INFORMAL FOREIGN STUDENT ADVISING AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN-LA CROSSE: A TEST OF THE ASSOCIATION HYPOTHESIS

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Abstract

A network of informal foreign student advising on the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse campus was described, using questionnaire responses. The 27 responding foreign students selected helpful, understanding and empathic faculty and staff members. Faculty whose role assignment included foreign student advising were selected with disproportionate frequency, and choices were not influenced by academic major.

The students also disproportionately selected faculty and staff who had expressed an interest in international education, but selection was unrelated to prior educational experience abroad on the part of the faculty and staff. Furthermore, empathy ratings were unrelated to prior experience abroad or to expressed interest in international education.

The foreign students at La Crosse match the national norm only on sex distribution, and roughly approximate it on year in school. There is no match for academic major or country of origin. No support for the U-curve adjustment hypothesis was found.

These foreign students report a slightly elevated adjustment level relative to their satisfaction with help received and their perception of the general level of understanding toward foreign students at La Crosse. This may be attributable to their own efforts toward problem resolution and to cooperation with their peer group.

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Chapter I

Introduction

International education programs have developed rapidly since the end of World War II. By the academic year 1975-76 over 178,850 students from other nations were enrolled at 2,473 institutions of higher education in the United States (The Chronicle of Higher Education, May 10, 1976). The expenditure entailed by these numbers is justified on three bases. They are: commitment to the dissemination of knowledge, which knows no geographical limitations, the broad best interest of this country pursued through exposure of potential foreign leaders to the American way of life, and an altruistic interest in the international community's welfare, particularly expressed through aid to developing nations in technological fields.

Underlying much of the activity in the field of international education is the assumption that contact between peoples of diverse cultural backgrounds leads to understanding and empathy. This assumption is ancient in origin and pervasive in its influence:

> Walk together, talk together,
> o ye peoples of the earth;
> then and only then, shall yea have peace.
> - From the Sanskrit

Individual enterprise now, as throughout history, often plays a role in international scholarly exchange. However, in recent years, governments, international agencies and philanthropic organizations have institutionalized and systemitized these

exchanges. Nevertheless, although the character of exchange has broadened, the basic assumption remains that not only will technological development be aided, but international understanding as well.

At most American colleges and universities the task of facilitating educational exchange falls within the scope of the student services staff. Where numbers of international students are large enough, a specialized office, usually called the Foreign Student Advisor, is instituted to meet some of their needs. At the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse, where there were 40 international students in the 1975-76 academic year, an Administrative Assistant to the Dean has the responsibility of administering the Immigration and Naturalization Service regulations in addition to Veteran's Affairs and other duties. Although the Foreign Student Advisor's office serves as a centralized point of concern for these international students, in reality the advising and counseling functions are diffusely distributed among faculty and staff members who possess expertise and concern related to the problem at hand. Other services are similarly fragmented. Selection of foreign students for admission is the function of the Admissions Office. Treating health problems arising from food and climate differences is the responsibility of the Health Center. Academic advising is the responsibility of the major department advisor. Vocational and personal counseling may take place informally or within the University Counseling Center or Placement Office. The Financial Aid Office carries a large part of the responsi-

bility for coping with financial difficulties common among foreign students. Programming for the International Student Organization has been the responsibility of volunteer advisors from the University faculty and staff.

In its March 1976 meeting, the Foreign Student Advisory Committee, which had in the past served primarily in a trouble-shooting capacity, began to reevaluate the overall planning of student services for international students at La Crosse. Attention was first focused on the high level of interest on the part of the faculty, expressed on a survey, in favor of strengthening the intercultural education program at La Crosse. Secondly, revisions of admissions practices with regard to foreign students were discussed. Because of demographic changes in the United States, vacancies will exist in college and university student bodies for the near future which could be partially filled through a selective increase in recruitment activities directed towards international students.

The Foreign Student Advisory Committee, the Foreign Student Advisor, and the entire student services structure all have an interest in facilitating the personal adjustment and satisfactory academic experiences of foreign students at La Crosse. An assessment of the present advisory system, both formal and informal, may serve these ends as well as providing data to test the assumption that intercultural contact produces understanding and empathy. In addition, implications may be drawn from such an assessment which will provide direction in training future advisors of foreign students at La Crosse. Insofar as

these findings may be generalized, suggestions may be made for the enhancement of foreign student advising at other United States institutions of higher education.

Statement of the Problem and Hypotheses

The University of Wisconsin-La Crosse has developed student services for foreign students in a fragmented manner within the functional structure of student services for all students. No general advising functions are assigned to any staff member other than the Foreign Student Advisor, whose primary function has been in Veteran's Affairs. His major duties with respect to foreign students have been to interpret and advise concerning Immigration and Naturalization Service regulations, and to assist with resolution of financial problems. It has been well established that foreign students endure a number of adjustment difficulties and must overcome barriers to their academic success, primarily English language and financial difficulties (DuBois, 1956; Linton, 1948; Sharma, 1973; Hattari, 1966; Galichia, 1966; Nelson, 1975). One of the purposes of this study was to provide a descriptive account of the current foreign student advising procedures. The methodology employed was to identify the faculty and staff members who serve as formal and informal advisors to the foreign students, assisting them in overcoming a variety of adjustment difficulties. Once identified, these faculty and staff members' names were sorted to determine whether their helpfulness, as perceived by the foreign students, was attributable to variables other than personal interest. Possible alternative explanations

considered were: foreign student advising as a part of their assigned role within the university; or, academic department, as correlated with the academic majors of the students naming them.

The second, and major purpose of this study involves a direct testing of the assumption underlying much of international education, that contact produces understanding and empathy. This study correlated faculty and staff members' experience and interest in other cultures with foreign students' perceptions of empathy and helpfulness on the part of these faculty and staff members. The major hypothesis tested was that faculty and staff members who have had educational experience abroad would be named by foreign students as helpful, understanding and empathic with greater frequency than faculty and staff who had not had such experience.

An interest in foreign cultures, whether acted out in experience abroad or not, may by extension, lead to an interest in foreign students within the American culture. This interest could be perceived by the foreign students as empathy. Those faculty and staff members who have such an interest, whether or not they have had the opportunity to participate in educational experience abroad, might be named by the foreign students as helpful, understanding and empathic. Therefore, a sub-hypothesis tested was that faculty and staff members who have indicated an interest in international education will be named by foreign students as more helpful, understanding and empathic than those faculty and staff members who have indicated no

interest in international education.

If both prior contact with other cultures and an expressed interest in international education are important in producing empathy, faculty and staff members who have both these characteristics should be named most often by the foreign students as helpful, understanding, and empathic. A second sub-hypothesis tested was that faculty and staff who have indicated both educational experience abroad and interest in international education will be named more often by foreign students as possessing understanding and empathy than faculty and staff who have neither experience nor interest, or only experience or interest.

A third purpose of this study was to provide a data bank for the use of student services personnel in articulating the role of the Foreign Student Advisor and of the Foreign Student Advisory Committee. Whether resources are allocated to the departments and persons who have provided helpful foreign student advising, or whether an argument can be made that the training of any future Foreign Student Advisor should include experience abroad as a result of findings of this study, the strengths and weaknesses of the foreign student advising program at La Crosse have been more clearly delineated.

The final purpose of the study was to determine the extent to which foreign students at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse are representative of foreign students in other United States colleges and universities. This was done through comparison of demographic data obtained from the sample with data

concerning foreign students nationally (Institute of International Education, 1973; The Chronicle of Higher Education, May 10, 1976). In addition, length of stay in the United States relative to expressed level of adjustment have been compared with findings of other studies (Gullahorn, 1963) to determine the comparability of the sample with foreign students at other institutions. The closer the fit between the sample and the national norm, the more readily generalizable will be the findings and their implications.

Importance of the Study

As has been the experience of many colleges and universities, the role of the student services staff with regard to foreign students at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse has developed in a fragmented, problem-responsive manner. As the administration and the Foreign Student Advisory Committee in particular seek to develop a proactive strategy for facilitating improvements in the total international education program, a clear description of the present advising situation is essential. Tabulation of data from this study provides a more systematic description than had previously been available of the actual network of advising contacts found helpful by foreign students. This network includes both formal and informal contacts in the foreign students' interaction with faculty and staff. The information gained may prove useful in decisions regarding the allocation of resources for the strengthening of the international education program. In addition, it may provide direction in compiling a composite character analysis and list of desirable

background experiences for any future Foreign Student Advisor. Insofar as the situational and sample characteristics at this campus are generalizable, the impact of the study on policy may be broadened.

However, the principal thrust of this study was theoretical rather than practical. Data from the study provide a means for the assessment of a major underlying assumption of international education, that is, that contact between peoples of diverse cultures produces understanding and empathy. Broadly, the data indicate the extent to which the foreign students in the sample believe in this assumption. Specifically, the data indicate the extent to which the foreign students in the sample endorse as helpful and understanding those faculty and staff members who have had prior educational experience in a culture other than the United States.

Review of Selected Literature

A review of the literature was conducted, drawing material from a broad range of works dealing with international education. In addition, materials from the social sciences that pertain to empathy, race relations, attitude change, intercultural differences, and adjustment were included in the literature search.

Brief History of International Education

Fraser and Brickman (1968) provide a definition of international education which places the movements of students across national boundaries within the broader context of institutional and governmental policy.

> International education refers to the various methods of international cooperation, understanding, and exchange. Thus, the exchange of teachers and students, aid to underdeveloped countries, and teaching about foreign educational systems fall within the scope of this term. On the negative side, international education also encompasses activities making for international misunderstanding, ill will, hatred, and even war (Fraser and Brickman, 1968, 1).

These institutional and governmental policies are far from constant. The foreign student's experience in the United States is affected by this framework of university and national policies, and any analysis citing development of understanding and empathy among peoples of diverse cultures must be interpreted within this broader context.

Cross-cultural education has a long and noble history. Padua, Oxford, Cambridge and the other major European and Far Eastern universities have always accepted foreign students. During the Middle Ages, centers of ecclesiastical learning drew scholars from throughout Europe, while Arabs of the West traveled to such cultural and scholarly centers as Baghdad and Al-Basrah (Khaldun, 1958). Erasmus' letters in the fifteenth century included comparative statements concerning educational excellence in England and in Italy, based on his own experiences in these countries (Allen, 1918).

During the sixteenth century a new type of literature emerged, providing scholarly travelers with assistance in making systematic observations and comparisons of the cultural and educational systems they encountered (Hodgen, 1964). In the following two centuries, travel of young gentlemen for educational purposes became an increasingly common practice. That

practice was continued in the American colonies, and later in the independent United States, where the sons of clergy and merchants were often sent to Europe for university education. An early example of advice to one such prospective international student is included in Fraser and Brickman (1968). John Mason in 1791 instructed his son to carefully avoid reference while in England to the late unpleasantness between that country and the United States. Concerns of political attitude and adjustment still play a role in the counseling of foreign students.

