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Developing Counselor Awareness of Problems Related to International Student Personnel

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DEVELOPING COUNSELOR AWARENESS OF PROBLEMS

RELATED TO INTERNATIONAL STUDENT PERSONNEL

(TITLE)

BY

Gary F. Rold

THESIS

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PREFACE

The purpose of the present writing is to establish the foundation for and describe the apparatus of a unit program designed to make counselors or prospective counselors more aware of the cross-cultural differences and possible adjustment problems of foreign students in American collegiate institutions. The program is geared toward enabling counselor education students at the graduate level and in-service counselors to increase their sensitivity and capacity to deal with the specific difficulties experienced by foreign students which would tend to make them more difficult to counsel or less receptive to domestic counselors than their American counterparts.

Over a period of approximately the last 20 years, a substantial effort has been made to examine the attitudes and adjustments of international students to the United States.¹ A number of studies have been conducted in an attempt to test suggested hypotheses. From the variety and volume of issues studied there evolved an apparent need for greater attention within college student services to the special needs of foreign students. Many suggestions have been made as to how colleges and universities might alter or restructure their student services

¹Hwa-Bao Chang, "Attitudes of Chinese Students in the United States," Sociology and Social Research, V 58, N 1, October 1973, p. 67.

programs, particularly in counseling, admissions and financial aids to better serve the foreign students. Some large universities have, in fact, made rather sweeping changes in their programming along these lines. Relatively little has been done to modify existing course work in student personnel and counselor education to develop cross-cultural awareness and an understanding of foreign students' unique concerns. The unit program described in this thesis is an attempt to fill that gap.

Procedurally, the writing of this paper has involved a review of the literature relating to foreign students and to educational methodology; in this way it relies quite heavily on the information contained in the literature. Secondly, it has involved an analysis of these collected resources for the purpose of deriving the data most pertinent to the present effort. Lastly, it has involved the organization of data into categories of explanations on cross-cultural phenomena and on educational inquiry in hopes of supporting its contentions.

In terms of its limitations, this thesis will not attempt to espouse a particular or "best" counseling theory nor will it limit the word "counseling" to personal, academic or vocational counseling. Rather, it will consider all theories and goals of guidance counseling and student personnel work in general to be valid insofar as theories and goals shall be valid to those who do espouse or practice them. The present effort is designed to help arm counselors and counseling trainees with a knowledge of a particular subject with which they may have had little or no previous contact. Further, the discussion of foreign students will be centered upon institutions of higher education

but not completely limited to them. Certainly if one is discussing counselor education one is referring to higher education; however, in reference to foreign students, though their greatest numbers are found in America's colleges and universities, they also can be found at the secondary level.²

This paper is organized into two major parts: a Rationale and a Unit Program. The Rationale is broken down into three chapters. Chapter One is a brief summary of the history and background of foreign students in American higher education and is designed to give the reader a perspective on the general topic area of international education and cross-cultural studies as they pertain to American institutions and their foreign guests. Chapter Two is an examination of several of the most prevalent areas of difficulty which foreign students face and which are likely to be of concern to counselors attempting to understand the unique circumstances, pressures and adjustment problems. Chapter Three involves a discussion of the current situation on campuses in the United States concerning the established institutional apparatus for aiding foreign students and also, an argument for greater counselor preparation in handling the foreign student and his problems. The Unit Program is divided into two chapters. Chapter Four is a discussion of some of the methodologies and techniques which might go into a unit plan for developing counselor awareness of foreign students' concerns. Chapter Five is the unit plan itself and draws from all that has preceded

²Leslie B. Milk, "That's No Diplomat--That's My Brother," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, N 2-3, Winter 1974, p. 4.

it in a step by step description of learning activities for enhancing counselor education students' understanding of cultural variance toward the end of better counseling of foreign students.

I would like to acknowledge the aid of Dr. William Crane whose advise and guidance has provided the framework through which this thesis has reached completion. Also, my thanks go out to Dr. Kenneth Sutton who originally suggested the area of foreign students as one which might deserve my attention; to Mrs. Eulalee Anderson, Dr. Jumuna Bai and Mr. Ahmed Shodeinda who kindly granted interviews for the pilot research of this thesis. Lastly, I warmly thank my fiancée Felicia whose comfort, support and willingness to help have made all the difference.

Gary F. Rold

CHAPTER I

FOREIGN STUDENTS IN AMERICAN HIGHER EDUCATION: A BACKGROUND

International students and cultural exchange have been in the past and are today very much a part of American higher education. From a historical perspective there have been three major forces which have influenced the coming of foreign citizens to the United States for their education.

The first major force was the foreign missionary movement, dominating most of the nineteenth century . . . Not only did the missionaries represent the principal force in bringing or sending foreign students to the United States during this period; they also were instrumental in creating conditions in foreign countries that encouraged students to come.

The second major influence was that of philanthropic organizations which provided financial support and lent structure to the growing foreign student movement. "From roughly the turn of century to the early 1930's" these philanthropic organizations were the primary enabling framework for foreign student exchange.

The third period, beginning during the years just prior to World War II and continuing to the present, has been marked by an increasing involvement of the United States government in all phases of international education, including student exchange programs, foreign student activities, and related areas.³

³Emma Walker Schulken, A History of Foreign Students in American Higher Education from Its Colonial Beginnings to the Present: A Synthesis of the Major Forces Influencing Their Presence in American Higher Education. (Doctoral Dissertation, Florida State University, 1974), pp. 1-26.

During each of these three phases the number of foreign students in the United States has steadily increased. The growth rate during each of the first two periods was comparatively slight when viewed in relation to the third period. It has been during the last period that striking changes have occurred in the quantities of international students on American campuses. Torrey et. al. point out,

In 1930 there were fewer than 10,000 foreign students in the United States. In 1948 this number had doubled, and by 1968 it had increased tenfold to over 100,000 . . . They are distributed over a wide range of academic institutions; in 1966, 121 institutions had over 100 foreign students each. The concentration of foreign students in some university centers is quite striking. For instance, Stanford University had over 1000 foreign students in the academic year 1968-1969, constituting approximately ten percent of the entire student body population. Nevertheless, foreign students are by no means restricted to well-known or larger universities; in almost every small college some will be found.⁴

The primary reasons for the tremendous foreign student influx during the 1940's and subsequently may be directly traced to World War II. During the war, European universities were often forced to close and many were ravaged by the conflict, forcing their student populations at the time and for years to come to look elsewhere for an education. The natural choice for an "elsewhere" was the United State whose institutions had weathered the war. In a very thorough analysis of foreign students in American higher education Du Bois notes that

World War II delayed the higher education of at least one and in some cases two or three academic generations in Europe and much of Asia. It isolated scholars, who, like the great international corporations, depend upon free intercourse across national boundaries for their vitality. American educational

⁴E. F. Torrey, F. J. Van Rheenan and H. A. Katchdourian, "Problems of Foreign Students: An Overview," Journal of the American College Health Association, V 19, N 2, December 1970, p. 83.

institutions passed relatively unscathed through the war whereas the human and material resources of universities in many parts of the world had been destroyed or severely damaged.⁵

Further, when the war ended, the American government took the task upon itself of re-educating the citizens of the more war-torn nations and in doing so, sponsored tours of the United States exposing many foreign nationals to the educational facilities available here. At the same time, some of the less technically developed nations looked to the United States and its academic institutions as the most plausible alternative for educating their personnel in an effort toward social and economic betterment.

