons, six teachers made private arrangements and five indicated that they "picked up" the language. Initially, one can conclude that those who speak only English are able to function on a certain level in Germany, Belgium, Holland and Italy. On the other hand, the author contends that knowing only English certainly limits one drastically in non-English speaking countries.

Sickness.

The number of sick days taken before Christmas vacation is given below:

Table 15

Sick Days (N=50)

Days off	0	1	2-3	4-5	6-8
Teachers	44%	16%	18%	12%	10%

This question (Number 17) brought the highest number of marginal notes. Two teachers who indicated missing no days said that they had had "lots of colds" which was unusual for them. Thirteen of 20 respondents who indicated two or more sick days taken noted that their days off were more than in their previous experience. Since none of the teachers in Rome missed school at all, one could speculate that the climate in the other cities, not being noted for its balminess, was a causal factor.

Social contacts.

With whom one spends free time is a relevant concern. How to evaluate the data is a difficult question, since it is highly possible that this area could easily fall into the "which came first--the chicken or the egg" category. If a teacher adapts easily and has many varied contacts, the causal direction is unclear. The same holds true for the isolated person who suffers significantly from culture shock. More plausible explanations are available for an isolated teacher who adapts with few problems or one who adapts with difficulty but has frequent and varied social contacts. The former most likely chooses to be alone, while the latter probably is an outgoing type of person

who persists in spite of culture shock symptoms.

The following table gives an indication of a new teacher's social life in the overseas schools represented.

Table 16

Social Contacts--Teachers' View (N=50)

	Frequent	Occasional	No
Parents	8%	38%	54%
Colleagues	56%	32%	12%
Non-school host nationals	14%	44%	42%
Non-school Americans	14%	36%	50%

Before commenting on the data given above, the administrators' perceptions concerning the teachers' social contacts will be tabulated.

Table 17

Social Contacts--Administrators; View (N=16)

	Frequent	Occasional	No
Parents	0%	69%	31%
Colleagues	67%	31%	0%
Non-school host nationals	0%	19%	81%
Non-school Americans	0%	100%	0%

In order to evaluate this data, it seems best to discuss contacts with each group of people separately first. Social contacts with parents did not exist for 54% of the new teachers before Christmas. This information should be passed on to every overseas school parent organization. It seems that not even sponsor families are usually arranged. In addition, five administrators seemed so out of touch that they were not aware of parent-teacher social contact. Teachers from all schools had some contact with parents, so all administrators could have known it.

As expected, 88% of all teachers spent some or much of their free time with colleagues. This is quite natural for overseas schools but can often be done to excess. In this category administrators had realistic perceptions.

Fifty-eight percent (29) of the new teachers had been able to make the acquaintance of host country nationals who were not connected with the school. Over half of these (15) were single women, all of them in Northern Europe. Forty-two percent (21) had not made contact with "the natives," although the questionnaire did not request information about contact with host country teachers. Again, the administrators seemed out of touch, in that 13 indicated that there was no contact in this category. Perhaps there is a general belief that the teacher's private life should be exactly that.

In the final category, 50% of the respondents indicated having no contact with Americans outside the school community. The data from the other teachers indicated that such a group did exist in every city. Perhaps

the contact with American colleagues and parents satisfied those teachers' needs in this respect. All administrators seemed unaware that many teachers lacked contact with the greater American expatriate community.

Closer investigation of the responses showed that fully one-half of the teachers had no contact with two or more groups before Christmas. Eleven noted only frequent contact with colleagues, 5 had only occasional contact with colleagues, 3 had only occasional contact with parents only, while 4 only saw "natives" occasionally. For these 23 teachers all other groups remained unexplored. A final two subjects indicated no social contacts whatever and noted specifically that they were, by choice, "loners."

Further statistical analysis of this data in relation to the other findings is beyond the scope of this study. Additional research in this area, however, could be quite fruitful and interesting.

Feelings around November 1st.

The author asked the teachers to indicate how they felt about their overseas position at approximately the mid-point of their first four months overseas. This was the only question which asked for an overall impression and was useful for two reasons. First, it provided a partial check for inner consistency in individual questionnaires. Second, it enabled the author to separate the data into four groups according to general value perceptions.

Nine possible responses were offered the respondent. They fit into negative, neutral, positive, and learning experience categories. They are

arranged by categories below with the number of responses per statement and per category as noted.

Negative responses: 8

- 3 a. I hate it here.
- 5 f. I won't make it till Christmas.

Neutral responses: 19

- 3 c. It is interesting here, but I am only an observer.
- 11 e. I am adjusting to the difficulties of living here.
- 5 f. It's okay, but not worth all the frustrations.

Positive responses: 12

- 5 b. I am having a great time.
- 7 g. This is a wonderful adventure.

Learning experience responses: 11

- 7 d. I have really learned a lot about myself and my culture.
- 4 h. I never realized that I knew so little.

If responses d and h had been included in the value categories, the author would have clearly assigned d to the positive group. Response h could be considered ambiguous. The notion that a secure person would view such an idea as positive, while someone insecure would see it as negative, can only be speculated upon. Nonetheless, these two responses were offered specifically to help explore the idea that culture shock can be a learning experience.

Without cross-checking data concerning specific culture shock symptoms, only a few comments can be offered here. Obviously, in November, eight teachers were unhappy about their move to Europe. Eleven acknowledge having difficulties and five to experiencing many frustrations. Twelve are enjoying the experience and eleven are learning from it. (Unfortunately, teachers were not asked how they felt after the first four months. Further study is needed in this area as well.)

Response f was revealing, if only to the extent that all respondents who felt that they would not make it until Christmas did. The administrative questionnaire asked specifically (question 10) about the teachers who did not make it "at least partly because they could not adjust to living overseas." Principals or headmasters were asked to give figures covering the time span September 1970-March 1973. The school in Rome lost no one but indicated a very low teacher turn-over rate. Berlin lost three teachers and all other schools lost two per school for a total of nine. In schools with staffs of 65-95, such a figure seems small. On the other hand, when the available teacher pool is limited, or non-existent, losing a teacher during the school year for two years out of three can be considered a severe problem. In addition, the author did not ask how often teachers had left for totally different reasons.

Having seen who the teachers socialized with, how healthy they were and whether or not they learned the local language, their culture shock symptoms can be investigated.

Culture Shock Symptoms

The questionnaires offered three sources of data concerning the symptoms of culture shock. Teachers were asked to agree or disagree with 34 statements which were designed to identify the presence or absence of specific symptoms. They were also asked to react to a modified semantic differential which attempted to determine how the teachers felt. Nineteen paired opposites, some of which duplicated the statements mentioned above, were chosen by following observations made in the literature. The administrative questionnaire contained 41 agree-disagree statements which were designed to cover as many of the requested teacher responses (both types) as was possible. Nine of the questions asked of administrators were in no way covered in the teacher questionnaire. In general, these concerned areas which, in the author's opinion, were so threatening that valid responses could not be expected from the teachers. Since they are generalized impressions from administrators, however, they will be weighed accordingly.

It will soon be clear to the reader that the wording of questions considered to be linked or parallel is often different. The author felt that the general sense was consistently conveyed and served the purposes of this exploratory study.

In the following sections, certain notations has been used which must be described. In every case, the responses which indicate the presence of a possible symptom of culture shock have been underlined, as have the subjective

negative states in the semantic differential. Additionally, items from the administrative questionnaire are identified by parentheses around the number.

For purposes of analysis and clarity, the various questions and the data produced are examined within certain categories and not in the order asked. These are considered discretely in each of the following sections. Administrative responses will be commented on only if they seem relevant. Since generalized responses were requested, often No Opinion was checked. This is, of course, justified because of the nature of many of the questions.

It is important at this point to explain the rationale for the author's method of evaluating the data produced by the questions which were paired in order to counteract ego defense.* It has been assumed that, should a teacher notice a particular behavior in others but indicate that he himself does not exhibit the behavior, then the teacher does behave the way he says his colleagues do. While being clear that it is not valid to make such an assumption in every case, it is probably a good indicator. The author feels that most respondents would answer in a way which would show what their feelings are about themselves.

Having recognized that the reasoning behind this treatment of the specific responses is not totally accurate, the writer has, in fact, adapted such answers on a one-for-one basis. For example, if 20 teachers agreed with the statement "I griped" and of the remaining 30, nine agreed with the

*See p. 45.

sentence "New teachers griped," the author would consider that 29 teachers "griped."

"This country is awful".

Complaining about the host country is a frequently noted symptom of culture shock. Five questions related to this topic and provided data which confirmed previous observations.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 21	<u>28</u>	15	7	New teachers griped a lot concerning little things about this country.
No. 32	<u>20</u>	30	0	I found myself complaining about differences in this culture.
No. (51)	8	6	2	They frequently complain about little things in this country.
No. 45	<u>30</u>	15	5	Teacher room discussions become grouch sessions about living in this country.
No. (40)	<u>8</u>	4	4	Their discussions in the teachers' room become gripe sessions about the host culture.

Twenty teachers agreed with No. 32. Thirteen other teachers were among those who agreed with question 21. All of the teachers who said that grouch sessions in the teachers' room were common agreed with either No. 32 or No. 21. This indicates that as many as two-thirds (33) of the new teachers probably experienced the identified symptom. In addition, 50% of the administrators agreed generally with this finding. Without question, one can say that these data show the presence of hostility to the host country.

Another group of questions was designed to elicit reactions to other facets of the new environment.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 22	<u>21</u>	24	5	People in this country seemed pushy at first.
No. 39	26	<u>16</u>	8	I felt that I could trust the people in this country right away.
No. (43)	4	<u>5</u>	7	They trust the people in this country right away.
No. 25	<u>9</u>	40	1	At first I was quite conscious of the different smells in this country.
No. 50	26	<u>19</u>	5	I liked the food here right away.
No. (21)	8	<u>4</u>	4	They liked the local food right away.