History of International Education in the United States

The growth of systems of higher education in the United States paralleled the development of national education systems in Europe in the 19th century. With the rise of nationalism, a shift in emphasis occurred. Universities had always been cosmopolitan; now they became international, a reflection of increased identification with governmental concepts and policies (Fraser and Brickman, 1968).

In the United States, the first foreign student arrived in 1784 from Venequela to study at Yale (Miller, 1973). In the period before 1900, numbers of foreign students remained small, as American colleges were preoccupied with concerns of the developing nation. With the Good Neighbor Policy of the 1930's thousands of Latin American students were encouraged to enter the United States to pursue their educational goals. An even more significant impetus was given this quantitative growth following World War II. Massive foreign aid programs encouraged vast numbers of students from Europe and the Far East to study in the United States while their universities, devastated by

the war, were being rebuilt. In addition, the broad and varied social and economic development programs launched in many technologically underdeveloped countries required training personnel abroad. A large proportion of these students selected programs in the United States because of its technological pre-eminence, and perhaps less idealistically, because of restrictions on place of study in funding programs (DuBois, 1956).

By the academic year 1972-73, over 146,000 students from 170 nations were enrolled at 1,508 institutions of higher education in the United States (Institute of International Education, 1973). The rate of growth of the foreign student population has slowed somewhat, reflecting some of the current financial impediments to continuing expansion of open educational exchange, but absolute numbers continue to increase.

Current Characteristics of International Education in the U.S.

The percentage of foreign students in the total college student population is small, about 1% nationally as compared with 11% in the United Kingdom, or 30% in Switzerland (Eide, 1970). According to the Institute of International Education, (1973), the foreign students in the U.S. have followed relatively stable patterns over the past twenty years in terms of origin, state of study, and field of study. Region of origin correlates closely with chosen field of study.

Preliminary data from the 1975-76 survey conducted by the Institute of International Education (Chronicle of Higher Education, May 10, 1976) indicate that a total of 178,850 international students are studying at 2,473 colleges and

Table 1

A. The Ten Nations Sending the Largest Numbers of Students to The United States From 1971 to 1973

Country	1971-72	1972-73
India	11,343	10,656
Hong Kong	9,302	10,298
Canada	10,396	9,679
China, Republic of	8,703	9,633
Iran	6,771	7,838
Cuba	7,612	6,859
Thailand	5,555	5,759
Japan	4,223	4,653
Nigeria	3,077	4,092
Korea, Republic of	3,490	3,730

(adapted from Institute of International Education, 1973,2)

B. The Ten Nations Sending the Largest Numbers of Students to the United States From 1974 to 1976

Country	1974-75	1975-76
Iran	13,780	19,630
Hong Kong	11,060	11,764
Nigeria	7,210	11,282
China, Republic of	10,250	10,071
India	9,660	9,497
Canada	8,430	9,289
Thailand	6,250	7,300
Japan	5,930	6,974
Venezuela	2,690	4,616
Mexico	4,000	4,553

(adapted from The Chronicle of Higher Education, May 10, 1976,13)

universities. The distribution by country of origin has changed somewhat between 1971 and 1976, reflecting economic and political changes.

In 1972-73, Latin American students represented the largest proportion in terms of region of origin (35%), with the Far East second, with 23%. By 1975-76 the balance had shifted so that the largest proportion of foreign students originated in Asia (95,814 or 53.5%). Latin America sent 29,415 students to the United States in 1975-76, or 16% of the total foreign student population.

California has consistently attracted the largest number of foreign students. In 1972-73, 22,643 foreign students were reported in California, or 15.5%, and in 1975-76, 25,904 were reported in California, or 14.5% of the total. Distribution by field of study has remained relatively constant. Engineering attracted the largest percentage, with 22% in 1972-73, and over 20% in 1975-76, consistent with figures since the 1950's. Social sciences have dropped from 12% in 1972-73 to 7.9% in 1975-76, a new low figure. According to the Institute of International Education (1973), "the proportion in the social sciences has always been between 12 and 15 per cent of the total" (3).

In a refinement of the available data, Bayer (1973) found foreign student enrollment to be highly correlated with selectivity, affluence, and private control of the institution. Lower or negative relationships were shown with other variables tested; type of institution, racial composition, religious

affiliation, regional location, size, library size, and proportion of faculty holding doctoral degrees.

The availability and reliability of data readily obtainable regarding personnel, locations and interests are a reflection of increased governmental and private agency interest in the field. Recent activity in this area is a larger scale replication and extension of efforts made after World War I by such organizations as the American-Scandanavian Foundation, the Institute of International Education, and several private foundations. Changes in emphasis and readjustment of goals reflect not only the larger numbers of persons in exchange programs, but also a growing sophistication regarding the nature of individual and social processes (DuBois, 1956).

A variety of governmental and voluntary organizations have been established which concern themselves with these processes in the context of exchange. The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs sponsors workshops frequently to clarify goals and processes in international education. In addition, seminars, workshops, studies and resulting monographs are underwritten by the Institute for International Education, U.S.A.I.D., and a variety of other governmental and private sources. In 1951, three foundations funded a sizeable grant to the Social Science Research Council, which established a Committee on Cross-Cultural Education to do research studies in the foreign student field (DuBois, 1956). Since 1952 the U.S. Department of State's International Educational Exchange Service has spent sizeable amounts yearly in evaluating its programs.

Furthermore, institutions of higher education are frequently engaged in evaluating their international education program (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1964), with the hope of more clearly meeting ideological objectives of dissemination of knowledge and understanding (Education and World Affairs, 1965).

Much of current research has dealt with individual adjustment in cross-cultural educational experiences (Smith, 1956). There is a need for broader research, to mesh with government-sponsored exchange programs which are couched in terms of social or cultural change. Care must be taken, however, that the independence of the individual or institution in this endeavor be preserved.

Development of the Role of the Foreign Student Advisor

American colleges and universities' responses to the demands of social or cultural change are necessarily in terms of service provided to individual students within those social and cultural contexts. Implementation of policy statements is channeled through the instruction, advising, health care, and other functions of the administration and faculty. In the United States, student services have long been an integral part of the university.

As the unique problems and needs of foreign students became evident, university administrative structures responded with the creation of a special position to serve those needs. The difficulties peculiar to international students are many, including both the legal and mundane regulations concerning

visas, and the more profound difficulties inherent in crossing cultural boundaries. The tasks a foreign student faces include: "communicating, learning the cultural maze, gaining acceptance, balancing loyalties, maintaining personal integrity and self-esteem, and achieving academic goals" (Smith, 1955, 233).

Before World War II, when numbers of international students remained small, these students were assisted in overcoming their difficulties by sympathetic faculty and staff who took an interest in them, in addition to their normal university duties. Gradually, positions were created, usually on a part-time basis, to more effectively utilize the special skills required in confronting these difficulties. In 1907 the University of Illinois created the first Foreign Student Advisor position. The University of Michigan followed in 1911, and American University in 1929 (Klinger, 1962). The total number of Foreign Student Advisor positions by the time of World War II was 13. Higbee (1961) in his survey of dates of entry found that just over 6% of the Foreign Student Advisors in his sample (N=697) had held that position before 1945.

With the rapid increase in numbers of international students coming to the United States after the war, the field of foreign student advising grew rapidly also. "From 1946-1956 a total of 357 individuals entered into the position, and from 1957-1960 an additional 281 individuals became foreign student advisors" (Miller, 1973, 11). By 1971 over two thousand campuses in the United States included a Foreign Student Advisor on their staff.

Frequently, this function is performed in conjunction with other duties. Cieslak in his 1955 study, found that 28 of the 58 responding Foreign Student Advisors reported spending less than 1/3 of their time at that job. Thirteen were 1/2-time Foreign Student Advisors, and 11 were full-time.

The formation in 1948 of the National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (now the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, or NAFSA) coincided with the growing importance of the field. Then, as now, NAFSA sought to compile information, and to give direction and purpose to its members. Frequent workshops are sponsored, studies undertaken, and monographs published of relevance to all college personnel working with foreign students. The organization offers free evaluation of any university's foreign student advising program, and in many ways seeks to enhance the professional skills of its members. The guiding principles of the organization are set forth in its Responsibilities and Standards in International Educational Exchange, included as Appendix A.

Duties of the Foreign Student Advisor

The Foreign Student Advisor typically has three distinct functions. First, he or she serves as the focal point that organizes and integrates diversified areas of competence and responsibility of the university toward its foreign students. Secondly, the Foreign Student Advisor is the interpreter of the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) regulations with regard to visas, work permits, extension of stay, temporary departure from the country, and immigration. In these two capacities, the Foreign Student Advisor may be perceived by the

foreign students as a government and university functionary, with powers similar to the police or military.

The third function of the typical Foreign Student Advisor is quite different in concept. He or she is to be a culturally sophisticated and sensitive counselor. "His personality, his understanding of the culture from which the students come, his awareness of their problems, both educational and personal, his ability to help them meet their needs...will go a long way toward contributing effectively to international understanding" (Kiell, 1951, 194). The patience required for the attainment of such cultural sensitivity is enormous.

> Uncovering the specific cues in a person from a foreign culture is a painstaking and laborious process....We know that culture controls behavior in deep and persisting ways, and that there is no way to teach culture in the same way that language is taught. Empathy, the ability to project oneself into the skin of another person, becomes crucial for genuine communication.(National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1975, 4).

This portion of the job description requires an emphasis on the process of communication. In contrast, the administrative duties require an emphasis on task completion, such as filling out of necessary forms. Smith (1955) finds it doubtful that these antithetical personality requirements - the administrative expert and the sensitive counselor - often coexist in the same persons.

Several authors suggest that, in fulfilling these obligations, the Foreign Student Advisor may find it useful to call on faculty members with cross-cultural experience to assist them. "Faculty members who have lived, taught and studied abroad

have an especially important role to play at this point, since they themselves have experienced the trauma of trying to adjust to a different culture" (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1972, 8). In a more recent publication, NAFSA suggests increasing the Foreign Student Advisor's effectiveness through access to intellectual and experiential knowledge throughout the university base. "The foreign student advisor should use all campus resources, particularly within the faculty, to constantly enhance the knowledge and sensitivity about people from other cultures" (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1975, i). More specifically, faculty members from the social sciences who have spent time in particular countries may be able to enlighten the entire student services team as to the unique educational, cultural, and social forces acting on students from that area. (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1975, 17).