The trends of re-education, development and re-development have persisted and continued to bring foreign students to the United States up to more recent times. Certainly the effects of the war on other nations' colleges and universities and particularly the cross-cultural exposure gained during the post-war years created an avenue to America that has generally maintained itself and has created also a greater consciousness of foreign exchange in this country. This increased consciousness coupled with declining enrollments of domestic students in domestic institutions of higher learning is presently having prolonged impact on the recruiting outlook of America's colleges and universities. The Chronicle of Higher Education reports, "American colleges, faced with a shortage of students at home, are looking at other countries as fertile recruiting grounds."⁶

⁵Cora Du Bois, Foreign Students and Higher Education in the United States, (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1956), p. 4.

⁶"Foreign Students: More Coming," The Chronicle of Higher Education, V 10, N 5, March 24, 1975, p. 1.

Much of the current recruiting effort is directed at the oil rich nations like Venezuela and those of the Middle East. These countries are increasingly in an economic position to transport their youth to the United States for an education. With approximately 30,000 more foreign students in America than there were five years ago, new and vigorous recruiting drives abroad lead observers to the belief that even larger increases will be realized in the future. Though Venezuela and the Middle East are "hot spots" for recruiting, they are not the only areas where large numbers of American education recruits are to be found. "The Far East sends more students to the United States than does any other section of the world."⁷ With many students who have been educated in English language schools and who have the financial resources as well, Hong Kong is one very popular place from which to draw students.

Aside from the questions of why foreign students come to the United States and where American institutions place their greatest emphasis in recruitment drives, the number of international students on American soil speaks for itself. For the academic year 1973-74 there were 151,000 students from other countries in colleges and universities in the United States.⁸ This figure, along with the prospect of amplified recruiting efforts, appears to indicate that whatever benefits or difficulties are created for the institutions or for the students themselves, greater and more careful attention will be required in the area of foreign student concerns.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Ibid.

Among the most basic questions related to foreign students is concern for the use of the label "foreign students." The argument has arisen as to whether we may use such a label to group all students coming to the United States from a variety of other nations and at the same time expect to deal with the concerns and problems of these students properly. In an article on comparative stereotypes, Johnson argues against ". . . the assumption that there is something unifying about the experience of being a 'foreign student' on an American campus." He states further ". . . the differences between Chinese and Indians studying in the United States is greater than any similarities that might be expected because they are both 'foreign' in the American milieu."⁹

If we then assume that there are greater dissimilarities than similarities between the various cultural groups studying in America, we might be forced to the conclusion that the label "foreign students" is a misnomer and should attempt to avoid its usage. In the above mentioned article, Johnson¹⁰ was attempting to gain some greater understanding of the cultural stereotypes between four cultural groups: Indian, Iranian, Chinese and American students. In doing so, he cited Cauthen's definition of the word "stereotype," i.e. "a category that singles out an individual as sharing assumed characteristics on the basis of group membership."¹¹ Taking this definition and applying it

⁹Dixon C. Johnson, "Ourselves and Others: Comparative Stereotypes," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, N 2-3, Winter 1974, p. 24.

¹⁰Ibid.

¹¹Nelson R. Cauthen, Ira E. Robinson and Herbert H. Krauss, "Stereotypes: A Review of the Literature 1925-1968," Journal of Social Psychology, June 1971, p. 103.

to the views of American administrators, personnel workers, government officials and students toward the "foreign student" perhaps we may find that how foreign students are seen is as important as the actual similarities or dissimilarities that exist between different foreign national groups. That is, if we can imply that the use of the stereotype "foreign students" is in itself a salient feature in the adjustment and attitudes of students from other cultures in host culture institutions, then such a stereotype would seem to be in some ways as significant as the real differences that are manifest between people from different countries.

Beyond the use of the concept of stereotypes and on the other side of the argument as to whether or not the label "foreign student" is valid, some researchers have found that foreign students do possess a commonality that tends to group them and transcends their national origin differences. In a rather lengthy study of foreign students and their unique concerns Morris concludes

that generalizations do apply. There is such a thing as a foreign student who behaves in many respects like all other foreign students. There are certain things we can predict about them. They all face certain problems in common, regardless of their nationality, sex, age, social class, religion, or anything else . . .¹²

Therefore the use of the label "foreign student" does appear to have foundation, either as little more than a stereotype imposed on a body of individuals from various lands or as a phrase truly descriptive of a special group of students who experience special circumstances in American higher education. The argument as to whether this label is

¹²Richard T. Morris, The Two-Way Mirror, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1960), p. 139.

the "best" in referring to students from other countries is likely to go on and cannot be settled here. For present purposes it is most important to emphasize that there are large numbers of students on campuses in the United States who do not come from the same cultural heritage as do the domestic, host culture students on those same campuses. Granted, it may be argued, that many of these "domestic" students come from a variety of cultural heritages. But, the foreign student not only comes from a different cultural heritage; he or she is "foreign" as well. The Black African is not only black but is African--Nigerian, Ghanaian, Kenyan. Thus, whether we refer to international student personnel as foreign students or as Chinese, Indian or Nigerian, it is obvious that we are discussing a different population of individuals from those who are domestic or American. In relation to the similarities and dissimilarities between cultural groups and the use of the expression "foreign students" Chang concludes

. . . similarities indicate that foreign students in many nationalities have something in common, and in some instances, they may be treated as a uniform group. Of course, this observation should not lead one to ignore the unique features of a given group.¹³

Ultimately then, perhaps the most appropriate mode of thinking in relation to students from abroad is that they are both foreign students and students from a particular national group.

The cross-cultural mixing of foreign and American students is believed to be one of the greatest assets for international understanding, for the students of both groups and for the institution.

¹³Chang, p. 75.

Cultural exchange, American students abroad, and foreign students on American campuses are tremendous tools in helping international understanding. Attitudes toward the United States are carried home by potential leaders of their respective countries.¹⁴

The impact of international students on United States campuses has not been in terms of sheer numbers alone; university officials are cognizant of a broader education for American students when there is interaction with pupils from other countries. In addition to the assets international students add to campus life, there is general agreement that colleges and universities can, through exchange programs, make a valuable contribution to the national interests.¹⁵

International and cross-cultural sensitivities of American students may be greatly enhanced through curricular and extra-curricular contacts with foreign students.¹⁶

There is an apparent need for colleges and universities to do everything within their power to make certain that the foreign student's stay here is a pleasant and secure one.

Particularly important . . . is the provision of positive experiences for foreign students. Despite financial problems and enrollment limitations, it is critical to insure a successful stay of students who come from abroad.¹⁷

American student services personnel must "recognize that a special effort and a special talent for understanding is required that is not necessary

¹⁴A. R. Hagey and Joan Hagey, "Meeting the Needs of Students from Other Cultures," Improving College and University Teaching, V 22, N 1, Winter 1974, p. 42.

¹⁵Patricia M. Domingues, "Student Personnel Services for International Students," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, V 33, N 2, Winter 1970, p. 83.

¹⁶James M. Davis, "Purposes in the Foreign Student Enterprise, Guidance-Personnel Work: Future Tense. Edited by Margaret Ruth Smith, (New York: Teachers College Press, 1966), p. 158.