The questions concerning pushy people and their trustworthiness produced data which might be more meaningful if it could be tabulated against the part of the U.S. the individual teacher came from. Someone from a small town in Iowa might be more trusting than one from Manhattan. Similarly, those used to New York subways would react differently than an Amherst, Mass. resident to Berlin's crowds. Nonetheless, 42% found the "natives" pushy, a negative reaction, and 32% could not trust them.

Nine teachers' noses reacted to the new country, a predictably low number (18%), considering the cities involved. Had the sample been living in Lagos, Naples, or Calcutta, it is likely that many more would have agreed with No. 25.

Thirty-eight percent did not like the food at first. The author feels that this is indicative of culture shock, particularly since the origins of American food is so eclectic and since European cities also cater to the tastes of tourists from the United States. On the other hand, German and Dutch cooking is seldom praised as opposed to that of Brussels and Rome. The responses were not analyzed according to city.

Regression.

As mentioned in Chapter II (p. 17) and Chapter III (p. 43), withdrawing from or avoiding the new culture often occurs in the second phase of culture shock.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 47	<u>28</u>	18	4	During my first four months here, I spent most of my free time getting settled.
No. 37	24	<u>23</u>	3	I avidly explored this country before Christmas.
No. (17)	11	<u>4</u>	1	They explore this country avidly.
No. 42	42	<u>17</u>	5	My relationships with colleagues were closer here than at home.

It would seem that about one-half of the teachers acted in the above-described manner in that 28 worked mostly on "their nest" and of those, 23 did not explore the country. Responses to No. 42 do not correlate highly with the data concerning social contacts (Table 16, p. 71), since 28 teachers noted

frequent social contact with colleagues and only 17 agree with No. 42. Possible explanations could be that some had close relationships with colleagues at home and that the frequent social contacts were not always close.

Are all Europeans deaf?

Obviously not, if one considers the data given below.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 23	<u>12</u>	21	17	I found new teachers talking louder to people who spoke a language other than English.
No. 40	<u>18</u>	21	11	I talked louder when people did not understand me.
No. (49)	<u>8</u>	2	6	They speak louder to foreigners.

Four people who did not agree with No. 40 were among those who felt that new teachers talked louder to non-English speaking people. Hence, as many as 22 could well have talked louder, which is a clear sign of culture shock. Eight administrators noticed this as well.

Was I in Holland?

The teachers' feelings about the new culture were also reflected in the professional sphere. Hostility towards the new culture could block the tendency to use it in teaching.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 31	9	<u>37</u>	4	In decorating my classroom I used pictures and other materials from this culture.
No. (30)	5	<u>11</u>	0	They use pictures and materials from the host culture to decorate their classrooms.
No. 44	10	<u>18</u>	12	It was easy to relate things in this culture to classroom work.
No. (19)	4	<u>6</u>	6	They easily relate parts of the indigenous culture in their classes.

Administrators observed what the teachers themselves reported, that is, a large majority did not use indigenous materials to decorate the class, nor could they easily relate the culture to classroom work.

In all fairness, it must be remarked that often such materials must be collected through a teacher's own initiative. Additionally, since the new teachers had relatively little orientation, their knowledge of the host country probably limited the amount of cross-cultural correlation possible.

"We had to deal with kids, too!"

Communication, discipline, patience, use of sarcasm--all these topics are directly connected with the teacher-child relationship. The following data pertain to these concerns.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 29	32	<u>13</u>	5	I had little difficulty communicating with the children who came from other cultures.
No. (15)	5	<u>5</u>	6	They have little difficulty communicating with children from cultures other than their own.
No. 48	<u>16</u>	22	12	At home I had to send children to the office less often than here.
No. (41)	9	<u>1</u>	6	They have relatively few discipline problems.
No. 26	<u>14</u>	32	4	It was more difficult to be patient in the classroom.
No. (50)	4	<u>3</u>	9	They are seldom patient.
No. 27	<u>6</u>	37	7	I began to use sarcasm with the children.
No. 46	<u>13</u>	13	24	New teachers were too often sarcastic with children.
No. (47)	0	10	6	They use sarcasm with children.

Since only 13 teachers disagreed with No. 29, one can infer that a quarter of the new teachers had problems communicating with non-American pupils. Whether these difficulties were cultural or linguistic in nature is not ascertainable. Thirty-two percent had more discipline problems, although only one administrator felt they had many. Twenty-eight percent had more difficulty being patient, which is not surprising in light of data concerning subjective negative states which is discussed below. In evaluating the use of sarcasm, two facts are apparent. First, there is no overlap in agreement

on questions No. 27 and No. 46, that is, 6 teachers admitted using sarcasm, and 13 others felt new colleagues used it too often. Second, not one administrator perceived use of sarcasm as generally present during the fall term of school. If the ego-defense counteraction is valid, there were 19 teachers who used sarcasm too often. The author considers almost 40% as being a figure which indicates an educational problem in need of a solution and which should be pointed out to school leaders.

Health and Hygiene.

The following data are relatively self-explanatory and require little comment.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 30	<u>1</u>	13	2	I worried about the drinking water.
No. (48)	6	<u>3</u>	7	They do not worry about the drinking water.
No. 24	<u>16</u>	32	2	I felt less well than I usually do.
No. (32)	<u>4</u>	11	1	They miss more days of school because of illness.
No. 49	<u>29</u>	17	4	I was more fatigued than usual.
"raring to go"	12	12	<u>26</u>	<u>tired.</u>
No. 41	34	<u>13</u>	3	It was easy to find local substitutes for my usual toilet articles.

Thirty-two percent of the teachers felt less well, 58% were more fatigued than usual and generally 52% said they were tired as opposed to being "raring to go." These data correspond with that given under the section Sickness

(p. 69) and also with information derived from the literature. It can be said then that frequently feeling less well or being fatigued are symptoms of culture shock. Nonetheless, from Table 15 (p. 70) we can see that 39 teachers (78%) missed only 3 days or less before Christmas, and 12 administrators perceived that as being within the norm. In other words, the teachers keep on going.

The question concerning toilet articles found disagreement in 13 cases, which is not high. Hygiene in Western Europe is comparable to the U.S. and the multi-national companies seem to provide for all our needs.

Tense, nervous and dreamy.

All the questions in this group were posed as a direct result of symptoms mentioned in the literature.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 28	<u>24</u>	15	11	Other new teachers seemed to be affected by minor irritations.
No. 33	<u>27</u>	13	10	My newly arrived colleagues seemed to be frequently irritable.
No. 38	<u>13</u>	34	4	Little things bothered me.
No. (45)	3	<u>6</u>	7	They are even-tempered.
No. 54	<u>10</u>	36	4	I "blew up" more often.
No. (38)	<u>5</u>	9	2	They "blow up" often.
relaxed	8	25	<u>17</u>	<u>tense</u>

The first three questions were considered paired. If one tabulates all those teachers who agreed that "little things bothered me" or with either of No. 28 or No. 33, it is possible that the number of teachers who were irritable during the first four months could be as high as 35 or 70% of the respondents. All ten of those who stated that they "blew up" more often, and 15 of the 17 who felt tense rather than relaxed agreed with No. 38. It seems that this trait can also be considered a clear symptom of culture shock. Here again, only a minority of the administrators were willing to generalize about the existence of such behavior.

The following questions investigated additional traits.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 35	<u>6</u>	32	12	I noticed that other new teachers were absent-minded and often daydreamed (blank stares).
No. 52	<u>3</u>	38	9	I became absent-minded and day-dreamed more.
No. (44)	<u>2</u>	8	6	They are absent-minded and daydream.
No. 36	<u>13</u>	29	8	My nervous habits were somewhat accentuated.
No. 51	<u>12</u>	10	28	I noticed that new teachers had visible nervous habits.
No. (42)	<u>3</u>	3	10	Their nervous habits became accentuated.

The author included the questions concerning absent-mindedness with an additional purpose in mind. The literature associates this symptom with the "tropical stare." The results show very few of this study's subjects afflicted with the symptom. Perhaps it is really one which occurs frequently only in

the Tropics. Nervous habits seem to be accentuated more often in the Northern Hemisphere. Thirteen new teachers reported this about themselves and 8 more perceived it in their colleagues, which leads to the conclusion that probably 21 teachers showed this symptom.

Bewitched, bothered and bewildered.

How a person feels and how he can function are often connected.

<u>confused</u>	<u>21</u>	21	8	"with it"
<u>trying</u>	<u>29</u>	12	9	easy
purposeful	14	15	<u>21</u>	<u>bewildered</u>
fulfilled	13	18	<u>19</u>	<u>frustrated</u>
<u>helpless</u>	<u>16</u>	22	12	capable
effective	15	17	<u>18</u>	<u>ineffective</u>

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. (31)	<u>7</u>	8	1	They are confused.
No. (36)	<u>6</u>	7	3	They are frustrated.
No. (27)	12	<u>1</u>	3	They can cope.

Looking at the above data, the following statement can be made: of the fifty new teachers, about twenty were either confused, bewildered, frustrated or ineffective. Some experienced two or more of these feelings. For 58% it was a trying time. Most of their superiors, however, generally felt that they could cope.

Apart and out of place.

Generally one is happiest if one has the feeling that he belongs. For a number of people, culture shock seems to block that feeling, as the following data show.

<u>lonely</u>	<u>16</u>	17	27	not lonely
<u>homesick</u>	<u>9</u>	17	23	felt at home
acceptance	25	7	<u>18</u>	<u>rejection</u>
<u>alien</u>	<u>16</u>	17	17	familiar

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. (35)	<u>7</u>	3	6	They are lonely.
No. (26)	<u>3</u>	8	5	They are homesick.
No. (39)	7	<u>6</u>	3	They feel accepted.

While only nine were homesick, at least 32% felt lonely, rejected or alien.

Such feelings must reflect morale.

Morale.