Within the broad duties of the Foreign Student Advisor, encompassing administrative and counseling responsibilities, detailed obligations have been listed as follows:

The Foreign Student Advisor's responsibilities require him to:

1. Assume a role of leadership and coordination in developing programs which will aid in accomplishing institutional and individual objectives in international educational exchange.

2. Work closely with faculty, staff, and community persons, referring students as appropriate to persons or agencies best equipped to assist them in a particular problem, and developing lines of communication which will encourage and facilitate appropriate referrals to him.

3. Earn the confidence of his students by dealing with them in a fair, confidential, understanding, sympathetic, and patient manner.

4. Interpret the foreign student and his special problems to faculty, staff, and persons in the community.

5. Assist academic officials in the adjustment of study programs as necessary to meet individual foreign students' needs without lowering of academic standards.

6. Encourage the development of a corporate voice for foreign students so that their needs and concerns can be articulated and made known by the students themselves to appropriate authorities on campus and in the community.

7. When necessary and appropriate, serve as a spokesman and advocate for foreign students. (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1970, 6).

In addition to these responsibilities, the Foreign Student Advisor may work with admissions on credential evaluation, cooperate with community program workers involved with foreign students, or assist in the development of English as a second language programs. He or she may do research in cross-cultural education, act as an advocate for the international education program on campus, and perform other functions as time and interest dictate. The role of the Foreign Student Advisor has evolved differently in the varied financial, academic, and personal contexts of different American campuses (Education and World Affairs, 1965). However, some portions of the above job descriptions are operational on nearly all campuses, as the Foreign Student Advisor attempts to help bridge the cultural gulf that may exist between his institution and its international students.

Cultural Differences and Similarities

Students from all parts of the world are eager to study in the United States (Wilder, 1965, 4) and to come to know the people of America. In reality, however, that expectation and hope is often frustrated.

> The foreign student has the appetite to relate and, once here, often discovers it's the most difficult objective to actualize. It is not unusual for the foreign student to complain about repeated failure in early attempts to relate to Americans or other foreign students (Baron, 1975, 3).

Communication has been identified as the key to survival (Wilder, 1965, 4). However, barriers to communication do exist. Where language is common, this block may be subtle shadings and local differences. When languages and culture differ, barriers to communication and understanding may be great. In addition to language differences, contrasting or conflicting values may create subtle blocks to communication.

> Thwarting of communication may occur when people are not aware that each inhabits a different perceptual world. Anthropologists record that experience as it is perceived through one set of culturally patterned sensory screens is quite different from experience perceived through another. The complexities of relating on an intercultural level become manifest upon a closer look at the subtleties involved in both verbal and non-verbal communication. Both the spoken word, which expresses thoughts and shapes our way of thinking, and non-verbal communication, an inherent part of all human interaction, are culturally determined (Baron, 1975, 1).

Because these blocks to communication are often overlooked, "foreign students' visits are often productive of misunderstanding and even ill will" (Kiell, 1951, 191).

As the international students attempt to transcend these differences, to cross from one culture into another, their frames of reference may temporarily go out of focus. "For some foreign students the experience of feeling like a marginal person may be intense and seem to be much more permanent than it will prove to be in actuality" (NAFSA, 1975, 9).

The challenge of the Foreign Student Advisor and other interested persons in this situation is to assist the student in maintaining both individuality and cultural identity, to see cultural patterns in context, and to develop adaptive attitudes.

A broad knowledge of cultural characteristics may help the Foreign Student Advisor predict and explain certain types of behavior (NAFSA, 1975, 9). However, individual differences may make such generalizations suspect. In addition to developing cultural awareness and intercultural counseling skills in himself, the Foreign Student Advisor seeks to create throughout the campus an atmosphere conducive to cultural interaction (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1972, 9). With interaction, opportunities for understanding and appreciation increase.

In seeking knowledge about cultural differences and similarities, the Foreign Student Advisor can turn to current research in education, linguistics, anthropology, and psychology.

In order to usefully describe cultural differences, and within each of those distinct cultures, individual differences, it is necessary to have a grasp of the idea of culture itself, and of the existing universals. The caution directed towards psychoanalysts who would engage in cross-cultural or transcultural psychotherapy is also meaningful to Foreign Student Advisors:

> The psychoanalyst must, however, possess a very sound understanding of the nature and function of 'culture per se' as distinct from familiarity with any particular culture - because culture is a universal phenomenon and a trait uniquely characteristic of man, and because the broad categories of culture-

> as distinct from their concrete context in any particular culture- are also universal phenomena (Devereux, 1953, 633).

Not only is culture universally characteristic of humans, but there are properties common to all cultures. Osgood, in his recent study (1975) of twenty-one language/culture communities, found numerous significant linguistic similarities, although the cultures studied were widely dispersed geographically.

> Human beings, no matter where they live or what language they speak, apparently abstract about the same properties of things for making comparisons, and they order these different modes of qualifying in roughly the same way in importance (189).

Pancultural similarities such as those found by Osgood are at least partly the basis for supralinguistic systems such as music, art, sign language, and less obviously, for weather signals, math, and topographic symbols (La Barre, 1947). Universals of meaning exist in each of these symbolic systems, illustrating the effectiveness of communication among cultures at a supralinguistic level.

Broad similarities exist not only in generalized meaning, but also in concepts related to mental health. Wittkower (1959) found, in his study of data from 30 countries, that the main categories of mental disorder are ubiquitous. Ellenberger (1960) corroborates this point of view:

> A careful survey of dependable data shows that a few basic forms of mental disturbance are considered abnormal all over the world...although the symptoms are more or less molded by cultural factors....But in most cases the cultural factors will merely confer a certain color upon the more superficial of the symptoms...(159, 162-3).

With a broad understanding of the universality of culture and its meaning in terms of mental health and maladjustment, the psychiatrist, and on a less technical level, the Foreign Student Advisor, can place cultural and individual differences in context, and recognize them appropriately when they occur.

One of the earliest thorough analyses documenting variations in behavior among cultures is La Barre's "Cultural base of emotions and gestures" (1947). Drawing from a large number of anthropological observations, he seeks to define the "international boundaries between physiology and culture" (52). Culturally determined interaction patterns may be inappropriate or damaging to communication when the participants are of different cultural heritages. Abel (1956) provides an analysis of some ways in which cultural patterns enter into patient-therapist communication and offers suggestions for overcoming these difficulties.

Recognition of cultural factors in treatment has led various authors to suggest incorporation of traditional patterns in the treatment process. Researchers have reported (The importance of cultural factors in treatment, 1962) good results in including family members in therapy where the context encourages it, and others have suggested collaborative efforts with traditional healers in a nonjudgmental manner (Bolman, 1968; Torrey, 1969).

Chess, Clark and Thomas (1953) emphasize that the usual diagnostic categories may not be applicable in cross-cultural contexts, in any diagnostic attempt. They attack the distor-

tions caused by stereotypical generalizations in diagnosing mental illness in individuals from other cultures or from minority cultures within the United States. Novak (1964) presents a similar point of view, focused on the special understanding required in counseling minority cultures new to city life in the United States.

The importance of understanding these differences is pointed out at the political level, rather than that of the individual patient, by another researcher. Glenn (1966) in his analysis of United Nations translations, points out subtle differences that may be present in thought patterns and their behavioral correlates among participants from varying cultural backgrounds. Suggestions are offered as to the importance of understanding these differences in order to prevent misunderstanding.

The danger is always present, however, that superficial attempts to understand other cultures will lead to gross stereotypes such as those presented in the various "national character" theories. Opler (1968) in his criticism of these theories, points out their non-dynamic character, and the tendency to assess culture as determined by child-rearing practices, rather than vice versa. He also demonstrates the usefulness of the "national character" theories in the service of wartime racism and prejudice.

Within the United States, stereotyping, misdiagnosing, and misunderstanding persons from minority cultures have produced less effective treatment than would be possible were cultural bias absent. White counselors have been known to

deliberately lower expectations of their black students. Smith (1967) catalogues a number of offending and demeaning actions common to counselors in slum schools, and discusses the damage done to human development thereby. In reporting similar findings, Chess, Clark and Thomas (1953) suggest that, due to the cultural gap between white middle class teachers and black lower class students, behavior may be incorrectly perceived. What the teacher terms delinquent behavior may in fact be highly adaptive for the child.

In a study of cultural bias pertaining to an adult population, Wainwright (1958) found similar nonproductive attitudes deriving from cultural prejudices. In that study, two strikingly similar cases were diagnosed and treated quite differently, corresponding to differences perceived in the cultural status of the patients. Bishop and Winokur (1956) suggest that

> If more attention were paid to the cultural backgrounds of patients, psychotherapy might be adapted more flexibly to meet the needs of the many national and social groups within our country instead of being as it so frequently is, an interaction between doctors and patients both of the same nationality and social class (374).

Increased awareness as to the effects of cultural context is mandated not only by rising national consciousness of the minority cultures within our borders, but also by the increasing number of foreigners in the United States who seek psychiatric help (Wolf and Hall, 1971). Awareness of the range and depth of cultural differences is affecting not only the field of psychology and its practicioners, but is also having an effect

in the world of education, even apart from the role of the Foreign Student Advisor. Educational testing, a phenomenon of growing importance since World War II, has in recent years addressed itself to the development of culture-fair tests. Definition of culture-fair testing is attempted in a comprehensive manner by R.L. Thorndike (1971). A familiarity with these concepts would increase the effectiveness of any Foreign Student Advisor faced with the difficulties of evaluating potential enrollees. This is particularly true when that evaluation is largely based on test results, for these results are greatly affected by the cultural background of the student.

The Foreign Student Advisor, in attempting to put into practice a knowledge of the universal fact of culture, and of the different expressions of cultures of various peoples, can strive to bridge the cultural gap. That gap is peculiarly wide in America, which lacks the geographical proximity that lessens the gulf for other cultures. In addition to geographical isolation, and perhaps partly because of it, Americans have additional barriers to cross-cultural understanding. Wilder (1965) describes the cultural blindness particularly virulent in America:

> Foreigners...are kept from understanding us by the stereotypes which we as Americans have erected about ourselves and by those we have formed about people from other countries. Besides this rampant ignorance there is also the 'color consciousness' of Americans and the failure to have 'significant contact' with foreign students (4).

The Foreign Student Advisor, in actively combating this ignorance and bias, can help to create and enhance a climate of sensitivity and knowledge about personal interaction across

cultural lines. This level of informed sensitivity can greatly increase the effectiveness of the Foreign Student Advisor in facilitating the satisfactory personal and academic adjustment of foreign students at his institution (Baron, 1975).