¹⁷Hagey and Hagey, p. 42.

when people from the same culture work together."¹⁸

There remains, however, an element of caution and perhaps even some skepticism as to how much of the goals of international understanding and making every foreign student's stay here a fulfilling experience can actually be achieved. Some writers in the area of student exchange have pointed out that "closeness" does not necessarily correlate with "greater understanding" between nations. Du Bois comments,

The closeness of interpersonal contacts between Frenchmen and Germans for many centuries has not kept the peace between these two nations. The Japanese students who came to study in the United States after the Meiji restoration were not able to prevent the attack on Pearl Harbor.¹⁹

Further, in relation to making the foreign student's sojourn in the United States most pleasing, some observers maintain that, though this may be a noble goal, it will not be attained for many foreign students as long as certain kinds of obstacles continue to burden them. Among these obstacles are American employers' unwillingness to hire foreign students for summer jobs; higher automobile insurance costs for foreign students; discrimination in housing; lower wages for foreign students than American students would command; and unequal considerations for admissions, financial aids and other services.²⁰

The goal of greater sensitivity and communication between foreign students and their American counterparts has also fallen short

¹⁸Jack R. Kerridge, "New Approaches to Special Programs for Foreign Students," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 4, N 4, Spring 1969, p. 33.

¹⁹Du Bois, p. 13.

²⁰Forrest G. Moore, "International Education in the Seventies: Revolution or Turmoil on the Campus," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 6, N 1, Summer 1970, p. 38.

of expectations.

One of the least successful roles attempted by Foreign Student Advisors on American campuses has been that of developing meaningful relationships between American students and the foreign students.²¹

Obviously there are, within the structure of American higher education and in the United States government, individuals and groups who wish great things from foreign student exchange and who are desirous of positive experiences for all foreign students in America's colleges and universities. Such goals, however, may be somewhat elusive in practical terms or perhaps too idealistic to be realized to the degree hoped for.

One possible reason why goals have not always lived up to expectations in foreign student exchange is that we have, in certain respects, superimposed our own purposes (America's purposes) on a circumstance and a group of people whose own intentions are more personal than cross-cultural.

Few students come to the United States primarily to learn the 'American way of life' or as 'unofficial ambassadors'. Coming to the United States for education is strictly a business and professional investment for most foreign students. International friendship and good will may well result from their residence here, but to them their ambassadorial functions are merely by-products.²²

Obtaining an education, the skills and abilities necessary to pursue a life's career, is the prime motivator which brings foreign students

²¹Edward L. Carpenter, "Roles of the Foreign Student Advisor," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 4, N 4, Spring 1969, p. 41.

²²Theodore C. Blegen, Chairman, Counseling Foreign Students, (Washington, D. C.: The American Council on Education Studies, Series VI, Personnel Work in Colleges and Universities Subcommittee, 1960), p. 3.

to colleges and universities in the United States. The educational process emerges as paramount from a myriad of other, more arbitrary goals, when students travel thousands of miles for an education.

We need to remember that learning is in itself a worthy goal even though it does not necessarily assure world peace, economic development, or a generic enthusiasm for the United States. Should cross-cultural education actually contribute to world peace, economic development of the home country, and a positive appreciation of the host country, these must be considered fortunate and perhaps most fortuitous adjuncts.²³

Whether we emphasize international understanding, better cross-cultural relations between foreign and domestic students, positive life-experiences for students from abroad, or education for educator's sake, we need to be aware of the situational factors, attitudes and personal circumstances of foreign students. It seems clear that we cannot make arbitrary decisions or establish arbitrary objectives for cultural exchange, for foreign students as a group or for Chinese, Indian or Nigerian students. Decisions must result from a thorough examination of foreign students' concerns as those concerns compare and contrast with the services available and with institutional policies. The main thrust of this paper is aimed at counselors and counselor educators. However, it is also aimed at deans, chancellors and presidents of American colleges and universities. Frequently it is at the administrative level that broad decisions and assumptions are made which, either by intent or default, establish the institutional view of foreign student affairs. All too often, this view does not take all relevant matters into consideration. As Carpenter remarks,

²³Du Bois, p. 17.

Since policy issues seem to be so successfully overlooked or so often avoided, policy in making cases is set by an FSA's (foreign student advisor's) practices, usually reflecting his or his superior's beliefs--with little conscious, rational determination beforehand and even less conscious, objective evaluation later.²⁴

We will look at the major problems foreign students face while attending institutions of higher education in the United States. Some of these problems are, in a sense, the result of the students' own expectations or misconceptions about the host culture. Many of these problems are far beyond the control of the student himself and sometimes, seemingly, beyond anyone's control. All of the difficulties foreign students face are results of complex circumstances which may cause the student emotional or adjustment concerns. All of these concerns may be very important to the counselor who has just sat down to talk to a foreign student.

²⁴Carpenter, p. 39.

CHAPTER II

THE PROBLEMS OF FOREIGN STUDENTS

There are a sufficient number of foreign students in the United States so as to make ignoring them an unfortunate oversight. The argument over the use of the label "foreign student" has been presented, and hopefully resolved. It has been explained also that, for whatever by-products there may be to the presence of international student personnel on American campuses, the one binding element and purpose for their being here is found in the context of learning and the educational process. Of particular import is the foreign student's environment, both attitudinal and situational, which might manifest themselves during that student's sojourn in America and which might cause emotional stress or psychological maladjustment.

Though it is perhaps a "human and scientific monstrosity"²⁵ to constantly refer to students from other nations as "foreign students," there appears to be ample support for the usage of this label. The support is evident, not because all of these various individuals from various nations with a variety of customs and cultural backgrounds are ultimately alike, but rather because as a group they are confronted with a set of social, legal and linguistic puzzles which no other group of

²⁵Du Bois, p. 35.

people on an American campus are confronted with in quite the same way. Foreign students face American academia from a vantage point (or disadvantage point) different from that of domestic students.

Although United States universities vary in entrance requirements and academic standards, all share certain academic rituals which may make adjustment difficult for students from other countries, depending on the students' expectations, previous learning experiences and learning styles. Even native American students find the initial period of adjustment difficult with from 30 to 50 percent expressing fears that they will not be able to meet college course demands. The problem is compounded for the foreign student who must also adapt to different values, customs and language.²⁶

Some foreign students may initially be quite taken with the uniqueness of the host culture and may be "entertained" by the array of stimuli which unfold before them in their welcome to America. When that initial entertainment has ended, however, the foreign student may learn to his dismay that the uniqueness of the environment has taken on a new light in relation to his own uniqueness.

Usually a considerable amount of attention is given newly arrived students from abroad, airport greetings by college officials, teas, receptions, invitations to visit homes, appearances at the Rotary Club, and so forth. But when the cheering has stopped, when the business of the semester gets underway, when class assignments are given, quizzes administered, hour examinations graded, the foreign student often feels that he is in an unfriendly, almost hostile uncaring environment.²⁷

On the other hand, a foreign student's introduction to America

²⁶Martha J. Maxwell, "Foreign Students and American Academic Ritual," Journal of Reading, V 17, N 4, January 1974, p. 301.

²⁷John N. Cable, "Foreign Students in the United States," Improving College and University Teaching, V 22, N 1, Winter 1974, p. 40.

on American soil may be less than comforting from the outset. Upon arrival at their destination they are likely to find themselves rudely dropped into a bewildering civilization which is startlingly different from the picture American movies and newspapers have painted. The official details they must somehow wade through are increasingly difficult and confusing. (Their English abilities, which at home had seemed more than adequate, are now possibly falling to the other end of the linguistic spectrum.) In all of it, the fear of being conspicuous only compounds the problem.²⁸

The confusions and frustrations foreign students might encounter upon arrival in America or when confronted with the American academic ritual can be voluminous.