Every school depends on good faculty morale to produce an effective learning situation. Overseas schools are no different. In considering the next data, one must remember that the time span considered is the first four months of a new school year.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 34	<u>21</u>	29	0	My enthusiasm decreased during this period.
No. (46)	<u>7</u>	7	2	Their enthusiasm decreases during this period.
secure	15	14	<u>21</u>	<u>insecure</u>
<u>apathy</u>	<u>1</u>	21	28	involvement
<u>anxiety</u>	<u>21</u>	20	9	security
high spirits	26	8	<u>16</u>	<u>low spirits</u>
positive	28	14	<u>8</u>	<u>negative</u>

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. (25)	5	<u>8</u>	3	They are not insecure.
No. (28)	<u>12</u>	0	4	They experience anxiety.
No. (29)	7	<u>5</u>	4	Their morale is high.
No. (33)	<u>0</u>	12	4	They are apathetic.
No. 34)	12	<u>2</u>	2	They have a positive attitude.

Here one sees that enthusiasm decreased for 42% of the teachers, 21 teachers feel anxiety and 16 have low spirits. To consider the positive side for a moment, 56% feel positive and the same amount are involved, while only one was apathetic. The administrators had generally realistic perceptions about the feelings of their new teachers.

Time and organization.

The temporal factor mentioned in the literature did not show up in this study, since time passed slowly only for about 10% of the subjects. Of course, a new school and new pupils makes one extremely busy.

time flew by	34	10	<u>6</u>	<u>time dragged</u>
	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. 43	<u>5</u>	37	8	Time seemed to pass slowly.
No. 53	27	<u>14</u>	9	I was as well-organized as usual.
No. (23)	4	<u>3</u>	8	They are well-organized.
<u>disorganized</u>		<u>18</u>	17	15
				organized

Thirty-six percent perceived themselves as being disorganized. Four teachers noted that they were usually disorganized and therefore expressed no opinion one way or the other.

Administrative perceptions only.

The questions and resultant data presented in this section were seen as threatening to the teachers. The administrative perceptions are generalized. However, since they all concern observable characteristics, the author believes that the data have some validity.

	<u>A</u>	<u>D</u>	<u>N</u>	
No. (12)	14	<u>2</u>	0	They are punctual.
No. (13)	<u>11</u>	3	2	They tend to be either very vocal or very reserved in meetings.
No. (14)	<u>6</u>	9	1	They ask many questions which often have obvious answers.
No. (16)	<u>0</u>	15	1	They neglect the paperwork required at our school.
No. (18)	<u>2</u>	13	1	They neglect proper classroom environment.
No. (20)	<u>6</u>	10	0	They become less well groomed.
No. (22)	<u>12</u>	3	1	They seek help with personal problems from administration.
No. (24)	<u>2</u>	7	7	They are withdrawn.
No. (37)	10	<u>0</u>	6	Their lesson plans are well done.

According to their superiors, the following characteristics about new teachers during their first four months of duty can be stated. They are punctual, do not neglect paperwork or classroom environment, and do their lesson plans well. Their participation in meetings often is at one extreme or the other. Twelve administrators are seen as the new teachers' counselor. Less than half of their superiors feel that they "go to seed" and a minority feel that new teachers ask questions with obvious answers. The teachers seem to do well in favorite areas of administrative concern, in spite of culture shock.

Culture Shock Symptoms Identified

From all of the questions asked, one can reduce the data down to relate to 40 discrete symptoms investigated. Paired question responses have been extrapolated in the fashion described above (pp. 77-78). Listed below are the symptoms given in order of frequency of response.

Table 18

Culture Shock Symptoms Identified

Frequency	Symptom of Culture Shock
74%	Did not decorate classroom with local materials
70%	Irritable
66%	Complained about host culture
58%	More fatigue; found time trying
56%	Host culture not related in classes; spent till Christmas getting settled
44%	Talked louder to foreigners
42%	Enthusiasm decreased; insecure; anxiety; bewildered; confused; found people pushy; nervous habits accentuated
38%	Sarcastic with children; frustrated; did not like local food right away
36%	Ineffective; rejection
34%	Tense; closer relationships with colleagues

Table 18 (continued)

Frequency	Symptoms of Culture Shock
32%	Could not trust people right away; alien; low spirits; lonely; helpless; felt less well
28%	Had difficulty being patient
26%	Had difficulties relating to non-American children; had trouble getting toilet article substitutes
20%	"Blew up" more often
18%	Were conscious of smells; homesick; disorganized
16%	Negative
12%	Time dragged; absent-minded and daydreamed
2%	Apathy; worried about the drinking water

A brief glance at the above frequency table shows certain tendencies. Four symptoms which directly relate to the avoidance of or hostility to the host culture are reported by a majority of all new teachers responding. The three others which had more than 50% frequency are irritability, fatigue and a feeling that the period before Christmas is a trying one. The implications of this trend will be discussed in the final chapter.

Here it is sufficient to say that, if the tendency indicated is true for most American teachers during their initial school term overseas, they must have difficulty doing their jobs effectively, particularly with respect to their non-American pupils. How the children new to the school and country are

able to function with a teacher manifesting these and other symptoms is a totally separate area, and one which requires original research as well.

Looking further down the list of symptoms, the following items occur in the 25%-44% range, which shows a tendency of less than half but is a portion of the total which, if they were votes, would be quite significant for many European political parties: decreased enthusiasm, insecure, anxiety, confused, sarcastic, frustrated, rejection, tense, alien, helpless, feeling less well, difficulty being patient and relating with non-American children, to mention only half in this range. They are not votes, of course, but only pieces of the mosaic which represents the physical and psychological state of a professional overseas.

Having investigated the data concerning the frequency of individual symptoms, attention can now be given to the responses of the individual teachers and the number of symptoms each one had.

Individual Questionnaire Analysis

The material presented in the preceding sections has been tabulated item by item across the sample. Thus, the sample has been described to a certain extent and many symptoms of culture shock have been identified as having been in evidence to a greater or lesser degree for all respondents. The remainder of this chapter will be devoted to an examination of the data with respect to the second and third general purposes stated above. The frequency of symptoms per teacher will give an indication about the effects of

culture shock on them. A breakdown of these frequencies with respect to certain categories of the subjects should shed light on the hypotheses stated at the beginning of Chapter III.

Mr. Jones had 14.18 symptoms.

The questionnaire required 53 responses concerning some form of culture shock symptoms and, as was explained earlier in this chapter, duplication of questions for various reasons meant that only 40 discrete manifestations of culture shock were measured. An analysis of the responses of each teacher produced the following data which are expressed by tabulating the number of teachers who exhibited a specific number of symptoms. As an example, from Table 19, one can see that five respondents showed that they each had had 12 symptoms. The average teacher had 14.18 symptoms. None had less than 4 symptoms or more than 35. The median (12) shows how the mean was skewed up, particularly by those five teachers above the 24 level. Over one-half (26) of the teachers were in the 4-12 symptom range. Possible causal tendencies will be examined below.

Table 19

Frequency of Culture Shock Symptoms per Respondent (N=50)

No. of Symptoms	No. of Teachers	No. of Symptoms	No. of Teachers
4	2	18	1
5	2	19	1
6	4	20	2
7	2	21	1
8	2	22	1
9	3	23	1
11	6	24	1
12	5	27	1
14	4	28	1
15	4	30	1
16	2	32	1
17	1	35	1

Mean = 14.18

Median = 12

Before examining the data with respect to the hypotheses, the author analyzed each respondent's data in connection with question 20. This gave a check concerning internal consistency and also relates directly to the fourth stated objective, that is, to explore the idea that culture shock can be a positive learning experience. Earlier in this chapter (pp. 73-75), question 20 was analyzed and the possible responses were categorized as to the type of experience the respondents felt they were having on or about November 1st of their first school year overseas. To enable the reader to more easily interpret the data, the responses are reproduced below.

- a. I hate it here.
- b. I am having a great time.
- c. It is interesting here, but I am only an observer.
- d. I have really learned a lot about myself and my culture.
- e. I am adjusting to the difficulties of living here.
- f. I won't make it til Christmas.
- g. This is a wonderful adventure.
- h. I never realized I knew so little.
- i. It's okay, but not worth all the frustrations.

Table 20 presents the data with the responses grouped according to the categories just mentioned.

Table 20

Number of Symptoms per Teacher with Respect
to Question 20 (N=50)

<u>Learning Experience</u>		<u>Positive Experience</u>		<u>Neutral Experience</u>		
d. n=7	h. n=4	b. n=5	g. n=7	c. n=3	e. n=11	i. n=5
24	18	16	15	20	23	15
21	17	7	12	19	22	15
11	8	6	12	11	16	14
11	6	5	12		14	12
9		4	9		14	9
7			6		14	
5			4		12	
mean = 12.45		mean = 9.00		11		
median = 11		median = 8		11		
				8		
				6		
				mean = 13.89		
				median = 14		

Negative Experience

a. n=3	f. n=5
30	35
28	32
27	20
	15
	11
mean = 24.75	
median = 27.5	

The teachers seemed to be quite consistent in reporting what and how they felt. Those who had a positive initial experience (a total of 12) had relatively few problems with culture shock while those whose experience was perceived as negative (8 in all) had a mean frequency of symptoms which was more than twice as high. The mean of those whose experience could be categorized as neutral (19) lay in between. Those who felt it to be a learning experience (11) evidenced a lower average of symptoms than the general mean (14.18) while the only category of respondents with an even lower mean were those who fell into the positive group.

A look at the breakdown according to the offered responses gives some clues as to the type of people who responded. Of those who felt negative in November, only 3 hated it in their new position, while the other five made it till Christmas. Again, only 3 responded that it was interesting but they were only observers. The schools could feel fortunate to have so much involvement. Only five felt that their experience was not worth the frustration involved. This number could have been much higher. Finally, in the learning experience category, seven of eleven respondents chose the positively phrased statement concerning learning a lot about oneself and one's culture. It seems that the group of new American teachers hired by the five schools in the two years covered were generally positively inclined.

The data concerning individual teachers must now be examined in relation to the five hypotheses set for this study. As has been mentioned

earlier, the number of variables in this study, its construction and its exploratory nature will allow the author to indicate only tendencies. There is no intent to statistically prove theories and certainly no expectation that this study will be the last word.