Adjustment of Foreign Students

The importance of the Foreign Student Advisor's role, and that of informal consultants, in easing adjustment difficulties is pointed out by a revealing statement from a 1951-52 Educational Exchange Service study.

> A sense of knowing where to go for advice appears to be a significant factor in the ease with which exchange students resolve certain types of adjustment problems, and informal, personal sources of advice would seem to be no less important than institutional sources (DuBois, 1956, 81).

The concept of involvement of many individuals on campus in facilitating adjustment during sojourn is described as a campus team approach. A comprehensive checklist of behavioral objectives for each team member at various stages of the foreign student's experience are listed in A Guide for the education of foreign students, published by the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (Benson and Kovach, 1974). This guide is designed to outline the ideal experience for both sponsored and non-sponsored foreign students in United States academic institutions and communities. It stresses the importance of a team effort on the part of all persons responsible for providing support and services to the foreign student and illustrates the parallel interest and often simultaneous involvement of various individuals and offices in these efforts (7). The team approach

is also supported by Kiell (1951), who stresses the importance of providing appropriate assistance at crucial points in the sojourn.

> Until and unless American university administrators and officials are willing to supplement the mere accomodation of overseas students in their institutions by a well-rounded and vigorous advisory program wherein each student can secure the assistance he needs when he needs it, student exchanges will not further the kind of international understanding educators, diplomats and men of good will would like to see established (193).

The provision of appropriate assistance, to be most effective, includes a realization that there are times when campus staff expertise is insufficient to meet the students' needs. Foreign students may be under unusual psychological stress.

> Confrontation with a strange culture may cause problems to surface for the first time. Then the foreign student may appear to be under abnormal stress, and unable to cope either with the cultural differences or with himself. If the foreign student must devote excessive energy to maintaining equilibrium, his other ego functions - such as learning, active understanding, organizing, and coping - can be impaired (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, Guidelines: Academic and personal advising, 1975, 11).

These situations may represent the extreme, but the Foreign Student Advisor and other university personnel need to be aware of the existence of such stresses and be able to make referrals to trained resource persons when appropriate.

Assessment of these stresses in terms of cultural distance has been attempted, and found to be inadequate as a tool of analysis due to the complexity of the subject and the present stage of social science development (DuBois, 1956, 78). More fruitful methods of analysis suggested by DuBois include a description of emotional sets that affect acceptance of or resis-

tance to elements in the host culture, and a variety of mediating and situational factors (79).

Much of the literature concerned with foreign student adjustment is situational in its descriptive approach. Typically, a range of problem areas is identified, and the relative importance of each of the areas of difficulty is assessed through responses to questionnaires. A complex matrix of cultural differences is assumed, and adjustment difficulties are often weighted by their effect on academic success rather than analyzed in terms of their cultural context.

Miller's thesis (1973) includes a descriptive table of adjustment problems as perceived by responding Foreign Student Advisors. The most often cited "problem" or behavioral response of the Foreign Student Advisor is "personal counseling and being a good ear", and the second most often cited behavior is "providing services to foreign students as individuals". In the context of this discussion of adjustment problems, these data serve simply to emphasize that such problems do exist, and responses to these difficulties, which are not specifically identified in this survey, constitute the primary behavior of the responding Foreign Student Advisors.

In a localized refinement of the weighted checklist of problems technique, Forstat (1951) surveyed 182 foreign students at Purdue. The number of problems cited was correlated with country of origin, academic status, and length of stay. Country of origin and academic status were found to be factors affecting the number of adjustment problems cited, while the length of time

Table 2

Problems Handled Most Frequently With Foreign Students

Problem	Number			Rank Order		
	Yes	No	No Answer	First	Second	Third
Developing better understanding between foreign students and Americans through campus interaction	47	86	2	5	7	8
Helping foreign students understand and comply with institution regulations	74	59	2	6	11	13
Providing services to foreign students as individuals	99	34	2	39	16	18
Promoting the establishment of a better relationship between foreign students and community	44	89	2	0	5	5
Professional development of the foreign student advisor	16	117	2	1	0	0
Providing academic assistance to foreign students	64	69	2	9	14	5
Financial Aid counseling and advice	66	67	2	9	12	9
Personal counseling and being a 'good ear'	101	32	2	23	25	25
Informing students of INS rules and regulations	81	52	2	23	17	14
Locating employment off campus	27	106	2	1	2	2
Locating employment on campus	31	102	2	0	2	1
Assistance with health problems	31	102	2	0	0	1
Assistance with problems related to legal status	51	82	2	2	5	3
Problems finding off campus housing	29	104	2	0	1	4
Providing adequate pre-admission information	39	94	2	2	4	6
Other	10	123	2	1	3	2
None	5	128	2	0	0	0

(Miller, 1973, 42)

in the United States was not found to affect adjustment in that study.

Academic status or success has often been used as the criterion for satisfactory adjustment of foreign students. In an assessment of several factors related to adjustment of selected Middle Eastern students, Gezi's (1965) data supported his hypothesis that if college work is the major purpose of the student's experience in the United States, academic success becomes a basis for the student's satisfaction with his sojourn and his adjustment.

If academic success is a large part of the definition of a satisfactory cross-cultural academic experience, it becomes essential to seek information as to the variables correlated with that success. The AACRO-AID study (1971) suggests that superior academic performance of its participants is related to motivation, the explicitness of the participant's objective, and the nature of the agency support received by the participant (IX-2). In addition, this study found English language proficiency to be the variable of those tested most highly correlated with academic performance (IX-6).

In a study of Middle Eastern students in Oregon, Hagey (1968) found statistically significant relationships between academic success and English language preparation. However, Hattari's study (1966) determining the relationship of selected personal and social factors to academic achievement contradicts that finding. No significant relationship was found between academic success and English language background. Significant relationships were found, however, between academic achievement of foreign

undergraduate students and their perceptions of the host culture, and between grade point average and sources of financial support.

As Hattari found a source of difficulty in perceptions of the host culture, Gabriel (1973) found the major problem areas to be outside of the academic structure also.

> The chief dissatisfactions were with informal aspects of college life...About one-fourth...felt dissociated from the mainstream of American life. General dissatisfaction was expressed with the strength and nature of the friendships formed with Americans...A very clear implication is that future foreign students might be helped in their social adjustments if they could be given the opportunity to participate in an orientation program conducted in the United States which focused upon the informal aspects of American life. Other conclusions... include...the need for...additional opportunities for immersion into American social and cultural life (Gabriel, 1973, 184).

Informal aspects of American college life also present the major area of difficulty cited in What's happening with US-foreign student relations at predominantly black colleges? (1973). The superficiality of communication was the major problem cited by responding foreign students, followed by resentment of a perceived attitude of superiority among American Blacks (36).

Criticism of the effectiveness of Student Personnel staff in assisting the foreign students in coping with these problems comes from several authors. Sharma (1973) reports that in a North Carolina study, "the student personnel services were found somewhat helpful in regard to academic problems, but their usefulness for the resolution of personal and social problems was not evident"(145). In this analysis of adjustment problems of foreign non-European graduate students, a strong positive relationship was found among academic, personal, and social

problems, and the record of assistance from Student Personnel staff was rather uneven. In a recent study of 265 Middle Eastern students, Hagey (1974) found that no use was reported of the Dean of Men's or Dean of Women's offices. Only 29% of the responding students reported having discussed problems with any faculty or staff members. Hagey concludes that "...improvements in the quality and staffing of the office of foreign student advising would seem to be the most logical point at which to attempt to increase the advising services " (44).

This study also mentions a strong need for some type of comprehensive orientation program. This need is frequently cited in the literature, as a method of preventing adjustment problems that Student Personnel staff members often have inadequate training or resources to cope with. Many researchers contend that adjustment problems, given the present state of the art of foreign student advising, are more effectively avoided than treated. Often stress is upon a need for increased attention to the selection process, coupled with an adequate orientation program in order to facilitate transition into the American educational context. In the same vein, they propose re-entry or pre-departure seminars or workshops to prepare the foreign student for ready readaptation to his culture of origin.

Vernon (1972) describes a particularly successful program of educating Guyanese students at Tuskeegee. He attributes a significant portion of this success to an intensive orientation session given the students in Washington shortly after their arrival in the United States.

The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs has prepared a number of booklets which assist in development of an adequate orientation program. The Association's position is that

> From the moment that the institution accepts a foreign student, it assumes this responsibility (of adequate orientation). More and more, institutions, in fact, are making orientation mandatory. It is strongly urged that this policy be adopted by all institutions, as both a sound educational principle and a valid psychological concept (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, Guidelines: Initial Orientation, 1975, 1).

Orientation should include information concerning both academic and non-academic aspects of college life, so that the incoming foreign student "may be prepared to function effectively, comfortably, and with reasonable initial success in his new environment" (Ibid.). In another booklet, NAFSA suggests that students of similar majors, whether of American citizenship or veteran foreign students, could be prepared to effectively transmit the required information (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1972, 10). The Guidelines series offers a number of concrete program suggestions for orientation, but the emphasis is on flexibility to meet the needs of the particular students enrolling at any single institution. "How orientation is done is not nearly so important as that it be done" (National Association for Foreign Student Affairs, 1975, 5).

If culture shock, ego instability, loneliness, fears of inadequacy, and loss of balance threaten a foreign student upon entry into the United States, a similar list of difficulties probably awaits them upon return to their homeland. Not only have they changed and developed, but conditions in the homeland

are likely to have altered also, and the ready resumption of a clearly defined niche in society is by no means assured. Part of the underlying assumption of international educational exchange is that the students will eventually return to their homeland. The educating institution, as a part of its duty to the student and to the success of the idea of educational interchange, has a role to play in preparation of students for re-entry. Bayer (1973) treats the problem of reluctance to return home and face the attendant difficulties when he urges nation-wide efforts to encourage and facilitate eventual return home of foreign students.

Planning for re-entry can be an integral part of the student's educational experience while in the United States. For example, theses or dissertation topics could be selected for relevance to the experience and needs of the student's country of origin. If adequate supervision can be arranged, it is at times possible to do research in the home country, with the results submitted to faculty in the United States. The Education and World Affairs Report cited in Nelson (1975) "argues that foreign students must be urged as part of their U.S. experience to think in terms of how they can best apply what they have learned to the situation in their home country" (3).

In order for the student to cope with the issue of applicability of the United States educational experience, he must successfully readjust to his native culture. Brislin and Van Buren (1974) treat the question of reverse culture shock, and emphasize its frequency. Often the person most successful at

adapting to American culture is least able to make the transition back to the norms of his native culture.