Social Adjustment

It is extremely hard to pinpoint a single problem that is most likely to cause foreign students difficulty in their stay here. Quite likely, it is somewhat absurd or at least not wholly relevant to attempt to pinpoint such an area of possible problems. What causes difficulty in adjustment for one student may not be of any great concern to another. The area of social adjustment to a new environment does seem to be one that all foreign students will face to some degree.

(Being away from home for perhaps the first time, being in a different physical and cultural environment with little if anything that reminds him of his homeland, the foreign student may become quite lonely.)

²⁸Blegen, p. 13.

Whenever foreign student advisers get together and compare experiences, pathetic and disheartening tales are told--stories of foreign students whose homesickness and loneliness create serious emotional upsets and, in many cases, prompt the student to return home long before his educational plan is completed.²⁹

Anyone who travels from his home and settles among strangers may be expected to experience a loss of equilibrium and may find that satisfying interpersonal relationships are rather elusive. Certainly this is true of the foreign student who finds himself not only among strangers, but strangers whose patterns of interaction are markedly different from his own. A foreign student whose emotional security has been closely tied to tight-knit family structure and now finds himself in the midst of individuals who are to him "foreign" and who are likely to have come from family situations not nearly so interdependent as his own, could undergo noticeable emotional disorientation. If a foreign student living and interacting with American students has been accustomed in his homeland to long and intimate friendships, he will be poorly prepared for the more casual, superficial relations which are not atypical of American college life.³⁰

Developing meaningful friendships and social relations with American students is a significant factor in the social adjustment of students from abroad. Those who find American students shallow, unresponsive, unwilling to "open up," or to share of themselves may feel that they are being shut out of the mainstream of social life on campus.]

Their course work may be the most important thing to them in the

²⁹Ibid., p. 15.

³⁰Du Bois, p. 93.

long run but that is not their total life on campus. Poor social adjustment may also affect academic performance.

. . . The Academic success of the foreign student's sojourn here is contingent on a host of factors that may have little to do with his academic preparedness to cope with the course of study that he, his government, and his college have chosen for him. Social confrontations, while part and parcel of American higher education's notion of 'education' and hence of inherent educative value, themselves can and do affect the student's preparedness . . .³¹

By the same token, the great amount of time that must be devoted to scholarly pursuits and the academic requirements of his program may limit the amount of time a foreign student has available for social interaction.

. . . Academic or other demands, . . . may limit the time available for the development of personal relations; different expectations about the nature of friendship may lead to misunderstandings and frustration. The student may conclude that Americans are superficial and not capable of profound personal relations, and his participation in social activities with them may be reduced.³²

Many foreign students do in fact report that close personal relationships with American students are difficult to establish.³³ And, if we can infer that activities in which foreign and domestic students participate together in some way affects socialization between them, then it appears that interaction has decreased in recent years. This condition exists, not only between foreign and domestic students but

³¹Robert D. Cohen, "African Students and the Negro-American-Past Relationships and a Recent Program," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 5, N 3, Fall 1969, p. 76.

³²Claire Selltiz, et. al., Attitudes and Social Relations of Foreign Students in the United States, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1963), p. 245.

³³Moore, p. 35.

between foreign students themselves and apparently is

not conducive to their psychological development and emotional stability, especially for those who need for socialization . . . can best be met by peer group support . . .³⁴

For the foreign student, finding friends and genuinely meaningful relationships can prove to be a search of formidable proportions and he may not fare well in the hunt. A dilemma of perhaps even more formidable proportions may confront the foreign student in the area of sex and dating. When the cultural patterns of Americans in day to day, routine interaction strikes the foreign student as confusing, how much more confusing is the fragile nature of male-female contact?

"Undoubtedly, many foreign students find not only our 'dating' customs baffling in different ways for different reasons, but there are repeated indications that this is an area of considerable maladjustment."³⁵

Gabriel, in discussing foreign students in American universities concludes that most foreign students become dissatisfied with the informal aspects of campus life. Many do not feel that they are a part of the mainstream of their surroundings and find that their friendships with Americans are superficial and unrewarding. Elements such as dating and social interaction present formidable obstacles to a large number of foreign students.³⁶

³⁴Man Keung Ho, "Outreach Approach to Counseling with Foreign Students," Journal of College Student Personnel, V 15, N 1, January 1974, p. 66.

³⁵Du Bois, p. 181.

³⁶R. L. Gabriel, "Characteristics of Foreign Students on an American Campus," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, V 36, N 4, Summer 1973, p. 184.

These findings do not mean, of course, that all foreign students are unable to find friends, dates or satisfying relationships during their stay in the United States. As with the adjustment problems of other groups or populations in specific settings, the severity of difficulty is truer for the few than the many. In a very thorough analysis of foreign students in the United States, Selltiz found that the majority of foreign students were able to find friends and meaningful relationships including positive dating relationships. Approximately three-fourths of the foreign students sampled reported that homesickness was not at all a problem or only a slight one. Most of the students participating in the study, when asked to look back and evaluate their experience in the United States, indicated that they had generally enjoyed their stay here.³⁷ Pleasant social experiences are attainable for foreign students and most are able to find at least some degree of comfort and enjoyment while pursuing an education in the United States.

The point, however, seems to be that, in discussing the adjustment difficulties of a given group and in this case foreign students, sets of circumstances do arise that might cause maladaptive responses or emotional stresses for individuals in that group and almost certainly will for a portion of them. In her concluding remarks Selltiz comments that

. . . unlike one who is studying in his own country, he the foreign student is also learning to live with a foreign people and their way of life. He may be leaving home for the first time, for the first time finding himself on his own in a strange place. He is faced with innumerable problems of

³⁷Selltiz, p. 255.

finding his way around, both literally and figuratively, in a new setting. He must make acquaintances and, if he is fortunate, friends, among people he has never seen before and whose customs and views of life may be quite different from his own.³⁸

Because the process of social adjustment may be a rather delicate one effecting different foreign students in different ways and because some members of the host culture feel a need to compensate for the strangeness foreign students may sense about their new surroundings, efforts are frequently made to include foreign students in campus activities. This endeavor may have beneficial results for both the foreign student and the campus community. However, Cieslak warns against the

. . . tendency to 'lionize' the foreign student or to consider him to be a curiosity. Probably most benevolent 'do-gooders' are unconscious of the negative effects of their behavior . . . Overzealous attempts at proselyting have led, at times to unfortunate student reactions.

He reports further that foreign students' attitudes toward fraternities and sororities are more negative than positive. Of 271 respondents to his questionnaire, 109 gave an unfavorable opinion of fraternities and sororities while 83 were favorable and 79 were neutral.³⁹

Uboajah, in discussing the feeling of being black and foreign on an American campus, reports the presence of three primary sensations: his feelings of being isolated, that the majority of the student body are for the most part indifferent and that the attempts to include

³⁸Ibid., p. 242.