Hypothesis 1: Veteran teachers with varied experience show the effects of culture shock less than teachers who have taught for three years or less at one school.

Table 5 (p. 56) gives the data concerning the amount of experience the subjects had and in how many schools they had taught prior to going overseas. In order to produce information relevant to Hypothesis 1, the data from Table 5 was cross-checked with the frequency of culture shock symptoms of all respondents. The results are given below.

Table 21

Number of Symptoms According to Quantity
and Variety of Experience (N=50)

2 years experience in 1 school n = 8	3 years experience in 1 school n = 10	all others n = 32		
35	28	30	12	8
32	23	24	12	8
27	19	22	12	7
21	18	20	12	6
20	17	16	12	6
11	15	16	11	6
11	14	15	11	5
6	14	15	11	5
	11	15	9	4
	7	14	9	4
		14	9	
mean = 20.38	16.60	11.88		
median = 20.50	16.00	11.50		

If the data are indicative of most overseas teachers, the tendency shown is quite provocative. Teachers with two years of experience at one school have more difficulties adjusting to a new culture than those with three years at one school. All other teachers, on the average, have less culture shock symptoms. The shift to a new type of school in a new culture was quite hard for many of the teachers in the first two categories. The implications of these data will be discussed in Chapter V.

Hypothesis 2: Teachers who have a positive cross-cultural motivation to seek employment overseas and whose cross-cultural expectations are positive will have less adjustment problems than teachers without positive cross-cultural motives and expectations.

Earlier in this chapter (pp. 57 -61) the raw data concerning motivation for and expectations about going overseas were tabulated. Thirty-one teachers were found to have had positive cross-cultural motivation and 28 with similar expectations. The author combined these data in the following manner to enable him to provide a meaningful analysis of the data with reference to the second hypothesis. Subjects were assigned to one of three categories, those with both positive motives and expectations (notation used is +/+), those with one positive and one other feeling (notation used is +/-) and those whose motives and expectations both fall into the other classification (notation used is 0/0). The following table shows how the frequency of symptoms breaks down.

Table 22

Number of Culture Shock Symptoms with Respect
to Motivation/Expectation (N=50)

+/+		+/0		0/0	
n = 26		n = 7		n = 17	
27	11	22		35	15
24	11	19		32	14
21	11	15		30	14
20	9	14		28	14
16	8	9		23	12
15	8	7		20	11
15	7	6		18	9
12	6			17	5
12	6			16	
12	6				
12	5				
11	4				
11	4				
mean	11.69	13.14		18.41	
median	11.00	14.00		16.00	

The information obtained here shows a clear trend. Those teachers with both positive cross-cultural motivation and expectations experienced, on the average, less culture shock symptoms during their initial period overseas. For teachers with neither, the mean rose almost seven (6.72) symptoms. It also seems that having either a positive motive or expectation can make a sizeable difference. The ramifications of these data will be commented upon in the final chapter.

Hypothesis 3: Teachers who can speak the host language prior to arrival are less affected by culture shock than those who cannot.

As was previously mentioned, (Table 3, p. 54), a majority of the teachers arrived overseas being unable to speak the language of the host country.

When one tabulates language competency against culture shock symptom frequency, the following data result:

Table 23

Number of Symptoms According to Host
Language Competency (N=50)

	None n=29	Beginners n=3	Intermediate n=13	Fluent n=5
35	11	23	20	30
32	11	20	19	27
28	11	14	16	17
24	9		15	6
22	9		15	4
21	8		15	
18	8		12	
16	7		12	
15	7		11	
14	6		11	
14	6		11	
14	5		9	
12	5		6	
12	4			
12				
mean	13.66	19.00	13.23	16.80
median	12.00	20.00	12.00	17.00

The hypothesis states that those teachers who speak the host language will suffer less from culture shock. The figures above show a tendency which indicates that one is best served if one arrives with an intermediate competency, that is, being able to read well and converse on a superficial level. Those with no knowledge seem to be next best off. According to these data, those who arrive with fluency seem to show a relatively high frequency of symptoms, about 17. In this sample, the beginners were worse off. In the last chapter some speculative explanations will be offered about this seemingly incongruous result.

Hypothesis 4: Extensive orientation upon arrival ameliorates the effects of culture shock.

Table 12 (p. 66) and Table 13 (p. 67) show the type and quality of orientation given to the newly arrived teachers in this sample, according to their perceptions. The criteria concerning quality have been described earlier. The results follow.

Table 24

Number of Symptoms According to Quality
of Orientation (N=50)

Number of Orientation Items Checked	(0) None (n=18)	(1-2) Little (n=12)	(3-4) Some (n=11)	(5-7) Good (n=9)	
	32	14	35	16	24
	30	12	23	15	15
	28	12	22	14	15
	27	11	18	14	12
	21	11	17	14	11
	20	7	16	12	8
	20	7	15	11	6
	19	6	11	11	4
	15	5	9	9	4
			9	6	
			8	6	
			5		
mean	16.50	15.42	11.64	11.00	
median	14.50	15.50	12.00	11.00	

The tendency shown here seems to bear out the hypothesis; in fact, it appears that, with these subjects, on the average at least, there is an inverse relationship between the amount of orientation and the manifestations of culture shock. To go one step further in interpreting these data, if a school can increase the amount from a little to some orientation, a relatively large difference could be made in the adjustment process of new teachers. Chapter V contains a discussion of conclusions to be drawn from these trends and suggestions for overseas schools.

Hypothesis 5: Extensive help from the school in getting settled alleviates the effects of culture shock.

Often whole families get off a plane in a new cultural environment and, within a week, one or both of the parents are expected to begin to teach full-time. The perceptions of the study's subjects about the assistance in getting settled which they received from their new school was tabulated on page 65. The relationship between that data and the adjustment difficulties experienced is, at least partially, indicated in the following table.

Table 25

Number of Symptoms According to Help Given
in Getting Settled (N=50)

	0 - 1 (n=20)		2 - 4 (n=20)		5 - 6 (n=10)
35	12		27	11	20
32	12		24	9	18
30	12		22	9	17
28	11		21	8	15
23	11		19	8	14
20	11		16	6	14
15	11		16	6	12
14	9		15	6	7
14	6		15	5	7
12	4		11	4	5
mean	16.10		12.90		12.90
median	12.00		11.00		14.00

The resultant data do not fully bear out the hypothesis. Had it, there would have been a marked decrease in the mean number of symptoms exhibited by those subjects in the last group. The table does show that some help seems to have some positive effect on the number of symptoms experienced. Before exploring the ramifications of these data in the next chapter, one more result must be noted.

Sex and marriage.

Although not explicitly formulated in an hypothesis, the relationship between the incidence of culture shock symptoms and sex and marital status intrigued the author. Hence, these final tabulations are offered for investigation.

Table 26

Number of Symptoms According to Sex and
Marital Status (N=50)

	Single Women (n=20)	Married Women (n=9)	Married Men (n=17)	Single Men (n=4)
35	12	15	30	28
32*	12	14	22	14
27	12	12	20	9
24	11	11	20	6
23	9**	11	19	7
21	8	11	16	6
18	6	11	15	5
17	6	11	15	4
16	5	7	14	
15	4			
mean	15.65	11.44	13.88	14.25
median	13.50	11.00	14.00	11.50
*divorced				
**widowed				
	Women (n=29)	Men (n=21)	Married (n=26)	Single (n=24)
mean	14.34	13.95	13.04	15.42
median	12.00	14.00	12.00	13.00

It seems that married women adjust more easily to a new cultural environment. Perhaps they have less time to have culture shock, or to notice it. Single women, on the other hand, tend to have the most difficulty adjusting. With the exception of married women, extreme "cases of culture shock" appear in all groups.

Summary

The analysis of the data produced from the questionnaires has shown tendencies about the effects of culture shock on American teachers in Western Europe during their first overseas position. As a group, these fifty subjects experienced a mean of 14.18 symptoms of culture shock. At least one in five perceived the initial four months as a learning experience.

Using the information obtained, it seems that a married woman with four or more years of teaching experience, with positive motivation for and positive expectations about going overseas, and with intermediate competency in the host language might have the fewest culture shock symptoms before Christmas, provided that good orientation and at least some help in getting settled is provided. Similarly, a single woman who has taught for two years in one school, who is either fluent in or has beginning knowledge of the host language and who has neither positive motivation nor expectations about the move overseas might exhibit the most culture shock symptoms by December, if there had been no orientation or help in getting settled provided.

It is obvious that the notions just suggested are hypothetical and oversimplified. There are so many variables to be considered that only further research will be able to isolate root causes for culture shock and beneficial traits of potential overseas teachers. Nonetheless, the data allow some tentative conclusions to be drawn and give insights for some recommendations.

CHAPTER V

WHO CARES IF TEACHERS GRIPE?

The purpose of this exploratory study is to increase the understanding of culture shock, investigate its effects on American teachers in overseas schools in Western Europe and to provide data relevant to some hypotheses concerning these effects. Five specific objectives have been stated which encompass the hypotheses. The data collected from a sample of fifty teachers who all have certain characteristics in common and their administrators have been analyzed in the previous chapter. It is now necessary to see what conclusions can be drawn from these data and to determine the implications for those involved with overseas schools and those who have interest in the phenomenon culture shock and its symptoms.

And What Are Your Symptoms, Ms. Smith?

One objective of this study was to identify discrete symptoms of culture shock. A search of the literature produced many possibilities which were drawn from descriptions about all types of people in varied cultural settings and in disparate states of isolation from their own culture. The study chose forty of these and, through the use of questionnaires, attempted

to determine if the suggested symptoms were manifested in American teachers at overseas schools in Western Europe during their first four months in an overseas job. Thus, all conclusions drawn from these data can pertain only to similar teachers in similar situations. In addition, the exploratory, non-experimental nature of the study allows only tendential conclusions. The ramifications must be considered in this light.