Both the questions of applicability of the United States educational experience and the problems of psychological readjustment to the home culture should be treated in re-entry or transition workshops. Disorientation to the home culture is to be expected, and the United States university staff can provide assistance to the returning student in preparing for transition. To this end, an inventory of re-entry problems by foreign students within six months of their return, was presented at a NAFSA re-entry workshop by Dr. Nobleza Asuncion-Lande. The checklist is presented on the following pages.

The potential problems in academic, social, cultural, and professional areas encompass discrepancies in perception, expectations; behavior similar to the kinds of incompatabilities which may afflict foreign students upon their entry into the United States. Fortunately, resources such as those cited have recently been made available to assist the Foreign Student Advisor and other university staff in aiding the foreign students through the potentially disruptive periods.

A large proportion of the publications on foreign student adjustment have to do with these periods of arrival orientation and re-entry preparation. This disproportionate emphasis is ironic in the face of the most widely accepted theory of stages of adjustment, the U-curve hypothesis. This adjustment theory, first developed by Sverre Lysgaard (1955), was refined by Coelho

Inventory of Re-entry Problems

1. Cultural adjustment
   a. identity problem
   b. insecurity
   c. adjustment to changes in life style
   d. adjustment to a pervasive quality of envy and distrust in interpersonal relations
   e. adjustment to the localiteness (sic) of kin and friends
   f. adjustment to a daily work routine
   g. family or community pressure to conform
   h. no problem
   i. other

2. Social adjustment
   a. adjustments from individualism of U.S. life to familism (conformity and submission to the demands of family) in home country
   b. colonial mentality
   c. feelings of superiority due to international experience and travel
   d. lack of amenities which were a part of U.S. existence
   e. uncertainties in interpersonal relations
   f. social alienation as a result of foreign sojourn
   g. dissatisfaction with ritualized patterns of social interaction
   h. frustration as a result of conflicting attitudes
   i. no problem
   j. other

3. Linguistic barriers
   a. adoption of verbal/non-verbal codes which are not familiar to countrymen
   b. adoption of certain speech mannerism which may be misinterpreted by countrymen
   c. absence of colleagues who speak the same code as returnee
   d. unfamiliarity with new forms of communication or styles
   e. no problem
   f. other

4. National and political problems
   a. changes in political conditions
   b. shifts in national priorities/policies
   c. shift in political views
   d. political climate not conducive to professional activity
   e. political climate not conducive to professional advancement
   f. dissatisfaction with political situation
   g. observed lack of national goals
   h. politicization of office or colleagues
   i. changes in bureaucratic leadership
   j. no problem
   k. other

5. Educational problems
   a. inability to reconcile aspects of U.S. education to education in home country
   b. relevance of education to home situation
   c. fulfillment of objectives in coming to U.S.
   d. aspects of U.S. education which are least helpful to returnees
   e. lack of facilities and resources for research
   f. wrong expectations
   g. failure to improve skills
   h. absence of professional education programs to keep up with new developments or knowledge
   i. no problem
   j. other

6. Professional problems
   a. inability to work in chosen specialty
   b. placement in inappropriate field
   c. facing a glutted job market
   d. scientific terminology in U.S. studies which are not subject to adequate translation into the native language
   e. inability to communicate what was learned
   f. resistance to change by co-workers
   g. feeling of superiority due to U.S. training
   h. non-recognition of U.S. degree
   i. jealousy of colleagues
   j. low compensation
   k. high expectations
   l. isolation from academic and scientific developments in U.S. or in own field
   m. perceived lack of enthusiasm and/or commitment among co-workers
   n. concern with quick material success
   o. no problem
   p. other

(1958) and still provides a useful way of understanding the adjustments most students experience during their sojourn in the United States. Smith (1955) summarizes the theory as a U-shaped curve running from relatively favorable morale at the outset through a trough associated with the frustrations of the adaptive phase, to a subsequently higher level after the student has come to terms with his experience. Since cultural distances vary, the length of sojourn to allow for all these stages should increase with cultural distance.

In a more recent study, Chang (1973) partially supported the U-curve hypothesis concerning attitude change through time within his responding Chinese student population. However, he proposed an alternative way of understanding adjustment, the association hypothesis. This hypothesis is more a different perspective of the problem of understanding adjustment, reflected in attitude, than a direct contradiction to the U-curve hypothesis. The hypothesis, which originates in sociological studies of the 1950's and 1960's, is simply stated by Selltiz (1963): "The association hypothesis, in a simplified form, states that contact with a different group results in liking that group" (3-4). Chang's findings support the association hypothesis, specifically that Chinese student attitudes toward the United States were positively associated with contact with Americans. Further, his figures "show that there is no relation between contact with Americans and the pre-arrival attitudes of Chinese students (and) show that there is a significant relation between contact with Americans and the present attitudes of Chinese students" (72).

According to this hypothesis, contact may have more to do with attitudes and adjustment than length of stay or other variables. If true, this hypothesis would lend credence to the current emphasis on orientation activities, for extensive contact is a by-product of such endeavors.

Attitude Change and Adjustment

In some cases, adjustment, with its attendant changes in attitude, never becomes an issue. It is possible for some persons living in a culture different from their native country to maintain sufficient psychological distance so that, in isolation from the culture, they do not have to experience the trauma of adapting to it. Eide (1970) discusses the attitude of those who do not undergo changes in order to adjust while abroad.

> It also makes sense that persons who do not expose themselves to a foreign culture to the extent of going through changes to conform to it, can enter into a relationship to that culture which might be termed cultural coexistence. If this is possible, and one could specify conditions that have to obtain in such a case, the foreign culture does not present itself as a problem where assistance is needed for adjustment and conformance; one simply does not care, and that might be called a kind of adjustment too, as long as the term does not imply conformity. But the point is that it leaves the student more independent of assistance and probably of his host culture in general (118).

Such experiences are, however, the exception. For most students, an extended period of time abroad leads to definite attitude changes as a part of the adjustment process. In a 1959 study of American college students in Paris, McGuigen found a significant decrease in ethnic distance (synonomous with prejudice in this study), a consistent increase in xenophilic tendencies,

a development of increased hostile feelings toward Americans, and less independence than they had indicated at the outset of the experience. This process of attitude change as a part of the dynamics of adjustment is so pervasive that one author proposes to define international understanding in terms of human development of foreign students. "...The vague concept of international understanding can be reformulated into useful operational questions through a research focus on personality growth and educational development of overseas students at home and abroad" (Coehlo, 1962, 67).

A number of authors have dealt with the process of attitude change in interpersonal contact. Those that focus on attitude change in cross-cultural contact seek to identify the variables correlated with such change, and to describe the process. In general, it is the hope and the expectation of sponsors and supporters of international educational exchange that attitude change will occur and in a positive direction.

> It is a common assumption that getting to know the people of another country will lead to liking them; this assumption includes the expectation that exchange-of-persons programs will increase international goodwill.... The entire body of research on cross-cultural education, however, suggests that this expectation is oversimplified and overly optomistic (Selltiz and Cook, 1962, 10).

Attitude change in interpersonal, and especially, cross-cultural contact is a complex issue. Some of the variables identified as important to the issue are: time, cognitive strain, personality factors, reference groups, world mindedness, social distance, and shared tasks. Researchers have manipulated these

variables in a variety of situations including racial prejudice studies within the United States and in contexts of cross-cultural contact. Conclusions have been drawn as to the necessary conditions for the existence of attitude change in a favorable direction in interpersonal, intercultural contexts. These conclusions have implications for the assistance of foreign students during the adjustment process. Further, implications can be drawn as to the relevance of prior intercultural experience for those persons attempting to assist the foreign students. Such considerations lead to an exploration of empathy, and its relation to attitude change and adjustment.

One of the variables most accepted as important in attitude change is the experience of cognitive strain. Secord and Backman (1974) treat role incongruence as one of the primary principles of prejudice reduction. In interaction with a person who occupies a role category that is incompatible or incongruent with the ethnic stereotype ordinarily attributed to him, conflicting expectancies are aroused. In order to reduce the cognitive strain produced by these conflicts, the inappropriate expectations are likely to be abandoned or modified. This reduction in prejudicial stereotypes is likely, however, to be role specific. In the majority of race prejudice studies, the intergroup contact examined occurs in a particular situation such as military activity, integrated housing, and specific work environments. In most of the studies cited in Secord and Backman (164-203), change is confined to specific role interpretations. For example, citing Palmore (1955), Secord and Backman point

out that "in spite of their acceptance of this black man on the job, the five white men who worked with him would not eat or take coffee breaks with him - another illustration of the specificity of the role relation" (190).

Hofman and Zak (1969) make it clear that cognitive strain is an effective agent of attitude change in a cross-cultural context also. "The traveler who, for whatever reason, achieves some contact with a native may experience cognitive strain as a result of attitudinal discrepency. To restore balance he will tend to move toward the other's actual or perceived position " (165). The reasons for the direction of change and the determination of which individual will make the adjustment are also suggested.

> It is likely that sensitivity to cognitive strain will be relatively great in a foreign country when one considers that the unfamiliar environment may reduce the probability of some of the usual alternatives to attitude change; i.e., persuading the other or discounting his competence (166).

It is possible that the individual removed from his own cultural context will make some adjustments in attitude not only due to insecurity, the nature of which Hofman and Zak suggested, but also due to the formation of a new referent group. Pool (1956) conducted a study of attitude change on the part of 903 senior businessmen who traveled extensively in 1954. He found that, for these Americans, travel does broaden, does "expand (the individual's) range of awareness as regards economic and political matters. However, it did this not by liberalizing as such but by forcing the traveler into a new role, by orienting him to a new reference group " (173). The impact of change in reference

group, it can be assumed, is greater for foreign students residing in a strange land than for businessmen who briefly visit several different nations.

The time variable has been explored by several researchers. There is no unqualified answer to the question as to how length of sojourn effects change in attitude, although the U-curve hypothesis treats the possible effects of the time variable. Smith (1955) found that "a relatively brief experience in another culture has a limited impact on general attitudes" (470). Selltiz and Cook (1962) review a number of studies, and conclude that time alone does not account for attitude change. "There is considerable evidence that the sheer fact of having been in another country, even for an extended period of study, has quite limited effects on attitudes toward that country" (10). They suggest that unknown preconceptions and motivations may be the influential variables. One further exploration of the time factor is contained in Smith's follow-up investigation (1957) of students who had been to Europe over four years previously. He found significant, but conflicting, changes in attitude. The students had become both less authoritarian and more conservative, and expressed significant decrease both in world-mindedness and ethnocentrism. Smith concludes that events in the intervening years had influenced attitudes more than had their intercultural experience. A possible implication from these results might be that there is an attrition of interest and empathy in the years following an intercultural experience.