³⁹Edward C. Cieslak, The Foreign Student in American Colleges, (Detroit: Wayne University Press, 1955), p. 140.

him in campus activities are strained and amateurish.⁴⁰

Having planned activities available to foreign students is helpful and in the long run a good thing. Nevertheless, members of the host culture who come in contact with the foreign student need to realize that other cultures do not all emphasize group activities, sharing and participation in quite the same way those things are valued in America.⁴¹

Social adjustment patterns and factors related to the adjustment problems of foreign students have been associated with foreign students' attitudes toward the United States and with the Americans whom the international students come in touch with here. Considerable attention has been paid to this subject in the literature and some hypotheses have been established to explain the conditions which most influence adjustment.

Studies in the 1950's were mainly exploratory attempts to identify factors that determined the foreign students' attitudes and adjustments; subsequent studies have been concerned with testing hypotheses suggested by earlier studies.⁴²

It seems relevant to briefly review each of the major hypotheses discussed by those who have swelt upon the topic of foreign students, their attitudes toward the host culture and their adjustment within the host culture. These hypotheses are not restricted solely to "social" adjustment but encompass many of the elements of the adjustment process.

⁴⁰Francis O. Uboajah, "To Be Young, Foreign and Black," International Forum, V 1, N 2, October 1969, p. 1.

⁴¹Du Bois, p. 175.

⁴²Chang, p. 66.

The review of these hypotheses is entered here because they are generally pertinent to the area of social adjustment and of all the concerns of foreign students seem most appropriately placed in this segment.

Selltiz et. al. have argued that the greater the amount of association between two groups (foreign students and domestic students) the greater the chances are that there will be positive feelings and relations between them. Foreign students coming to the United States may have had only sparing or perhaps no contact with Americans before their arrival in this country. By the same token, host-culture students may only have the impressions left by the media to guide them in their attitudes toward foreign students. Given the circumstances of little or no previous association of a personal nature with the other group, attitudes and opinions may range considerably. But increased contact is most likely to create a condition through which foreign and American students may become genuinely familiar with each other and correspondingly develop understanding and friendly relations.⁴³

Another major hypothesis emphasizes the point that the manner in which Americans view a foreign student's homeland, as perceived by the foreign student, will be the most prevalent determiner of the foreign student's attitude toward the United States. Students come to America's colleges and universities from a wide variety of nations. Some of these nations are relatively industrialized, others are "developing"; some have far different traditions, some nations are politically favorable

⁴³Selltiz, p. 279.

to the United States, and some are not. Foreign students who value their home country and its cultural heritage and perceive the attitudes and opinions of Americans as also valuing that country are likely to, in turn, hold a favorable opinion of the United States. Conversely, a foreign student who feels that Americans have negative attitudes or a low regard for his homeland will be prone to have an unfavorable opinion of the United States.⁴⁴

"If you live in a country for three months, you love it; if you live in it for a year, you hate it; if you live in it for two years, you are used to it."⁴⁵ Using this quote from an unnamed "perceptive person," Du Bois introduces her hypothesis on the three stages of adjustment for a foreign student in the United States. The first stage a foreign student goes through in his academic career in America is termed the "spectator phase." In this phase, which lasts from the time of arrival until roughly the third month, the student holds very favorable attitudes and expectations about the United States and his sojourn here. These attitudes and expectations are grandiose and unrealistic. During the second or "adjustment phase" these idealistic attitudes are altered in confrontation with the social and academic forces in which the foreign student has now become immersed. This stage lasts through approximately the student's second year. After about two years in the American collegiate environment the foreign student begins a process of

⁴⁴Morris, p. 137.

⁴⁵Du Bois, p. 66.

getting used to it or "coming to terms." Certainly elements of the first two phases have contributed to this phase, but it is at this time that the foreign students' attitudes begin to solidify and he starts to reach some genuine stability within his environment.⁴⁶

The fourth major hypothesis is centered around the degree of frustration a foreign student experiences in a confusing problem-filled environment. A student coming from abroad to a campus and a community in the United States is faced with a set of serious concerns which are voluminous and yet quite diverse. He must somehow deal with being very far away from home and remembering the security factors related to his home situation, he is expected to do well--to prove himself and to gain prestige for his country. He may have troublesome language difficulties, a lack of reliable financial support and a labyrinth of social-cultural problems which tax his strength and adjustment capabilities to their limits. In the event that these problems are ultimately too burdensome, the foreign student will withdraw, become frustrated, depressed and unable to cope properly. If this happens, it will result in the foreign student's formation of a highly unfavorable opinion of the United States. The student's attitudes toward America may even approach hostility, thus making subsequent adaptation more and more difficult.⁴⁷

The last major hypothesis has been formulated around the concept

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 67.

⁴⁷A. K. Singh, Indian Students in Britain: A Survey of Their Adjustment and Attitudes (Bombay, London, New York: Asia Publishing House, 1963), p. 147.

of the authoritarian personality described by Adorno, et. al.⁴⁸

This hypothesis states that a foreign student who is highly authoritarian in his personality make-up will tend to have unfavorable attitudes toward the host culture. The authoritarian personality is characterized by a greater degree of ego-defensiveness, an egocentric outlook and, correspondingly, a rather egocentric view of cultures and nations. Because such an individual is believed to look upon his own culture as "the best," he naturally finds other cultures less favorable. Therefore a foreign student in America who exhibits the characteristics of authoritarianism will be more likely to form negative opinions of the United States.⁴⁹

There appears to be considerable support for the theory that greater contact with members of a different group leads to more favorable opinions of that group. Chang found that Chinese students whose association with Americans was greater formed more positive attitudes of Americans.⁵⁰ Newcomb, Hoffman and Deutsch and Collins also support this hypothesis.⁵¹ Less support has been found for the hypothesis that the host culture's opinion of the foreign student's country will be the primary determiner in that student's attitudes toward the host

⁴⁸J. W. Adorno, The Authoritarian Personality, (New York: Harper and Row, 1950), p. 96.

⁴⁹W. A. Scott, Psychological and Social Correlates of International Images, H. Kelman (ed.) in International Behavior: A Social Psychological Analysis (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965), p. 48.

⁵⁰Chang, p. 69.

⁵¹L. M. Newcomb, Social Psychology, (New York: Dryden, 1950); J. E. Hoffman and I. Zak, "Interpersonal Contact and Attitude Change in a Cross Cultural Situation," Journal of Social Psychology, V 78:16-71, 1969; K. W. Deutsch and M. E. Collins, Interracial Housing: A Psychological Evaluation of Social Environment, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1958).

country. The study done by Morris favors this hypothesis.⁵² On the other hand, Chang reports the relation between attributed national status and attitudes toward the United States are significant.⁵³ This finding is reported also by Barnes.⁵⁴ In relation to the three phase hypothesis, Chang found "some attitudinal difference between Chinese students in the second stage and those in the third stage, but the difference is not significant."⁵⁵ In the same study, little support was found for the hypothesis that foreign students' frustrations lead to negative attitudes toward the United States.⁵⁶ Some verification was established, however, for the hypothesis that authoritarianism is closely tied to foreign students' attitudes toward the host culture.⁵⁷

Academic Adjustment

Another entire array of concerns which will have significant bearing on the foreign students' personal circumstances and satisfactions lies within the complexities of the American education milieu. In certain respects, academic adjustment may be more important in the long

⁵²Morris, pp. 136-137.

⁵³Chang, p. 69.

⁵⁴Carol Barnes, "The Effect of National Status on Attitudes of Foreign Students at K. S. U.," (Unpublished Masters Thesis, Kent State University, 1970).