The data seems to indicate that, in the particular situation investigated, several symptoms frequently exist during the culture shock period. Seven of them were reported by more than one-half of the respondents. Two were connected specifically with professional activity in the classroom, namely, not decorating them with material about the local culture (74%) and not relating the host culture to classroom activities (56%). Even though the subjects were new in the country, both symptoms could indicate either that the teachers were hostile to or were avoiding the host culture. The least one could assume is that they did not know enough about their new environment to use it in their teaching.

Thoughtful orientation and preparation of new teachers and provision of appropriate materials could help lessen the frequency of these symptoms. Those who were irritable (70%), complained about the host culture (66%), were more fatigued (56%) or found the time trying (56%) show a trend which is substantiated in the literature. It seems that these traits will show up even in those people who move from one advanced Western industrial society to

another. That 56% of the teachers spent most of their free time before Christmas getting settled indicates a tendency toward avoidance of the alien environment as well. These seven symptoms, then, were part of the culture shock experience of a majority of the study's subjects.

Twenty-four of the forty symptoms were reported by more than a quarter but less than half the respondents. Among these were four symptoms which showed a negative attitude toward the host culture, for example, not liking the food or trusting the people, and three which could indicate negative relationships with pupils, such as using sarcasm with children or having difficulty being patient. Twelve symptoms categorized as subjective negative feelings also fell into this frequency range. Perhaps the statement below gives an idea about the possible impact of such symptoms on an educational institution where staff morale is of prime importance: Until Christmas vacation between 25% and 50% of all new teachers usually experience several of the following feelings: insecurity, anxiety, bewilderment, confusion, ineffectiveness, rejection, tension, alienation, loneliness, helplessness, frustration, low spirits. Surely any educational leader would like to improve such a situation, particularly when one-third of all new teachers felt less well physically than they had in the past.

In viewing the symptoms experienced relatively infrequently by the respondents, a more positive aspect begins to appear. In spite of hostile and critical attitudes towards the host culture and subjective negative feelings,

only 18% were homesick, only 16% felt generally negative and only one teacher felt apathetic. In fact, for 56% of the subjects, their general feeling was involvement and a positive attitude.

These figures seem to offer an explanation for an apparent contradiction. The data showed 58% of the teachers being more fatigued and 32% feeling less well. It also indicated that 60% of the teachers took one or no sick days before Christmas (Table 5, p. 56). A positive attitude and a sense of involvement seem to have induced the teachers to go to school in spite of fatigue or not feeling well. The administrative view (only four indicated more sick days by new teachers) bolsters this notion.

A further examination of those symptoms which were seldom reported allows another tentative conclusion. Being conscious of smells, being absent-minded and day-dreaming (so-called "tropical stare") and worrying about the drinking water were reported by only a few of the teachers studied. These symptoms are most likely to occur more frequently in hotter climates and in countries where hygiene standards are lower than in Western Europe. In addition, one could surmise that Americans have learned that water in Europe need not be bottled to be safe.

The data indicate a tendency toward frequent occurrence of seven symptoms. Further it seems that a majority of the symptoms investigated will be manifested often but less than half the time, while a final nine symptoms will occur relatively seldom.

Having noted these trends, one must consider how many symptoms a teacher might have. With reference to Table 19 (p. 96), a tentative indication is that teachers similar to the sample involved in this study might be expected to experience about 14 different symptoms during the initial four months in Western Europe. Perhaps one teacher in five might have one-half that number or less, while one in ten could expect to experience double the number of symptoms or more.

The study has provided some insights about tendencies concerning culture shock and the attendant symptoms. Some trends relevant to the frequency of the symptoms' occurrence and the number of symptoms teachers might experience have been noted. A discussion of the data with respect to the hypotheses and the other specific objectives will offer some explanation of the causes and some suggestions about ways to lessen the effects of culture shock.

The Job Is Yours, Mrs. White

Hiring effective faculty members is one of the most important tasks a school administrator does. Assuring that new teachers are effective as soon as possible is another facet of his job. Culture shock is accompanied by symptoms which hinder effectiveness to a certain extent. If a particular type of teacher is likely to suffer less than others from culture shock, then the characteristics of such teachers should be taken into account during the recruitment procedure.

An analysis of the questionnaires has provided indications that, at least in Western Europe, teachers with certain types of prior experience, motivation, expectations and language competency will allow those teachers to adjust more easily. The hypotheses were formulated with this objective in mind.

The first hypothesis stated that experienced teachers were less effected by culture shock than those with only three years of experience or less. Referring to Table 21 (p. 101), one sees that teachers of the sample with only two years at just one school averaged 20.38 (median 20.50) culture shock symptoms. Those who had taught one year more had a mean of 16.60 symptoms while those with more experience or had taught for 3 years in two schools averaged only 11.88 symptoms, which is 2.30 symptoms less than the mean for the entire sample. These figures may suggest that the teacher with more and varied experience will be better able to adjust to a new cultural environment.

The implication of such a conclusion is not, however, to hire only experienced teachers, since a balanced staff with a range of ages and experience seems to be best for any school. The reasons for this are not only pedagogical and organizational, but financial as well. Nonetheless, such a conclusion does lead to some practical suggestions. Recruiters should add this item to their many faceted deliberations. Often one does not know whom to chose among two seemingly equal candidates. If one seems more likely to adjust easily or quickly, it could tip the balance. A second suggestion seems more pertinent. The less experienced teacher might well need more support during

the first four months. This sounds like a truism, perhaps, but the new culture could magnify the effects of a new position in only the second school. How this support might be offered will be commented upon below.

The data concerning motivation for seeking a position overseas and the expectations of such a job (Table 22, p. 103) allow one to perceive a trend with respect to the second hypothesis which predicted less adjustment problems for those teachers whose cross-cultural motives and expectations were positive. Those teachers who indicated either positive cross-cultural motivation or expectation exhibited, on the average, about 5 fewer symptoms than any of the other groups and those with both even less. These teachers had wanted to live in another culture and had expected to get to know either the host country, its people or both. That they, as a group, seemed to adjust better to their new environment is not surprising.

The two groups who had other reasons or expectations experienced more symptoms. The motives they might have had were travel, a totally different teaching position, accompanying a spouse or getting away from America and its culture. Their expectations could have been similar. Since many did not travel much at first, because they were getting settled, disappointment might have slowed or hindered adjustment. Overseas teaching is difficult and challenging but one needs time to get into it. Those who came with professional motives or expectations might well have had to wait till after Christmas to feel satisfied as a teacher. Those coming primarily

because of a spouses' move could well have brought some resentment or negative feelings along which could have been exacerbated by being transplanted. Those who were leaving something, rather than seeking, perhaps found much in Europe which they had wished to avoid. Perhaps they were trying to escape things which they brought with them. Those who expected a cosmopolitan life style may not have found it in the first four months or could not afford it. For whatever reasons, their adjustment was less easy as a group.

The ramifications of these tendencies are to suggest yet another facet for hiring procedures. If one wishes to recruit teachers who are not only good but who might adjust more easily to a new culture, an investigation of the motives and expectations of the candidates could provide additional helpful information. The author suggests that the data supports the belief expressed by many overseas administrators that one is better off with a teacher who is actively seeking cross-cultural contact rather than with one who is trying to avoid his own. Most likely the experienced recruiter attempts to discover this information in some fashion as a matter of course.

Attempting to measure true motives is not easy, since candidates are usually trying to say the proper thing. Discovering language competency is much easier, if one is interviewing. The data concerning the relationship between cultural adjustment and knowledge of the host language indicate that, if one has intermediate competency or none, the frequency of culture shock

symptoms tend to be less and if one knows a little or is fluent, more symptoms are manifested.

The only conclusions which can be offered here are specualitve.

People who arrive with no knowledge do not expect to understand the language at all and, hence, have no let down when they must communicate at first only in English. Their expectations have been met. Beginners, on the other hand, may have the hope of being able to do more with their beginning knowledge and may be disappointed in two ways. Either they soon realize how little they know or they may find too many people who wish to use their (very often better) English. The author has had both experiences. They can be depressing. Those with intermediate knowledge of the local language will be able to use it often, will not feel as much out of place and will see their competency improve rather quickly. Hence, the ability to communicate may well ameliorate the effects of culture shock.

One would assume, following the previous logic, that those who were fluent in the host language would suffer least. That the data do not bear this out, leads to the author's notion that lack of fluency in the language of a new culture provides a kind of filter. One cannot understand all that one hears. This means for instance, that one does not pick up all the derogatory comments which one could hear about oneself or one's culture. For an American in a new culture in the 1970's, it is just as well. In public transport, on crowded streets or in stores and restaurants, a stranger stands out because of appearance or behaviour. As a fluent speaker, one understands the side

(snide?) comments and the vernacular observations. It is possible that these can affect a fluent person unnoticeably, while the teacher with intermediate knowledge or less is oblivious to the comments. Of the five fluent teachers, three (17 or more symptoms) may well have needed the filter for easier adjustment. If the speculation just offered is valid, the other two (4 and 6 symptoms) did not need such protection. Nonetheless, it seems that, if possible, schools should try to find candidates who offer some knowledge of the host language along with their other capabilities. In addition, the author feels that schools should provide required language training for new teachers.

There are two more sources of data which may have relevance to hiring procedures. The first is Table 26 (p. 111) concerning the sex of teachers and their marital status. The second is the administrative questionnaire. According to the data for this group, it seems that married women, whether they have children or not, have less symptoms of culture shock, while single women have the most. On the other hand, no average for any group is very far from the total sample's mean of 14.18. Of all the criteria for hiring mentioned in this section, it would seem that the question of sex and marital status is, relatively seen, least important. Perhaps it is worth noting that, in comparing notes with several colleagues in other overseas schools, there is a consensus that often newly-divorced teachers have a difficult time adjusting to overseas posts and that teachers who hope to

improve a poor marriage situation by going to a new culture often find the opposite happening.

The administrative questionnaire asked for specific traits sought in teaching candidates for overseas jobs. Adaptability, flexibility, versatility, maturity and a tolerance for frustration and ambiguity were those most frequently cited. Only mentioned four times but stressed was the idea that being secure in one's own culture is an important characteristic. This notion, and all of the others mentioned above, were also remarked upon repeatedly in the literature concerning culture shock.