Perhaps Foreign Student Advisors and interested faculty and staff need to be aware of this attrition and its effect on their attitudes, and increase their own opportunities for international experience to counteract this decreasing effect.

The inculcation and maintenance of a mind set referred to as worldmindedness has been the subject of several studies. Iisager, in an early review (1949) of these efforts, focused on an international folk high school in Denmark. There some 130 students from 13 nations took summer courses in an atmosphere designed to inculcate international attitudes. Some 49.2% were positively influenced, 37.1% unaffected, and 6.1% adversely affected. Iisager concludes that the international community life of the school was the most important factor in producing attitude change.

Sampson and Smith (1957) attacked the problem of defining international attitudes in their development of a scale to measure worldmindedness. They define worldmindedness as a value orientation or frame of reference which is independent of knowledge about or interest in international relations. Further, worldmindedness is not necessarily dependent on experience abroad, but could simply be a mind set of interest in the world perspective. Use of this scale with foreign students could yield attitudinal correlates of value in adjustment, while use of this scale with faculty and staff could select individuals likely to be helpful in facilitating adjustment of foreign students.

The inculcation of world-mindedness was found by Riecken (1952) to be a product of peer pressure in a highly structured situation. Contradicting the evidence suggesting that a brief international experience has little effect on attitudes, Riecken found extensive changes resulting from a short but intensive experience in Quaker work camps. The pressure of a homogeneous group sanctioning certain attitudes produced students who became significantly less authoritarian, less ethnocentric and more democratic. The persons who experienced the most attitude change were moderately conservative prior to the experience.

Eide (1970) supports the notion that attitude change is more likely to happen when initial differences are moderate rather than extreme. She discusses attitude change in terms of social distance.

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

Whereas a low or moderate amount of social distance may predispose individuals toward intercultural contact, that contact in turn affects social distance. Bardis (1956) found that foreign students, in general, had low social distance scores as compared with American students. He explains this by referring to the foreign students' history of intercultural experience. "International and interracial contacts, with the exception of a few cases characterized by unpleasant experience, have tended to reduce social distance" (113). The McGuigan study (1959), as mentioned above, also found a significant decrease in ethnic

distance, a parallel concept, resulting from intercultural experience. In a study identifying factors which determine whether United States students interact with foreign students, Goldsen, Suchman, and Williams (1956) found low social distance to be both cause and effect of cross-cultural social interaction. They found campus community participation, association-mindedness and spatial proximity to be positively correlated with cross-cultural interaction.

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

the individual is to reduce cognitive strain, or inconsistency. Cook and Selltiz (1955) corraborate this approach, stressing that the cognitive aspects of attitude are the most easily changed (55).

Rushlau (1966) cautions that "it is clear that the individual has little direct control over the conditions which will produce change in the attitudes or opinions of another person" (44). However, it is possible to specify the variables correlated with attitude change in interpersonal contact. Selltiz, Hopson, and Cole (1956) present a list of the most crucial conditions necessary for a situation productive of attitude change. This list is based on their review of research on intergroup contact and attitude change within the United States.

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

The authors point out that cross-cultural contacts may differ from those situations studied within the United States in the extent of preconceived notions, the influence of other aspects of the new experience, the number of dissimilarities, and the confounding variables of attitudes toward international political and economic situations. Eide (1970), however, feels that "there

should be no reason for conceiving intercultural communication in other terms than those generally applied to the study of interaction" (135). The depth of experiential differences among dominant Caucasians, Native Americans, American Blacks, Chicanos, and other groups lend support to Eide's viewpoint.

Contact and knowledge are two basic requirements for attitude change. It is useful to specify the nature of that attitude change insofar as possible, in order to more definitively describe the goals of intercultural communication in general, and of international education in particular. Few authors directly treat this issue. Some specify the attitude change that takes place as a kind of mobility. There is some confusion as to whether intercultural mobility takes place as a kind of fusion, homogeneity, the concept of the melting pot (Eide, 1970, 135). There seems to be more benefit in describing this mobility as psychological, rather than physical, social or cultural. To return to Coelho's definition (1962) of international understanding in terms of personal growth of exchange students, the mobility described becomes that of the ability to conceptualize in another's frame of reference, or to broaden one's own frame of reference considerably. This is the value orientation spoken of as worldmindedness in Sampson and Smith's (1957) terms, a subjective perspective rather than a position on political affairs.

Lerner's study of The passing of traditional society in the Middle East (1958) identifies "the characterological trans-

formation that accompanies modernization as psychic mobility, with empathy as its mechanism" (69). According to his usage, empathy is the key to intercultural understanding, and the goal of situations structured to produce attitude change in intercultural contact. Empathy could be seen as the ability to widen one's reference group to the extent that one can view things from the perspective of a person of another cultural background. Development of the characteristic of empathy is the goal of international education insofar as it consciously attempts to produce international understanding and good will. Foreign students who develop this trait are those able to adjust with ease to a variety of milieux, and it would seem as well that faculty and staff with this characteristic would be of the greatest assistance to foreign students in the adjustments they must make. This study attempts to describe the network of formal and informal advisors selected by foreign students at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. Once identified, the faculty and staff perceived as helpful by the students are rated on empathy scales. An attempt is then made to correlate these selections and ratings with prior international experience and expressed interest in intercultural education, in order to suggest the sources of the characteristic of empathy in these persons.

Chapter II

Method

Subjects and Setting

Subjects in this study included faculty, staff, and foreign students at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse during the Spring semester of 1976. The University of Wisconsin-La Crosse is a public institution of higher education, financed primarily through public funding, and serving over 7600 students. The student body is largely composed of students from the mid-western states, although a total of 31 states and 14 foreign nations are represented in the student population. The university is accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and over half of the nearly 400 faculty members hold an earned doctorate.

The faculty sample was drawn from the total faculty population of 389, as listed by the university's computer center. The 151 faculty returning the surveys represented all colleges and departments of the university and included faculty, staff and graduate interns.

Thirty-three of these respondents were named by foreign students as being unusually helpful and understanding toward them and only these 33 surveys were used for testing of the hypotheses. The sample consisted of 30 males and 3 females, representing 10 administrators, 1 secretary, 1 graduate intern, and the remaining faculty were distributed among 15 academic departments of the university.

All 40 foreign students enrolled at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse in the 1975-76 academic year were included in the student survey with 27 responses being received. There were 19 males and 8 females in the sample, representing 14 different countries, 19 academic majors, and a range from freshmen to graduate students. Length of residency at the university ranged from one-half semester to six years, with an average length of two and three-quarter years.

Procedure

Interviews were conducted with a variety of student services personnel to determine the distribution and allocation of services provided to foreign students at the university. Among those interviewed were the Foreign Student Advisor, the Admissions Director, members of the Foreign Student Advisory Committee, and staff members of the Counseling and Testing Center and the Placement and Career Advising Office. In addition, the faculty advisor to the International Student Organization and the student president of that organization were interviewed.

A survey on international education was constructed and distributed to all the faculty and staff on the university's computer listing (Appendix B). The questions included three general areas: prior educational experience in another country; use of cultural-comparative material in present teaching activities; and interest in serving as a resource person to the Foreign Student Advisor or the International Student

Organization. In analyzing the data, positive responses to the first group of questions were assumed to indicate experience and positive responses to either or both of the latter two categories of questions were assumed to indicate interest in international education.

The faculty survey was distributed through campus mail to faculty and staff office addresses. Of the entire computer mailing list used (N=389), approximately one-third (N=130) of these surveys were returned through campus mail within a two-week period.

A questionnaire (Appendix C) was developed and distributed to all foreign students enrolled at La Crosse in 1975-76 (N=40). Ten surveys were distributed by personal contact and 30 were mailed to the students' residences. Because the survey was distributed late in the Spring semester, some students were leaving town. Intensive follow-up efforts were required to obtain the 27 returns used.

In addition to demographic information, the student questionnaire surveyed attitudes toward the university, level of adjustment, unsatisfactory experiences with faculty and staff, and whether the foreign students subscribed to the belief that American faculty and staff who have been abroad differ from those who have not. Foreign students were requested to name four faculty and staff members who had been particularly helpful to them in problem resolution, and to rate the persons named on specially designed empathy scales. A projective item was included in the event that they wished to name any addi-

tional persons that they perceived as possessing understanding and helpful qualities. The foreign students were assured of confidentiality, and invited to contact the Student Affairs Office to examine the results of the study.

When the surveys were returned, they were examined to determine which faculty and staff members had been named by the students as helpful and understanding. If the faculty or staff member named had not returned a faculty survey, follow-up efforts were made to obtain one. Twenty-one of the 23 returns sought through follow-up efforts were obtained. No assurances of confidentiality were given the responding faculty and staff.

Statistical Analysis

Simple frequency and percentage analysis of the data yielded descriptive answers to many of the questions researched in this study. Demographic information was analyzed to yield a comparison between these foreign students and the national norm. Their adjustment relative to length of stay was assessed in order to determine the fit of this sample to the norm postulated by the U-curve hypothesis of adjustment.

A descriptive account of the network of informal foreign student advising at La Crosse was derived from an analysis of the persons named as helpful and understanding by the foreign students. By comparing the academic major of the student with the academic department of the persons named, the strength of major field in determining this advising network was indirectly assessed. The impact of foreign student advising as a part of

assigned roles within the university structure was assessed by determining the frequency with which students named persons having such roles.

The major thrust of the study was to determine whether the informal foreign student advising network at La Crosse was of such a nature as to support the association hypothesis, i.e., contact leads to understanding and empathy. To determine the level of belief in that hypothesis, foreign students were asked whether faculty who had been abroad, and thus had prior experience with other cultures, differed from those who had not had such experience. A percentage result of positive answers, together with content analysis of the comments, provided this information.

Once the level of belief in the association hypothesis was established, the students' actions in choice of informal advisors were examined for consistency with that belief. Each student was asked to name four helpful and understanding persons, and to rate each of these persons on empathy scales. Lists of persons named were made separately for each rank order, 1-4, and arranged according to the variables of experience, interest, or both experience and interest. Comparisons of the mean empathy scores for the persons named were performed using the *t*-test for independent means.

Chapter III

Results and Discussion

The foreign students were asked to name helpful and understanding persons. The campus personnel cited by the students constituted the network of informal advisors. The students named a total of 38 persons, 10 of whom were referred to by more than one foreign student as especially helpful. Of the 38 persons named, 33, or 87% had returned faculty and staff surveys and therefore could be included in the tests of the hypotheses.