⁵⁵Chang, p. 73.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 72.

⁵⁷Ibid., p. 74.

run because it not only effects social adjustment but because, other factors notwithstanding, education is the original and lasting purpose of the foreign student's stay in the United States. A student from abroad may be content to remain socially isolated, may not be overly concerned with involving himself in events and activities with other students, and may have accepted the fact that he is far from home, but, if he is unable to adjust to the academic climate of his chosen American institution, his entire purpose for traveling thousands of miles and spending large sums of money may be defeated.

Without having even stepped into a classroom, a foreign student may incur difficulties with American colleges and universities. "The evaluation of foreign credentials is undoubtedly one of the most perplexing questions faced by American educational institutions." Standards of academic excellence may be quite different in other countries and the methods of evaluation and establishment of credentials are frequently at variance with standards of colleges in the United States.

This situation reflects widespread uncertainty among admissions officers about the value of credentials submitted to them and on the comparative standards of American and foreign educational systems. It also reflects the varying academic standards to which American educational institutions aspire.

Foreign governments and institutions are not always clear on what is expected and the efforts of the United States to communicate standards have been lacking.

Our (the United States) incapacity to evaluate credentials properly tends to heighten the natural insecurities felt by many foreign students on entering a new educational system.⁵⁸

⁵⁸Du Bois, p. 183.

A credentials evaluation service has been established by the National Liaison Committee on Foreign Students Admissions to aid colleges and universities in the United States in their examination of foreign students' records. Nevertheless, institutions of higher learning in this country still have difficulty in evaluating foreign students' academic backgrounds.⁵⁹

Once the foreign student has been accepted and has passed the threshold of the college or university, he then is confronted with a number of practices and standards which are unfamiliar and perplexing. Competing with American students in an educational structure in which the foreign student has, by comparison, had much less exposure places him at a disadvantage.

The high standards required for the maintenance of a satisfactory graduate school record must be attained in competition with American students on their home grounds. Objective tests may be new and puzzling to the foreign student, but he is usually left to figure out the riddles for himself.⁶⁰

The policies established in relation to foreign students at many of America's colleges and universities often hinder their academic performance either by failing to recognize their uniqueness or by not really providing a stabilized framework for dealing with their concerns.

The basic philosophy of some colleges and universities requires that foreign students conform to the norm set for native students--the underlying assumption being that the problems of foreign students are not different from those of American students.⁶¹

⁵⁹Chronicle of Higher Education, p. 8.

⁶⁰Blegen, et. al., p. 5.

⁶¹Cieslak, p. 91.

From the point of view of a foreign student advisor, Carpenter states "the role of a given foreign student advisor depends on a wide variety of local factors, and I regard the most important to be that of institutional policy--or the lack of it."⁶² He notes further that educational institutions should but seldom do "reflect considerable concern for the international aspects of education . . ."⁶³

One of the major difficulties foreign students must contend with in the American academic milieu is that of testing and evaluation of their performance. Many foreign students, especially those coming from a British educational system such as Nigerian and Indian students, are accustomed to essay type examinations and testing on an infrequent basis. This educational approach does not lend itself well to the multiple choice exams, frequent quizzes and more frequent grading periods of the American system.

Multiple choice examinations, especially those of the 'best answer' type, are probably the most difficult exam format for foreign students, as they have rarely had practice taking this kind of course examination before. Answering objective questions accurately presupposes good reading and vocabulary skills; since the questions are often worded quite differently from the material in textbooks, foreign students may flounder.⁶⁴

Moore reports also that the American educational system's emphasis on testing, grades and content many times does not take the worth of a foreign student's accomplishments elsewhere into proper account.⁶⁵

Many foreign students, particularly those from Asia and India,

⁶²Carpenter, p. 38.

⁶³Ibid.

⁶⁴Maxwell, p. 305.

⁶⁵Moore, p. 35.

become very dissatisfied with what often appears to them to be "the unwarranted arrogance and intellectual provincialism of certain representatives of the American educational system." That is, international students may be discriminated against by not being granted credit from course work taken in their homeland and that such a practice stems from an unreasonable and inflexible Western bias in American education.

The Indian student is provoked by the fact that the spirit which informs the classroom does not seem to be the world view, that unless the course is advertised with an Asian label it can be anticipated that its substantive emphasis and its illustrative referents will be exclusively Occidental. From the standpoint of the Indian student the failure of American professors to indicate that they are aware of the rudiments of Indian culture, history and contemporary problems is an affront.⁶⁶

Foreign students face an added pressure to the push for academic success that any student might feel in the expectations of their parents, sponsors and supporting agencies. If a foreign student fails or does not do as well as expected, he has not only fallen short of his own academic standards of excellence, he has also let his family and home culture down.⁶⁷

The ability to do library research is an important part of education and basic to a collegiate education, yet many foreign students have difficulty in this area. Hagey and Hagey found that 54 percent of their sample felt their capacity to locate library materials was either poor

⁶⁶Richard D. Lambert and Marion Bressler, Indian Students on an American Campus, (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1956), p. 44.

⁶⁷Man Keung Ho, "Cross Cultural Career Counseling," Vocational Guidance Quarterly, V 21, N 3, March 1973, p. 186.

or fair.⁶⁸ This problem involves the lack of adequate English language skills as well as a general lack of familiarity with the American university library. The problems related to the use and understanding of English for foreign students will be discussed later. For now, suffice it to say that foreign students seem to experience some problems in the mechanics of education in the United States which are not nearly so cumbersome to domestic students.

Customs and Cultural Variations

It is no secret that American tourists traveling in other countries have encountered elements of other people's life styles, beliefs and traditions which have seemed strange, restrictive, unexplainable, and even unpleasant. Conventional wisdom has, in these instances, led the tourist to adjust to these unique customs as well as he can and do as the Romans do, yet, that appears to be more easily said than done. The tourist has, after all, come to look, relax and experience--he may even enjoy having to spend a large part of his time in a given country doing little more than acclimating himself to cultural differences and understanding the way "the locals" do things. This is, in some respects, the same situation the foreign student encounters in American schools and communities. However, he does not have the same purposes in mind. The international student has come to the United States for an education and does not have all his time or energy to devote to understanding American customs. Therefore, the adjustment necessary to merely get along may be burdensome and distasteful.

⁶⁸Hagey and Hagey, p. 43.

Coping with the informality of Americans has been cited as one of the major difficulties foreign students face on campuses in this country. "The casual, informal relationship so common to us in the United States may be viewed by the international student as an intrusion into his private life and in insult to his character."⁶⁹

Sue and Kirk, working at the Berkeley campus of the University of California, state that

care must be taken in cultural interpretations of traits in terms of values. For example, to Westerners the term 'inhibited' is frequently seen as an undesirable trait while 'spontaneity' is desirable. Chinese culture may view the former characteristic as showing good control and maturity while interpreting the latter as indicating had manners.⁷⁰

Family relations and family ties are often the areas of the most telling differences between foreign and American students. Generally speaking, the American family structure is less formalized and gives family members a considerable amount of autonomy. Many foreign cultures including some of the European have much closer family structures and do not have our tendency for independence of members from the group.

To many foreign students the difference between family relations in the United States and in their home countries is striking. The great majority see both emotional ties and sense of obligation among family members as less strong in the United States than in their countries. There is considerable agreement that in the United States the wishes of the individual take precedence over family obligations, whereas the reverse is frequently said to be true in the home country.⁷¹

⁶⁹Cable, p. 41.