When hiring teachers for any school, one is concerned with curricular and pedagogical expertise, dependability and other characteristics which are required for any responsible position. This study indicates that perhaps overseas teachers may need other qualities as well. There is also reason to believe that if teachers are hired who have more than three years of experience or who seek cross-cultural contact, they will experience less effects of culture shock than other teachers. It seems that intermediate knowledge of the language could help in this regard as well. If the data and conclusions have some validity, the information might also prove valuable in helping those who hire to avoid engaging teachers who may not adjust at all and consequently leave in mid-contract. Admitting that one cannot often find exactly the candidates one would like, the next problem is to see if one can help the new teachers adjust to their new cultural environment.

"Why Didn't Anyone Warn Me?"

Having hired good new teachers, it seems that a school should try to help them to be as effective as possible quite soon in the school year. Most pupils and teachers have frequently heard school principals say in September that it is important to start the new school year well so that it can be a good one, if not the best ever. Schools abroad are no different in that respect. Preparing new overseas teachers for that purpose, however, is different. A third objective of this study is to provide information which would be relevant to orientation and assistance necessary to aid adjustment to the new environment of the teachers who have been culturally transplanted. The conclusions and suggestions in this section will deal with initial communication with newly hired teachers, their orientation, the type of assistance given when they arrive, and their continuing cultural education.

Schools overseas should develop some "distant early warning" for their newly recruited teachers to let them have some details about what they are getting into. The questionnaire showed that the schools involved could provide much more information in advance. Table 9 (p. 63) reveals that the teachers received relatively little prior information. The schools involved are fairly large ones, with the resources to produce the material. An investigation of the numerous small ones might well show that even less is done by them in this regard.

Both Kalervo Oberg and E. T. Hall suggest that a good way to help alleviate culture shock is to inform people about it in advance.¹ The notion is that the element of subliminal surprise can be removed. Consequently, the author suggests that new teachers be sent copies of Oberg's speech and Hall's two books, The Silent Language and The Hidden Dimension. The books are in paperback editions and can be returned after having served their purpose which is an explanation of some of the things to expect when going overseas.

In addition, pamphlets about the school, its community and the host culture can be inexpensively prepared, as well as the usual lists of what to bring and what to leave at home. This kind of material needs to be prepared only once and periodically up-dated. If compiled in looseleaf folders, they, too, can be returned once a teacher is settled. Information concerning what facilities are available in the city and how to do things can be compiled by a parent group and be given to new teachers on arrival. All of these materials need only be prepared for orientation, which is the first time questions can be asked directly.

The study's fourth hypothesis states that extensive orientation upon arrival could ameliorate the effects of culture shock. In Chapter IV (p. 107) the data relative to this prediction seems to indicate an inverse relationship

¹Oberg, pp. 5-6; Edward T. Hall, "Orientation and Training in Government for Work Overseas." Human Organization, 15 (Spring 1956), pp. 6-7.

between the amount of orientation and the number of culture shock symptoms. Those twenty teachers who reported having some to good orientation (3-7 items covered) had a mean of less than 12 symptoms while the other teacher's average was above 15. One can tentatively conclude that the more orientation offered, the more easily new teachers can adjust. Nonetheless, a caveat must be offered. Too much orientation could well lead to an overload of information and, hence, prove counterproductive. Further research is needed to determine at what point the law of diminishing returns begins to function.

"All Those Forms Drove Us Crazy"

New teachers need to get settled in their new environment before they begin to teach. This can be conveniently combined with orientation, since getting used to a different culture requires explanations which are valuable for both areas of concern. The final hypothesis states that extensive help from the school in getting settled alleviates the effects of culture shock. Although the data from Table 25 (p. 109) do not support the hypothesis, some tendencies can be noted. It seems that if help is given in at least two areas, a reduction in the number of symptoms could be expected.

The implications of this trend seem to be clear and are also consistent with Maslow's theory concerning a hierarchy of human needs.² People seem

² Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954).

to be able to devote themselves best to areas which will bring acceptance and esteem once their physiological and security needs are met. In the case of overseas teachers, this can be seen as meaning that once they are able to eat, sleep and be warm and dry in their own house and feel secure about health and safety, they will be able to concentrate on being an effective teacher and belonging fully to a faculty.

Schools should make every effort to help settle new teachers and their families as soon as possible. If apartments are not immediately available, the school community should be canvassed for temporary housing. "Crash kits" with the minimum of kitchenware and bedding are easily accumulated and can be returned and stored after the new people are fully settled. It is particularly important that families with children be told immediately how to use the local medical facilities since children can become sick in a new environment. Sponsor families can help with this and the necessary task of showing where and how to shop for food and furnishings. Finally, schools should give every assistance possible in negotiating the bureaucracy of the new culture. Most countries require permits for innumerable reasons and the time and effort spent by the schools in doing this is justified. This last item alone may well reduce some of the frustrations of the first weeks and the amount of hostility towards the host culture.

Continuing Education

There are further recommendations to be made concerning the "care and feeding" of new teachers. All of the things which have been suggested for the period between arrival in the new city and the beginning of school cannot happen in a week. The author believes that overseas schools can and should require by contract that their new teachers arrive at and remain in the city two weeks before school starts. A detailed program should be provided which includes multi-faceted orientation and the necessary settling-in procedures. In this way, paperwork can be done efficiently in a group, housing can be arranged and the teachers can begin to get their bearings. The topic of culture shock can be discussed and language classes can begin.

The process started during the first two weeks must also be continued. Teachers will need workshops to discover how to relate the new environment to their professional work; they will need to explore the types of field trips possible and to discover where to get local material. Most will want to continue their language training and all should be required to do so for some months. That teachers understand culture shock is particularly important, if one considers that many of the children in class will be feeling its effects and the teacher must have the necessary knowledge to help those children who are also in a new culture. Administrators must care if teachers gripe, especially if it is done in front of the children. This topic should be stressed

during orientation, for overseas schools should be interested in positive cross-cultural contact. The author contends that ethnocentric attitudes should be broken down in schools with multi-national communities.

From the foregoing discussion it seems clear that the teachers in these schools might have had an easier time during their first four months overseas had they received more complete material about their new location and school, more orientation and more help in getting settled. In addition, overseas schools should reconsider the time allotted for these activities, both before school starts and during the fall term. How much time, effort and money individual schools can devote to such a program can only be locally determined. In light of these data, however, the question seems to be worth reconsidering.

Learning Through Suffering

The notion that culture shock can be a positive learning experience rather than a negative period of unpleasant symptoms has been articulated in Chapter II; an exploration of this idea is another specific objective of this study. The teachers were given an opportunity to report data directly relevant to it and an analysis of the symptoms reported was also carried out with this goal in mind. The following conclusions and speculations resulted from an examination of these sources.

The teacher respondents were asked to choose one of seven statements which most nearly characterized their feelings about being at an overseas school at the mid-point of their first four months. Eleven of them chose responses which indicated that theirs had been a learning experience. The responses chosen also indicated that they had been at least somewhat introspective. In analyzing their answers with respect to the number of reported culture shock symptoms, the mean for the eleven teachers was 12.45 symptoms (median = 11). It is also important to note that four of these teachers experienced 17 or more symptoms and still felt that they had learned.

One can therefore conclude that for some people culture shock is not a generally negative phenomenon. This is buttressed by the fact that twelve other teachers perceived their experience as positive. Going one step further, one can speculate that, under certain circumstances, the negative parts of encountering a new culture could be lessened and an increased incidence of positive aspects could be facilitated. The latter could include an increased knowledge of oneself in relation to one's own culture and a new one. This study indicates tentatively some ways how this could come about.

Teachers, it is often said, should always continue to learn. If those who go abroad to teach have positive cross-cultural motivation and expectations, they should have attitudes which will allow them to be receptive to cross-cultural learning. If schools provide material prior to arrival, set up orientation and language programs and help the new teachers get settled,

the conditions for such learning might well be enhanced. Similarly, if these programs are extended in time and depth throughout the first four months of the teachers' sojourn in a new culture, they may well be more effective teachers for that school and probably sooner. Adler suggests that such a cross-cultural experience can lead to significant changes in attitudes and behaviours and increased cultural and self awareness. These can include increased tolerance, more sensitivity to others and a greater ability to interpret situations.³ The author suspects that Adler's notions are valid and that overseas schools can create a climate which will help these changes take place, thereby improving the school and the people involved with it.

Neither Adler, nor the author in a previously mentioned paper,⁴ suggest that culture shock should be eliminated, even if that were possible. In fact, it is probably beneficial that one be "culturally shaken up." It is likely that only then can one change one's focus and begin to truly appreciate another culture, to benefit by the cross-cultural experience. The author suspects that only a minority go abroad to escape something. Most seek a positive new experience. This study suggests that there are ways to make these experiences more so.

³ Adler, pp. 15-18.

⁴ Calhoun, "Education in a Multicultural Setting," pp. 7-8.

"My Children Were Also Affected"

An exploratory study can only discover possible tendencies about the topic examined, but these tendencies can help show in which direction further research could, or perhaps, should go. The writer will mention below five areas in which further investigation of culture shock and its effects might prove fruitful. They include facets which are indicated by the limitations of this study, other approaches to the general topic of symptoms, additional causal items with respect to teacher background, the effects of culture shock upon children and whether American-type overseas schools have culture shock effects on those non-Americans who are involved with such an educational institution.

Throughout this paper it has been emphasized that the exploratory nature of the study is one of the major limitations. Culture shock and its symptoms have not been extensively studied nor has true experimental work been done in the area. As has been noted, the literature is largely descriptive and anecdotal. Thus, the author has attempted to add to the understanding of this phenomenon. From the outset, it has been acknowledged that the data produced involves a multitude of intervening variables and, hence, only tentative conclusions have been drawn. Nonetheless, it seems clear that carefully constructed experimental studies could be done to discover more information about cross-cultural attitudes, ethnocentrism and changes in

these areas after having been overseas for a period of time. Before and after or follow-up studies are definite possibilities as well. All of these seem to fall into the fields of anthropology and sociology, not to mention psychology and education.