The persons named as helpful and understanding included staff, graduate interns, and teaching faculty. The influence of major department on the choices was apparently minor. For only 16 of the 68 references did the major field of the student coincide with the academic department of the person named. However, the assignment of foreign student advising as part of the role was related to choices made by students. The Foreign Student Advisor was identified as helpful and understanding 15 times, and the faculty advisor to the International Student Organization was chosen three times. Four other faculty or staff positions might include foreign student advising as a part of the job description. The Director of the Institute for Minority Studies was named four times, and the Counselor of the Office for Emerging Students was named seven times. The secretary to the Foreign Student Advisor was named once, and a staff member of the Financial Aids Office was named twice. In a total of 32 of the 68 instances, the foreign students

named, as helpful and understanding, persons whose assigned function at the university included the assistance of foreign students.

In addition to the six persons who had assigned roles which included helping foreign students, the students selected 32 other faculty and staff members as exceptionally helpful and understanding. These 38 persons were chosen from the nearly 400 faculty and staff members of the university. In attempting to understand why these choices were made, the variables of experience and interest were investigated.

Experience Abroad and Empathy

If prior contact with a culture other than the United States produces understanding and empathy across cultural lines, persons having extended educational experience abroad should be disproportionately selected by the foreign students as helpful, and rated as highly empathic. The hypothesis tested was that faculty and staff members who have had educational experience abroad would be named by foreign students as helpful and understanding with greater frequency than faculty and staff who had not had such experience. As shown in Table 3, the data failed to support this hypothesis.

Table 3

References as a Function of Experience Abroad

Rank	Frequency	
	Experience	No experience
1	7	13
2	5	13
3	9	5
4	5	8

Of the 65 references to helpful and understanding persons, faculty and staff with experience abroad were named a total of 26 times, while persons without experience abroad were named as helpful and understanding 39 times.

The students were also asked to rate those they named on empathy scales. It was predicted that persons with experience abroad would be perceived by the foreign students as more empathic than persons without such experience. The data also failed to support this prediction. Table 4 presents the mean empathy ratings, standard deviations, and *t* values for the four rank orders of persons named as helpful and understanding.

Table 4

t Tests of Independent Means:
Perceived Empathy as a Function of Experience Abroad

	Perceived empathy						
	Experience abroad		No experience abroad				
Rank	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	df	t	p
1	14.57	1.13	13.61	1.89	18	1.29	ns
2	13.20	1.48	13.01	1.77	16	-.48	ns
3	13.37	1.50	12.80	1.48	12	.42	ns
4	11.80	2.68	12.75	1.98	11	-.73	ns

There were no significant differences in the empathy ratings as a function of experience abroad. Nevertheless, students almost unanimously stated a belief in experience as contributing to understanding and empathy. In response to the question, "Do you think faculty or staff members who have been in other

countries differ from those who haven't?", 22 students responded positively, two responded negatively, and three did not answer. The 81% who responded positively overwhelmingly indicated that faculty who had been abroad would have more understanding of foreign students' problems. In addition to this expected increase in understanding, which was mentioned 11 times, other qualities were expected less often. Openness, kindness, empathy, no stereotyping, helpfulness, the ability to relate, background knowledge of problems, and increased interest were each attributes mentioned at least once as expected of faculty who had been abroad.

In the face of these high expectations of the effect of prior experience abroad, it is interesting to note that the students did not more frequently identify as helpful and understanding faculty who had had such experience. In short, the belief in the association hypothesis was not supported statistically.

Interest in International Education and Empathy

The second variable investigated was expressed interest in intercultural education. The sub-hypothesis tested was that faculty and staff members who have indicated an interest in international education will be named by foreign students as more helpful and understanding than those faculty and staff members who have indicated no interest in international education. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. There is no significant difference in empathy ratings as a function of

interest. However, expressed interest in international education does appear to be significantly related to identification as helpful and understanding. Table 5 presents the frequency of references in each of the four rankings as a function of interest in international education.

Table 5

References as a Function of Interest in International Education

Rank	Frequency	
	Interest	No interest
1	20	0
2	18	0
3	13	1
4	11	2

Of a total of 65 references, the foreign students selected as helpful and understanding faculty or staff who had indicated interest in international education 95% of the total, or 62 times. In three instances, or 5% of the time, they selected persons who had not indicated an interest in international education. The cell sizes were too small to isolate the categories for the t test, but mean empathy scores and standard deviations as a function of interest are presented in Table 6.

These results show that interest in international education is a variable that has bearing on foreign students' perceptions of helpfulness, understanding, and empathy. Nearly all the persons named had an expressed interest in international education, and their empathy ratings were high (M's > 4 on a 5 point

Table 6

Perceived Empathy as a Function of Interest in International Education

Rank	Perceived empathy			
	Interest		No interest	
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.
1	13.95	1.70	-	-
2	13.50	1.58	-	-
3	13.38	1.50	-	-
4	12.18	2.27	13.50	2.12

scale). Clearly, interest is correlated with helpfulness and empathy, but the source and strength of that interest remain unclear. Similarly, there is no indication whether these interested persons would have acquired experience abroad also, if given the opportunity.

Experience, Interest and Empathy

The third hypothesis tested assumes that the effects of interest in international education and experience abroad are cumulative. That is, persons with both these characteristics will be most strongly empathic and most frequently chosen by the students as helpful. The hypothesis stated that faculty and staff who have indicated both educational experience abroad and interest in international education will be named more often by foreign students as helpful and understanding than faculty and staff who have neither experience nor interest or only experience or interest. The data failed to support this

hypothesis. Table 7 presents the frequency of references in each of the four rankings, with persons who had both the experience and interest characteristics contrasted with those who had one or neither of these characteristics.

Table 7

References as a Function of Combined Experience and Interest

Rank	Frequency	
	Experience and interest	Only experience or interest or neither
1	7	13
2	5	13
3	7	7
4	5	8

The foreign students named persons who had both characteristics, experience and interest, 24 times, and named persons with only one or neither of these characteristics 41 times. Furthermore, if the combination of interest and experience produced a cumulative effect, the mean empathy ratings should be higher for persons with both characteristics than for persons with only one or neither experience nor interest. The data failed to support this prediction. Table 8 presents the mean empathy ratings, standard deviations, and t values for the four rank orders of persons named, as a function of the combined variables of experience and interest.

Table 8

t Tests of Independent Means:

Perceived Empathy as a Function of

Combined Experience and Interest

Rank	Perceived empathy						
	Combined experience and interest		Only one or neither				
	M	S.D.	M	S.D.	df	t	p
1	14.57	1.13	13.61	1.89	18	1.29	ns
2	13.20	1.48	13.61	1.66	16	-.48	ns
3	13.57	1.51	13.00	1.66	12	.70	ns
4	11.80	2.68	12.75	1.98	11	-.73	ns

The general conclusion from the data is that only interest in international education is related to the levels of helpfulness and empathy perceived by foreign students. All persons chosen by the foreign students as helpful and understanding were reported as also empathic, as evidenced by the mean empathy scores in Tables 4, 6, and 8. The slight but consistent downward trend in mean empathy scores from rank 1 to rank 4 for all variables indicates that the students perceived helpfulness and understanding to correlate closely with empathy, thus attesting to the internal consistency of the empathy measure employed. All persons named as helpful were, as expected, ranked above average on the empathy scales as well.

Foreign Student Adjustment Measures

In general, the responses of the foreign students indicate that they have been able to find faculty and staff members

on campus who are willing to assist them with problems, and that these faculty are at least somewhat effective. Question 9 requested the student to indicate the extent of satisfaction with the kind of help received in adjustment problem resolution. The distribution of responses is shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Extent of Satisfaction With Help Received

Category	Number of responses
Extremely dissatisfied	4
Somewhat dissatisfied	2
Neutral	6
Somewhat satisfied	8
Extremely satisfied	5
No answer	2
Total	27

The mean satisfaction score of 3.32 suggests greater than average satisfaction.

The sample reported a somewhat more positive estimate of overall satisfaction with their adjustment. Question 7 asked, "How well do you feel you have adjusted to university life here?" Responses are indicated in Table 10. The mean of 3.96 indicates a slightly higher level of adjustment as compared to satisfaction with faculty and staff assistance on adjustment problems. This could be attributed to several factors. One possible explanation is the effect of the general level of understanding perceived by students at the university. These

Table 10

Reported Level of Adjustment

Category	Number of responses
Very poor	0
Poor	0
Average	10
Better than average	7
Extremely good	9
No answer	1
Total	27

responses are shown in Table 11, and indicate an average level ($\underline{M}$=3.11) of perceived understanding.

Table 11

Perceived Level of Understanding

Category	Number of responses
Poor	3
Fair	4
Average	9
Good	9
Excellent	2
Total	27

It is possible to speculate on the basis of these results that the slightly elevated level of adjustment of these students, relative to the assistance they receive and the general level of perceived understanding, is attributed by them to their own

efforts toward adjustment. There is some support for this viewpoint; eight of the students responding to the projective item (included to provide an opportunity to name another helpful faculty or staff member) volunteered their own services to aid other foreign students with problems. That response was most strikingly evident from the Asian students, who nearly unanimously preferred to suggest themselves or other foreign students as advisors rather than faculty or staff members. DuBois (1956) noted this "clannishness" especially among oriental students and discussed some of the implications for the advising process, such as possible benefits from problem-oriented group discussion sessions.

Faculty Survey Results

The third purpose of this study was to provide a data bank for the use of the Foreign Student Advisor and other student services personnel. The results of the faculty survey (N=151) have been tabulated for this purpose. The returned surveys, together with an analysis of the responses as to educational experience abroad and level and type of interest in international education have been presented to the Foreign Student Advisor. A copy of the analysis of these returns is included in Appendix D.

Comparison of the Sample with the National Norm

The final purpose of this study was to provide a descriptive analysis of the foreign student sample in comparison to the national norm relative to several variables. The variables considered under the heading of demographic data

were: sex, year in school, country of origin, and academic major. The results of these comparisons are presented in Tables 12-15.

Table 12

Sample Distribution by Sex

Sex	Sample	National norm*
Males	70%	71%
Females	30%	24%
No answer	-	5%

* 1973 data from Institute of International Education (1973)

Table 13

Sample Distribution by Year in School

Year in school	Sample	National norm*
Graduates	37%	43%
Undergraduates	63%	51%
Special, no answer	-	6%

* 1973 data from Institute of International Education (1973)

Table 14

Rank of Country of Origin

Country	Rank in sample	Rank in national norm (1975-6)*
Hong Kong	1	2
Guyana	2	(not in top ten)
Rep. of China	3	4
Nigeria	4	3
Somalia	4	-
U.A.E.	4	-
Lebanon	5	-
Canada	5	6
India	5	5
England	5	-
Ethiopia	5	-

*1975-6 data from The Chronicle of Higher Education, (1976). (country sending most students = No. 1)

Table 15

Academic Major

Major	Sample	National norm (1975-6)*
Engineering	4%	20 %
Business & Mgt.	22	14
Social sciences	11	7.9
Physical sci.	4	6.4
Biol. sci.	15	5.4
Education	25	5
Mass comm.	19	-

*1975-6 data from The Chronicle of Higher Education, (1976).