⁷⁰D. W. Sue and B. A. Kirk, "Psychological Characteristics of Chinese-American Students," Journal of Counseling Psychology, V 19, N 6, November 1972, p. 473.

⁷¹Selltiz, p. 263.

Some foreign students express disapproval of the American family system. Chang's research found that

about 60 per cent of the Chinese students had an unfavorable attitude toward the American family system. They believe that parental relations and parent-child relations among the Americans were superficial.⁷²

Sue and Kirk report that "at the outset of their college careers, Chinese-American students appear developmentally more dependent on and influenced by their families."⁷³

In discussing Middle Eastern students in the United States, Jarrah-Zadeh and Eichman remark that

Middle Eastern students face fantastic differences in culture, including, in most cases, profound differences in religion, philosophy and style of life. As a consequence, this group faces enormous problems . . .⁷⁴

They state further that changes of

social thought regarding the importance of emotional and psychological factors have been instrumental in aiding America's youth in accepting psychological models without resistance.⁷⁵

The social and cultural tendencies which lead to this acceptance are, they argue, closely tied with the forces which have stimulated industrialization, urbanization, universal education and affluence and are very much related to feelings in this country concerning the value of human life and happiness.

⁷²Chang, p. 68.

⁷³Sue and Kirk, p. 475.

⁷⁴Ali Jarrah-Zadeh and William J. Eichman, "The Impact of Socio-cultural Factors on Middle-Eastern Students in the United States," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 5, N 3, Winter 1970, p. 91.

⁷⁵Ibid., p. 89.

The cultures from which Middle Eastern students emerge share few of these attributes with us. In many of these nations, life for the majority is a constant struggle for existence and the social group is esteemed far more than the individual.⁷⁶

In the area of religion, many foreign students come to America from rather strong religious traditions and frequently find that their fellows from the United States do not adhere as closely to religion and its practice in their daily lives. However, as Selltiz et. al. note

many foreign students are surprised by the extent of religious observance in the United States, though some of the students question whether this observance is accompanied by genuine conviction.⁷⁷

Authoritarianism was discussed earlier in relation to the adjustment patterns of individual students, but it is also relevant to view authoritarianism as a more uniform cross-cultural phenomenon. In examining norms of authoritarianism between American and Turkish students, Kagitcibasi found that Turkish students tended to have greater respect for institutionalized authority but are less authoritarian in their personality make-up.⁷⁸ Given these differences, it does not seem unreasonable to assume then that Turkish students may encounter conflicts in a domestic institution where views on authority differ from their own both in the classroom and among their American contemporaries.

⁷⁶Ibid.

⁷⁷Selltiz, p. 263.

⁷⁸C. Kagitcibasi, "Social Norms and Authoritarianism: A Turkish-American Comparison," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, V 16, N 3, November 1970, p. 448.

Tomeh has provided a very thorough analysis of the forces of alienation (powerlessness, normlessness, meaninglessness, and social isolation) in relation to Middle Eastern and American students.⁷⁹ The study centered on the theme that Middle Eastern countries are in a period of transition because they are moving from an essentially tradition-bound society into a developmental stage where science, communication and higher education are increasing while social and geographical isolation are decreasing. At the same time, Middle Eastern students coming to the United States find themselves in a more stabilized society that has passed through this dynamic period. The findings of the study indicate that students from transitional societies tend to exhibit more feelings of alienation than students from a more stable society.⁸⁰

Students from an industrial society, report feeling that they are more in control of their own lives than do students from a transitional society. "Middle Eastern students were generally more alienated in terms of powerlessness than their counterparts in the United States, regardless of population characteristics."⁸¹ The indices of normlessness, meaninglessness and social isolation evidenced a similar pattern. The author explains these differences as being the result of the Middle Eastern view that risks, uncertainty, scientific exploration and the questioning of established systems are "leaps into the unknown" and are

⁷⁹Aida K. Tomeh, "Alienation: A Cross Cultural Analysis," Journal of Social Psychology, V 94, December 1974, pp. 187-200.

⁸⁰Ibid., p. 190.

⁸¹Ibid., p. 192.

consequently threats to "what has been laid down by sacred and secular authority."⁸² In conclusion the author states

alienation is likely to keep people locked in their traditional social patterns . . . (and) . . . the rigidity of the social structure, supported by the psychological barriers of alienation, do not change so rapidly.⁸³

Social isolation of foreign students as the result of separation from close family ties has been affirmed by Dixon.⁸⁴ Klein et. al. point out that social isolation as a consequence of confrontation with different customs and being unable to find satisfying relationships with Americans can result in severe problems for foreign students.⁸⁵

Expectations

International students usually have some idea or impression about the United States before they ever set foot in the country. Obviously, they would not choose to come here if they did not have some notion about our educational system and its possible benefits. Frequently these preconceived notions can create difficulties for the foreign student because what he finds is not at all what he expected or at least the reality of circumstances here do not match his expectations in significant areas.

⁸²Ibid., p. 198.

⁸³Ibid., p. 199.

⁸⁴Johnson, p. 66.

⁸⁵Marjorie H. Klein, et. al., "The Foreign Student Adaptation Program--Social Experiences of Asian Students in the United States," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 6, N 3, Winter 1971, p. 84.

The foreign visitor does not come to a foreign country with a blank--or perhaps even an open--mind. He brings with him a set of preconceptions, of expectations, built up through the years. If the country to which he comes is the United States, he has had many sources from which to build up impressions.⁸⁶

Some of the foreign students' impressions will be centered around the American image of the "land of the free" where complete equality exists for all and opportunity is abundant; where prejudices are unheard of and everyone is rich. On the other hand, their impressions of America may be those of big business, worker exploitation, suppression of minorities and a ruthless capitalist economic system. In either case, foreign students will find their ideas to be unrepresentative of actual conditions and they are likely to be faced into altering their previous views.⁸⁷

Olaoye, a Nigerian who studied counseling and guidance in the United States, has described the views of America in his home country and has remarked on the disparity between those views and what he has found to be true.

In this country, (Nigeria), as in many others of the Third World, the United States (the whole country!) is thought of as a land of limitless opportunities and a place where nobody could live in poverty. But my visit to some villages in Appalachia and in the poor districts of East Lansing, Michigan, and Chicago, Illinois,⁸⁸ showed me that poverty is not limited to developing countries.

⁸⁶Selltiz, p. 266.

⁸⁷Ibid., p. 267.

⁸⁸Ezekiel O. Olaoye, "Guidance U. S. A. -- Views from Abroad -- 'from Nigeria,'" Personnel and Guidance Journal, V 53, N 1, September 1974, p. 51.

Such great differences between grandious expectations and what actually exists in America can obviously cause confusion and disallusionment for the foreign student. As we shall see later, unrealistic pictures of what is available and of the opportunities in America create unfortunate situations for foreign students seeking summer employment in the United States.

Many foreign students look upon the United States as the great land of technology where the citizens are all skilled, capable and efficient.

. . . Americans are supposedly more gifted as skillful technicians and as adroit improvisers and organizers than they are as contributors to the truly creative intellectual achievements.⁸⁹

Though they may have many sources of information about the United States prior to their arrival here, foreign students do apparently labor under a number of misconceptions which make adjustment to life on an American campus more difficult than it would be otherwise. Foreign students do not understand how the American educational system works nor are they well informed about how their personal educational objectives "fit" into such a system. Many do not know what is in store for them even to a minimal degree. For whatever reason, there does not seem to be a conscious attempt to provide international students with advice about America and the structure of higher education here before they leave their home country.⁹⁰

⁸⁹Lambert and Bressler, p. 42.