The data produced and reported here raise provocative questions about individual symptoms and their frequency or cause. Questions concerning the influence of the discrete cultures on type or frequency or specific effects were beyond the scope of the paper. A study which attempted to determine culture shock for Americans in Germany, for instance, could be of interest, or so could a comparison between the effects in two different countries or cultures. Certainly it could be valuable to have some notion about which symptoms affect more seriously a person's professional effectiveness or which variables seem to cause more frequent manifestations of a specific symptom. A study concerning psychosomatic as opposed to physically-based symptoms seems intriguing. The American overseas community is large enough to allow experimental control-groups studies to be carried out. Teachers are only a small part of the greater international community of the "Weltstädte."

More specifically, a closer examination of the background of teachers could produce more indications for hiring procedures and orientation programs. This study did not request any information about where in the U.S. the respondents came from. A rural-suburban-urban breakdown, or one concerning various sections of America might show that certain teachers are

more easily able to adjust or that others need more initial support. The effect of prior overseas travel has also not been examined in this paper. Study in these areas would be beneficial.

Teachers and schools have children as a prime consideration. In all the literature concerning culture shock, cultural adjustment or cross-cultural experiences, children are not mentioned except tangentially. Multi-national firms, governmental institutions, religious mission groups, and private individuals move families all over the globe; it seems that very little thought is given to the effect of these transplantations on children, with the obvious exception being their schooling. It might be remarked that the necessity for having schools is only partly for the good of the children. Many parents do not wish to teach the children themselves, nor are they happy to have the boys and girls at home all the time.

What does a child go through when he is surrounded by a new culture? It is often suggested that they adapt to anything everywhere quite quickly, perhaps because children pick up language faster than adults. But that does not mean that moving from a familiar to a strange culture is simply easy. Until this area is investigated, one does not know. It is also not clear what effects teachers' cultural attitudes have on the children they teach. Is it difficult for a child to relate to the host culture if the teacher seems to dislike or avoid it? Or can an American child develop his own national cultural identity if his teacher has totally "gone native?" Investigations concerning these questions might also give indications about what should

happen in the bi- or multi-cultural classrooms all over the United States and the world.

The effect of American culture should not be underestimated either. Many overseas schools are very definitely modeled as American schools abroad. Many of their pupils and teachers, however, are not American. What sort of culture shock do these people undergo when they first come to such a school? They are suddenly confronted with American or British teaching methods and curricula and the American "style." It is not good enough to say that these people chose the school, for often the alternatives are not educationally valid. This whole area would profit by investigation of some sort. It is possible that some simple changes could be made to ease the initial period of adjustment by non-Americans to an American overseas school.

This study has not only shown some tentative relationships between culture shock symptoms and possible causes; it has also indicated the direction further research should take.

Summary: "I Had to Learn to Cope with Italian Men"

The idea that one can learn from a cross-cultural experience appears to be a truism, but it might not be as self-evident as one thinks. This exploratory study began with the statement that the phenomenon culture shock affects those Americans who go abroad to live. An investigation of these effects upon a discrete group of overseas Americans, namely, those who

teach in American schools in Western Europe was perceived to be useful. This conclusion was based on four data sources. The literature indicated that culture shock is linked with adjustment problems, various agencies have training programs to alleviate culture shock, experienced overseas school personnel substantiate the problem's existence and the author's own experience and observations concur. The study was conceived with three general purposes in mind: to better understand culture shock, to explore its effects on the group of teachers mentioned and to provide data relevant to hypotheses concerning culture shock, its causes and ways to lessen its effects.

The study's conceptualization involved stated the hypotheses and specific objectives which then led to the identification of the sample to be used. It was a group of American teachers who had recently begun their first overseas teaching position in one of five selected schools in Belgium, Germany, Holland and Italy. The teachers, 50 in all, had had at least two years experience prior to going overseas, all spoke English as a mother tongue and had been abroad no longer than 16 months when they responded to the questionnaire.

It was constructed to elicit specific data which would allow tentative conclusions relevant to the hypotheses and objectives of the study. The teachers were asked to provide information about their background and experience, about their reasons for going overseas, and what they experienced when they arrived. They indicated which of 40 culture shock symptoms they

had experienced. These data allowed trends to be noted with respect to the study's goals.

An analysis of the data showed that this group of teachers on the average, experienced about 14 symptoms per person. In addition, tentative conclusions could be drawn concerning which symptoms could be most frequently expected for American teachers in those cultures represented. Particularly noteworthy was the indication that two of the most frequent symptoms involved apparent avoidance attitudes with regard to the host culture in classroom situations, not the best attitudes for the furtherance of international understanding.

The responses were also analyzed with respect to the relationship between the number of symptoms per teacher and the following items: type of prior teaching experience, positive cross-cultural motivation and expectations, host language competency, amount of orientation and assistance in getting settled in the new culture. These data were useful in drawing conclusions with respect to the specific objectives which had been set.

Specific culture shock symptoms which affect American teachers in Western Europe were identified and some tendencies about the frequency of these were noted. It was concluded that, all other criteria being equal, if one values having teachers who easily adjust to a new culture, it might be better to hire those whose prior experience is more than three years and in more than one school. Teachers who have prior positive cross-cultural motives and expectations could well be expected to adjust with less problems,

as might those with intermediate competency in the host language.

A good orientation program for new teachers and a procedure for assisting them to get settled in their new environment also seem wise to help ameliorate the effects of culture shock. It has also been suggested that the orientation program be extended past the beginning of school, partially to continue the support for those teachers who may not adjust easily, but also to help teachers have a more positive learning experience from their new and extensive cross-cultural contacts.

Having explored so many facets of culture shock and its effects, ideas for future research remained to be discussed. Several have been mentioned, including the fact that truly scientific studies are needed in this area. It was stressed that the effects of culture shock on children seem not to have been investigated yet. It is hoped that these conclusions and implications have cast some new light on the subject and will serve to motivate further research in cross-cultural studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS IN
OVERSEAS SCHOOLS

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 March, 1973

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS IN OVERSEAS SCHOOLS

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect data about how teachers are affected by living and teaching in a foreign culture. The study explores culture shock and its effects, with the aim of understanding better the problems of adjusting to a different cultural environment and discovering why some people adjust more easily or more quickly.

The questionnaire focuses on the period from September to Christmas vacation during your first year in a teaching position overseas. In the items which require comparison, would you please relate your experience during that period to your prior teaching experience in your home country.

Although most questions do not require that you write out answers, I would welcome any spontaneous comments you would like to make. Please feel free to use the margins or the reverse side of the page.

I appreciate your help and cooperation.

1. Please supply the following personal information:

Nationality _____ Sex M _____ F _____

Marital Status _____ No. of Children _____

2. If you knew any foreign languages prior to your arrival at the overseas schools, please write in those you knew after the most appropriate description of fluency.

I could read read menus and road signs in _____.

I could order a meal and understand oral directions in _____.

I could read a newspaper in _____.

I could converse on a superficial level in _____.

I could read _____ fluently.

I could speak _____ fluently.

3. Had you traveled abroad before? Yes _____ No _____
If yes, please indicate in the appropriate time category where you traveled.

One - three months _____

Four - six months _____

Seven - twelve months _____

More _____

4. Please indicate the extent of your formal education (degrees, diplomas, certificates).

5. Indicate your total number of years of teaching experience prior to arrival. _____

6. How many different schools had you taught in? _____

7. Please circle all the grades which you had taught as self-contained classes.

K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

8. If you had taught classes in separate subjects, please indicate which subjects and at which grade level (example - English 7, 10, 12).

English _____ Social Studies _____ Art _____

Math _____ Science _____ Music _____

Foreign Language (specify which) _____

Physical Education _____ Other _____

What classes, grades, or subjects did you teach during your first four months overseas? _____

9. Why did you take a position in an overseas school? Please indicate the two most important of the reasons given below and show which is your first choice and which is your second.

_____ A desire to live in another culture.
 _____ A desire to travel in Europe.
 _____ A desire to get away from my own country and culture.
 _____ A desire to teach in a totally different situation.
 _____ My spouse was coming to this city.
 _____ Other (specify) _____.

10. Which of the listed expectations did you have prior to your arrival? Please rank all which apply.

_____ I would be able to travel extensively and often.
 _____ I could get to know the people of the host country.
 _____ I could get to know the host culture.
 _____ I would have a challenging professional experience.
 _____ I would have cosmopolitan life style.
 _____ Other (specify) _____.

11. How were you recruited for your first overseas position? Please check all which apply.

_____ By Mail _____ Personal Interview
 _____ Telephone Interview _____ "came in off the street"
 _____ Other (specify) _____

12. Please indicate how much material about the three items listed the school provided you with prior to your arrival.

The Schools	_____ none	_____ minimal	_____ some	_____ much
The Community	_____ none	_____ minimal	_____ some	_____ much
The Host Culture	_____ none	_____ minimal	_____ some	_____ much

13. How long were you in the host country before school started?

14. Please indicate the school's involvement in helping to get you settled?

	The school did it.	The school helped.	The school left me on my own.
Obtaining temporary housing	_____	_____	_____
Obtaining permanent housing	_____	_____	_____
Obtaining furnishings	_____	_____	_____
Finding shopping facilities	_____	_____	_____
Finding medical facilities	_____	_____	_____
Doing bureaucratic paperwork	_____	_____	_____

15. Please check all those items which were dealt with during new teacher orientation.

_____ An explanation of the main cultural mores of the host culture.

_____ Special difficulties for foreigners living in that country.

_____ Special advantages of living in that country.

_____ A tour showing you "the lay of the land."

_____ Idiosyncrasies of the school.

_____ Idiosyncrasies of the school community.

_____ An explanation of your role as a foreigner in the country.

16. Did you begin to learn the host language very soon after you arrived at the school? Yes _____ No _____

If _____ School-financed lessons.

yes, _____ School-arranged lessons, but you paid for them.
how? _____

_____ Commercial, Berlitz-type lessons.

_____ Privately arranged lessons.

_____ Other (specify) _____.

17. Approximately how many days of school did you miss because of sickness before Christmas vacation? _____

18. Please check those items which apply to your situation during your initial four months in that country.

_____ I lived alone.

_____ I lived with my spouse.

_____ I lived with a family from the host culture.

_____ I lived with a family from the school-parent group.

_____ I lived with one or more teachers from my school.

_____ I lived in housing provided by the U. S. government.

_____ Other.

19. Please underline the appropriate word choice which best describes your situation during your first four months. Respond to all four sentences, please.

a. I had frequent/occasional/no social contact with parents.

b. I had frequent/occasional/no social contact with colleagues.

c. I had frequent/occasional/no social contact with people from the host culture but not connected with school.

d. I had frequent/occasional/no social contact with people from my own culture but not connected with the school.