The sample matches the national norm closely in sex distribution, approximates it roughly by year in school, and varies considerably by country of origin and by academic major. Perhaps this last variable reflects the history of the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse as a teacher's college, for a full quarter of the foreign students are in some area of education.

U-curve Adjustment Hypothesis

One final comparison was made between the sample and the hypothetical national norm relative to level of adjustment. Coelho (1958) and others have found that foreign students pass through predictable stages in level of adjustment. The students are relatively well adjusted at first, pass through a trough of difficulties, and return to a moderately high level of adjustment prior to departure. The process is referred to as the U-curve of adjustment. The sample was analyzed by length of stay versus level of adjustment, and the results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Adjustment Versus Length of Stay

Level of adjustment	Length of stay in years				
	½-1½	2-2½	3-3½	4-4½	5-6
Very good	3	1	1	2	2
Good	1	1	2	3	-
Average	5	-	2	3	-
Poor	-	-	-	-	-
Very poor	-	-	-	-	-
Total	9	2	5	8	2

The data show wide variation in level of adjustment at all stages in length of stay for the sample. These foreign students differ greatly from the hypothetical norm postulated by the U-curve adjustment theory.

Summary

In summary, the sample students do not conform closely to the national norm on demographic variables. Their expressed level of adjustment to the sojourn experience is relatively good. They may accomplish this satisfactory adjustment as much through their own efforts as through those of the university community. Where faculty and staff are found to be exceptionally helpful, understanding, and empathic, it may be due to their generalized interest in international education. Prior experience abroad does not seem to predispose or enable faculty and staff to be perceived as exceptionally helpful and empathic. The association theory, that contact produces empathy, is unsupported by the data.

It may be useful to study the faculty who respond differently along experience and interest variables in terms of ethnocentrism and authoritarianism. In addition, locus of control research (Rotter, 1966) may shed light on the foreign students' self-reliance. Student services personnel may be able to most effectively allocate resources to meet the needs of foreign students on a specific problem focus and rely increasingly on those students' adaptive abilities to confront generalized adjustment concerns.

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Appendix A

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR FOREIGN STUDENT AFFAIRS

RESPONSIBILITIES AND STANDARDS IN INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL EXCHANGE

The National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) is a membership organization composed of and working with professional and volunteer personnel concerned with all aspects of the experience of students and scholars crossing national boundaries for educational purposes. This includes foreign persons studying in the United States and Americans traveling or studying abroad. The primary concern of NAFSA and of its members is that each individual involved in such movement have the best possible educational and personal experience while he is studying outside his own country. This can be achieved only if every person who deals with him is guided by a belief in the worth, the dignity, and the potential of every human being, regardless of national or ethnic origin, cultural or linguistic background, race, social status, political affiliation, or religious belief. All members of the Association are expected to be guided by this basic concept.

Among those who work with students and scholars outside their home countries, several areas of specialization have developed. These include advising foreign students; selecting, admitting, and determining academic placement of foreign students; teaching English as a second language; programming off-campus opportunities for foreign students; and administering programs for and advising Americans who wish to travel or study abroad. In each of these fields attributes of professionalism have emerged and have been encouraged by NAFSA. These are evidenced by an increasing number of persons who devote full time to the field; a growing body of literature; improved research techniques and expanding research activities; a growing concern for the preparation and professional competence of personnel; and increasing efforts to formulate ethical principles and professional standards.

NAFSA expects that all of its members and all others involved in international educational exchange activities, whether paid or volunteer, full time or part time, will strive to achieve professional standards in their work. In furtherance of that expectation and in an attempt to define these professional standards, the NAFSA Committee on Professional Development and the NAFSA Board of Directors have prepared and approved this statement of responsibilities and standards.

Appendix B

The UNIVERSITY of WISCONSIN - LA CROSSE

LA CROSSE, WISCONSIN 54601 (608) 784-6050

March 1, 1976

FACULTY SURVEY ON INTERNATIONAL EDUCATION

This survey is an attempt to assess the strengths of the UW-L faculty in the area of intercultural education. Compilation of the survey results will assist us in building an informational base as to our resources. With this knowledge, sounder programming can be developed to enrich the experiences of all UW-L students, whether domestic or foreign. Please complete the items below as soon as possible and return to:

Linda Fystrom
Student Affairs, UW-L

Name_____ Department_____

1. Is any part of your academic training from an institution outside the U.S.?
   Yes____ No____
   If so, where?_____
   Degree granted_____ Length of training at that institution_____

2. Have you ever taught abroad? Yes____ No____
   If so, where?_____
   Duration_____
   Academic responsibilities other than teaching_____
   _____

3. Have you ever led ____ or participated in ____ a group study/travel program abroad?
   If so, where?_____
   Duration_____

4. Are there courses in your department which would benefit from inclusion of cultural-comparative material? Yes____ No____

5. At UW-L do you make an effort to present course content from an international perspective? Yes____ No____. If so, please comment on the nature of your efforts:
   _____
   _____

6. Have you ever utilized foreign students at UW-L as resource persons in providing information ____ or stimulating discussion ____ in your courses? If so, please comment on your feelings about the success of these efforts:_____
   _____

7. Would you be interested in serving as a resource person to the Foreign Student Adviser and/or the International Student Organization? Yes____ No____. If so, would your interest lie generally in the area of:
   ____Community involvement in intercultural relations
   ____Specific program development in area of special interest
   ____As a committee member advising and strengthening the total international education program

Appendix C

The purposes of this questionnaire are to obtain information which may help to strengthen the foreign student advising program at La Crosse, and to partially fulfill the requirements for a Master's Degree in College Student Personnel. All replies will be kept strictly confidential. Please do not sign your name, but complete all items if possible.

Definition: The term faculty refers to a teaching faculty member; the term staff refers to a non-teaching university employee, such as a dean, the foreign student advisor, or a member of the academic skills center staff.

1. Please indicate your year in school: Fr___Soph___Jr___Sr___ Grad___Other_____

2. What is your academic major?_____

3. How long have you been in school in the U.S.?____yrs. In La Crosse? ____yrs.

4. What is your country of origin? _____

5. Have you ever been invited to the home of a faculty or staff member? Yes___No___
   If so, whose home?_____
   _____

6. How do you feel about the general level of understanding toward foreign students at UW-La Crosse? Excellent___ Good___ Average___ Fair___ Poor___

7. How well do you feel you have adjusted to university life here?
   Very poorly___ Poorly___ Average___ Better than average___ Extremely well___

8. Have you ever discussed problems of adjustment to university life with a faculty or staff member? Every time a problem arises___ More often than the average___
   About as often as anyone does___ Rarely___ Never___

9. Indicate the extent of satisfaction with the kind of help you have received:
   Extremely dissatisfied___ Somewhat dissatisfied___ Neutral___
   Somewhat satisfied___ Extremely satisfied___

10. Please list those faculty or staff members who have been most helpful to you as a foreign student in the kinds of problems you may have encountered:

    Place a number 1 beside the name of the person who has been most helpful, a 2 beside the name of the second most helpful, and so on.

    _____
    _____
    _____
    _____

11. For each of the persons listed above, please describe their behavior on the following scales by circling the appropriate numbers.

	Not at all true		Moderately true		Very true
For the person you named as number 1 (most helpful):					
He listens to me.	1	2	3	4	5
He understands me.	1	2	3	4	5
He communicates his understanding to me.	1	2	3	4	5
For the person you named as number 2:					
He listens to me.	1	2	3	4	5
He understands me.	1	2	3	4	5
He communicates his understanding to me.	1	2	3	4	5
For the person you named as number 3:					
He listens to me.	1	2	3	4	5
He understands me.	1	2	3	4	5
He communicates his understanding to me.	1	2	3	4	5
For the person you named as number 4:					
He listens to me.	1	2	3	4	5
He understands me.	1	2	3	4	5
He communicates his understanding to me.	1	2	3	4	5

12. If a friend of yours, another foreign student, was experiencing a distressing situation, who would you advise him or her to seek out for advice?_____

_____

13. If you wish to describe any particularly frustrating experience you have had involving problems of communication and understanding with a faculty or staff member, please comment here: _____

_____

_____

14. Do you think faculty or staff members who have been in other countries differ from those who haven't? Yes___ No___. If so, how?_____

_____

Thank you for your cooperation. If you wish to know the results of this survey, please contact me at 209 Main Hall.

Linda Fystrom

Appendix D

Faculty Survey Results (N=151)

Educational Experience Abroad

Questions one through three asked faculty to report educational experience abroad. Forty-five faculty and staff members indicated prior educational experience abroad; 106 indicated no such experience.

Twenty faculty members report that some part of their academic training was from an institution outside the United States. Thirty-two faculty members report that they have taught abroad. Thirty-three faculty members report having led or participated in a group study/travel program abroad.

Twenty-one of the 45 responding positively answered yes to more than one of these questions, indicating some depth in educational experience abroad.

Expressed Interest in International Education

Questions four through seven requested information regarding the faculty or staff member's interest in international education. One hundred twenty one of the 151 respondents answered one or more of these questions positively, indicating a high level of interest in international education at the University of Wisconsin-La Crosse. Ninety-three respondents reported that there are courses in their department which would benefit from inclusion of cultural-comparative material. Eighty-nine reported making an effort to present course content from an international perspective. Eighty-three have utilized foreign

students as resource persons in providing information or stimulating discussion in their courses. Seventy faculty and staff members indicated a willingness to serve as a resource person to the Foreign Student Advisor and/or the International Student Organization, in one or more of the following three areas of interest:

1. Community involvment in intercultural relations
2. Specific program development in area of special interest
3. As a committee member advising and strengthening the total international education program.

Two persons selected only the first area of interest; nine persons selected only the second; 31 persons selected only the third. One person chose both the first and second; one person chose both the first and third; five persons chose both the second and third. Twelve persons indicated a willingness to serve in all three capacities, and nine persons stated a willingness to serve but with no preferred area of interest, or wrote in additional suggestions.

Thirty-one persons responded negatively to questions four through seven, indicating no interest in international education, as defined by the instrument. Of these 31, 17 had responded positively to one or more of the questions reqarding prior educational experience abroad.

Of the 151 respondents, only 30 answered no to all questions. Of these, six were non-teaching staff and 24 were teaching faculty.