20. Please check the one statement below which most nearly describes how you felt about your first overseas job on or about November 1st of that year.

- _____ a. I hate it here.
- _____ b. I am having a great time.
- _____ c. It is interesting here, but I am only an observer.
- _____ d. I have really learned a lot about myself and my culture.
- _____ e. I am adjusting to the difficulties of living here.
- _____ f. I won't make it til Christmas.
- _____ g. This is a wonderful adventure.
- _____ h. I never realized I knew so little.
- _____ i. It's okay, but not worth all the frustrations.

In questions 21 - 54, please react to each statement in relation to your initial four months in the overseas position. Stated or implied comparisons should be made between that period and your prior experience. Please circle the appropriate letter as to whether you AGREE (A), DISAGREE (D), or have NO OPINION (N).

21. A D N New teachers griped a lot concerning little things about this country.
22. A D N People in this country seemed pushy at first.
23. A D N I found new teachers talking louder to people who spoke a language other than English.
24. A D N I felt less well than I usually do.
25. A D N At first I was quite bothered by the different smells in this country.
26. A D N It was more difficult to be patient in the classroom than usual.
27. A D N I began to use sarcasm.
28. A D N Other new teachers did not seem to be affected by minor irritations.
29. A D N I had little apparent difficulty communicating with the children who came from cultures other than my own.

30. A D N I worried about the drinking water.
31. A D N In decorating my classroom I used pictures and other materials from this culture.
32. A D N. I found myself complaining about differences in this culture.
33. A D N My newly-arrived colleagues seemed to be frequently irritable.
34. A D N My enthusiasm decreased during this period.
35. A D N I noticed that other new teachers were absent-minded and often daydreamed (blank stares).
36. A D N My nervous habits were somewhat accentuated.
37. A D N I avidly explored this country before Christmas.
38. A D N Little things bothered me.
39. A D N I felt that I could trust the people in this country right away.
40. A D N I talked louder when people did not understand me.
41. A D N It was easy to find local substitutes for my usual toilet articles.
42. A D N My relationships with colleagues were closer here than at home.
43. A D N Time seemed to pass slowly.
44. A D N It was easy to relate things in this culture to classroom work.
45. A D N Teachersroom (lounge) discussions became gripe sessions about living in this country.
46. A D N New teachers were not often sarcastic with children.
47. A D N During my first four months here I spent most of my free time getting settled.
48. A D N At home I had to send children to the office less often than here.
49. A D N I was more fatigued than usual.
50. A D N I liked the local food right away.

51. A D N I noticed that new teachers had no visible nervous habits.
52. A D N I became absent-minded and daydreamed more.
53. A D N I was as well-organized as usual.
54. A D N I "blew up" more often.

This last section requires you to respond very generally and subjectively. Please react to the paired words or phrases in relation to how you typically felt during your first four months teaching overseas. Place each pair in the balance to see which was more often true for you. Check the space next to the truer word or phrase. Check the middle one for toss-ups. Your first reaction is probably the most accurate.

trying	_____	_____	_____	easy
fulfilled	_____	_____	_____	frustrated
lonely	_____	_____	_____	not lonely
secure	_____	_____	_____	insecure
apathetic	_____	_____	_____	involved
relaxed	_____	_____	_____	tense
confused	_____	_____	_____	"with it"
"raring to go"	_____	_____	_____	tired
helpless	_____	_____	_____	capable
effective	_____	_____	_____	ineffective
time flew by	_____	_____	_____	time dragged
disorganized	_____	_____	_____	organized
anxiety	_____	_____	_____	security
purposeful	_____	_____	_____	bewildered
homesick	_____	_____	_____	felt at home
high spirited	_____	_____	_____	low spirited
accepted	_____	_____	_____	rejected
alien	_____	_____	_____	familiar
positive	_____	_____	_____	negative

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATORS IN
OVERSEAS SCHOOLS

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR ADMINISTRATORS
IN OVERSEAS SCHOOLS

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The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect generalized data from the administrator's perception about how teachers are affected by living and teaching in a foreign culture. It is designed to focus on the period from September to Christmas vacation during a teacher's first year of overseas teaching.

While generalizations, taken separately, are often misleading, inaccurate or dangerous, I believe that a cumulative consideration will indicate valid tendencies and trends concerning the effects of culture shock during that initial four month period.

Please feel free to make comments in the margin or on the back of the page.

I appreciate your help and cooperation.

1. School's name _____
2. Your position _____
3. How many years of administrative experience have you had at home? _____ Overseas? _____
4. How many teachers do you supervise now? _____
5. Total number of students. _____ Number of nationalities. _____
_____ % Americans. _____ % from host country. _____ % from other countries
6. Please check the items which apply to the requirements of your school for prospective teachers.
_____ B. A. or equivalent _____ Certification
_____ M.A. or equivalent _____ Prior experience. If, # of years.
_____ Other (please specify) _____
7. Please mention any specific traits you look for in candidates for teaching overseas as opposed to those for teaching at home.

8. Please check all items with which your school helps new teachers in order to get them settled.

Obtaining temporary housing Obtaining permanent housing
 Obtaining furnishings Finding medical facilities
 Finding shopping facilities Doing bureaucratic paperwork
 Other (please specify) _____

9. Please check all those items which were dealt with during orientation for new teachers.

An explanation of the main cultural mores of the host culture.
 Special difficulties for foreigners living in that country.
 Special advantages of living in that country.
 A tour showing them "the lay of the land."
 Idiosyncrasies of the school.
 Idiosyncrasies of the school community.
 An explanation of their role as a foreigner in the country.
 Other (please specify) _____

10. Since September of 1970 how many teachers have failed to complete their first teaching year at your school at least partly because they could not adjust to living in your host culture? _____

11. Please generalize by underlining the appropriate word to complete these sentences about the first four months of a new teacher's tenure overseas.

- a. They seem to have frequent / occasional / no social contact with parents of children in the school.
- b. They seem to have frequent / occasional / no social contact with colleagues from the school.
- c. They seem to have frequent / occasional / no social contact with people from the host culture but who are not connected with the school.
- d. They seem to have frequent / occasional / no social contact with people from their own culture but who are not connected with the school.

Question 12 - 51 are designed to elicit data which will indicate differences between the behavior and mental state of teachers during their initial four months of living and teaching overseas and that of all the teachers in the following three categories:

- a. New teachers after their first four months of teaching.
- b. Experienced overseas teachers.
- c. Teachers you have known at home.

Please consider each statement as it pertains to new teachers in comparison to all other teachers, generalizing as well as you can. Then circle the appropriate letter, indicating whether you AGREE (A), DISAGREE (D), or have NO OPINION (N).

12. A D N They are usually punctual.
13. A D N They tend to be either very vocal or very reserved in meetings.
14. A D N They ask many questions which often have obvious answers.
15. A D N They have little difficulty communicating with children from cultures other than their own.
16. A D N They neglect the paperwork (rosters, attendance, warnings, etc.) required in our school.
17. A D N They explore this country avidly.
18. A D N They neglect proper classroom environment (lighting, ventilation, messiness, etc.).
19. A D N They easily relate parts of the indigenous culture in their classes.
20. A D N They become less well-groomed.
21. A D N They like the local food right away.
22. A D N They seek help with personal problems from administrators.
23. A D N They are well-organized.
24. A D N They are withdrawn.
25. A D N They are not insecure.
26. A D N They are homesick.
27. A D N They can cope.
28. A D N They experience anxiety.

29. A D N Their morale is high.
30. A D N They use pictures and materials from the host culture to decorate their classrooms.
31. A D N They are confused.
32. A D N They miss more days of school because of illness.
33. A D N They are apathetic.
34. A D N They have a positive attitude.
35. A D N They are lonely.
36. A D N They are frustrated.
37. A D N Their lesson plans are well-done.
38. A D N They "blow up" often.
39. A D N They feel accepted.
40. A D N Their discussions in the teacher's room become gripe sessions about the host culture.
41. A D N They have relatively few discipline problems.
42. A D N Their nervous habits become accentuated.
43. A D N They trust the people in this country right away.
44. A D N They are absent-minded and daydream.
45. A D N They are even-tempered.
46. A D N Their enthusiasm decreases during this period.
47. A D N They use sarcasm with children.
48. A D N They do not worry about drinking water.
49. A D N They speak louder to foreigners.
50. A D N They are seldom impatient.
51. A D N They frequently complain about little things in this country.
52. What is your nationality. _____

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME.

APPENDIX C
DATA CONCERNING PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

DATA CONCERNING PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

	Berlin	Brussels	Frankfurt	The Hague	Rome
Number of Teachers	95	82	65	85	70
Number of Women*	59	57	39	46	54
Number of Men*	36	25	26	39	16
Number of Students	1250	1160	800	1050	700
Number of Nationalities in Student Body	12	21	30	22	40
% of U. S. Students	49%	78%	70%	85%	70%
% of Host Country Students	48%	-	15%	1%	8%
% of Third Country Nationals	3%	22%	15%	14%	22%

*Taken from The Directory, European Council of International Schools, London, September 1973.