⁹⁰Kamel Moghrabi, "Educating Foreigners in the United States," Improving College and University Teaching, V 22, N 4, Autumn 1974, p. 330.

Milk, discussing the high school student exchange program of the American Field Service, reports that many students come to the United States with impressions that are bound to cause some barriers to understanding--at least at the outset. She comments,

Despite their desire to arrive open minded, exchangees carry some stereotypes along with their suitcases. Many students really thought all Americans owned big, fancy houses and cars. A girl from Kenya told me, 'I thought all Americans were very rich and very friendly. I found out they were not all rich and they were not all friendly either.'"⁹¹

Chang has offered one possible explanation of why so many Chinese students arrive in America with misconceptions, despite the fact that they have spoken extensively to fellow countrymen who have visited the United States.

To those who return to their home country, the sojourn is itself a social capital, and to make slight of it would depreciate its value. The selective reporting and exaggeration of the rosy aspects of the sojourn here produced a misconception of the sojourn and intensified the adjustment difficulties among Chinese students in the United States.⁹²

Perhaps this explanation can be generalized to other foreign visitors who return to give their countrymen a poor overall impression of what the United States is actually like. If so, it is not hard to see how faulty preconceived notions start and how they might inhibit the adjustment processes of a foreign student who is committing a significant part of his life to a stay in America.

A final word on expectations; i.e., they do not only operate in one direction. Americans frequently hold views of foreign students and their home countries that are not accurate and which make adjustment

⁹¹Milk, p. 7.

⁹²Chang, p. 67.

a greater problem. Johnson emphasizes the remarks of one foreign student.

There should be something done about not treating the foreign students as habitants of 'Mars' or some weird place. . . . Americans should learn more about other countries so they won't encounter the embarrassment of saying, 'Where did you say you were from? Where is that?'"⁹³

Finances and Legalities

It is a rare American student in college today who is not to some degree concerned about how he will finance his education. Money may be available from his parents, but with rising collegiate costs and supplementary expenses climbing as well. Meeting the economic demands of higher education becomes progressively more difficult. If such circumstances are causes for concern for the American student, how much more of a problem exists for foreign students?

Whatever financial problems there are for students from abroad, they are further compounded by laws and regulations which limit a foreign student's chances of bettering his economic situation. The Chronicle of Higher Education states,

More than one college has reported having a foreign student show up with \$100--a princely sum in his own country--to get through an entire academic year. Foreign students also must have enough money to get through the summer, since the U. S. Immigration and Naturalization Service is usually reluctant to grant work permits.⁹⁴

Blegen et. al. have listed a number of reasons why foreign

⁹³Dixon C. Johnson, "Problems of Foreign Students," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 7, N 2, Fall 1971, p. 68.

⁹⁴Chronicle of Higher Education, p. 8.

students have, in the past and continue to experience financial shortages while attending college in the United States. Among these reasons are such circumstances as incomplete and misleading budget information in college and university catalogues, inflation of foreign currencies and of the dollar, family emergencies affecting the source of students' funds, and national emergencies.⁹⁵

The financial difficulties of international students are formidable and the types and quantities of support available are limited. If a foreign student comes to America with no support other than that of his family's, he is obviously very far from the source of revenue which may be subject to a variety of interferences and fluctuations. Certainly, if an emergency arises, the foreign student is at a marked disadvantage. Many foreign students come to the United States unsponsored by either the American government or their own government and whose only financial resources are those of their families or the university they are attending. This number may even be increasing.⁹⁶

The United States Government has been heavily criticized for not providing more financial help to foreign students. Winkler has pointed out that "some 38 percent of those here are totally self-supporting. A large part of the remainder receive only partial assistance, usually from colleges or foundations." For many of these students, the capacity to keep on supporting themselves is in jeopardy. The financial pinch has grown in recent years and is generally attributable to the rising cost

⁹⁵Blegen, et. al, p. 19.

⁹⁶Ho, p. 186.

of living. In any case, the special concerns of students from abroad tend to aggravate unpleasant financial conditions.⁹⁷

In relation to financial concerns and to other areas as well Moore has argued that the Federal Government has been lacking in genuine consideration of foreign students' problems. He comments,

U. S. federal agencies, their own governments, and U. S. institutions are more concerned with maintaining their rules and regulations than with examining the basic premises used to justify these rules or the need for changing them.⁹⁸

He argues further that educational costs in the United States are extremely high compared to what foreign students can pay, that many foreign students come from incomes at home which are barely at a par with or less than the American average. Institutions of higher education in this country, though they express commitment to international education, have actually done very little to keep costs for foreign students at a reasonable level.⁹⁹

At the same time that some assert that the government and institutions of higher education aren't doing enough to relieve the financial burdens and legal restrictions placed on foreign students, there is pressure to keep dwindling resources out of foreign students' hands. State legislators and other parties close to higher education in America argue that the limited money available for aiding students in their education should go to domestic students. Because foreign students

⁹⁷Karen J. Winkler, "Closing the Books on Foreign Students?" International Educational and Cultural Exchange, N 2-3, Winter 1974, p. 18.

⁹⁸Moore, p. 35.

⁹⁹Ibid.

are in the minority and because they are expected to be supported by their home governments, some Americans feel that money generated in the United States should not go toward helping these students while economic difficulties are evident for our own students.¹⁰⁰

Though some leniency has been shown in the past, economic circumstances are necessitating a tightening of policies governing summer employment of foreign students. The Department of Labor has brought pressure on colleges and universities to keep foreign students out of the job market. Immigration regulations have been established to keep international students from getting summer jobs in other but special circumstances because there is a fear that they will take jobs away from American students or that they will drop out of school to become permanently employed in America, thus diluting the job market. Some foreign students have, as a consequence, been forced to work illegally. Others have gone back to their home countries.¹⁰¹ For those who do stay, financial burdens are great and appear to be getting worse. Federal regulations, state governments and individual institutions could perhaps do more but are themselves in the unfortunate position of trying to maintain international education while feeling pressure to give available money to domestic students.

Language

While exploring the relevant features of a topic area such as foreign students' problems, one might expect to find it difficult to

¹⁰⁰Winkler, p. 18.

¹⁰¹Ibid., p. 19.

single out any one category of concerns as being the "most pervasive" or "the problem" in terms of frequency or its effect on other categories. However, just such a category of concerns does appear to exist and seems to permeate the entire spectrum of problems foreign students experience while seeking an education in America's colleges and universities. This category refers to the use of the English language by international students in speaking, listening, reading, writing, taking lecture notes and the communication skills necessary within an academic as well as a social setting.

In college level work, most professors seem to assume that all students who enter the classroom do so with a minimum of English language skill. This assumption does not seem unreasonable, but for the student whose formal English is barely at an adequate level and whose comprehension of colloquial American language is poor, the assumption that they are able to "put it all together" and gain a thorough understanding of the course content becomes suspect.

In large undergraduate courses, the foreign student faces the problem of trying to follow the points of a rapid-fire lecturer and, at the same time take notes on what is said. Professors who use academic jargon and idioms confuse the student who is trying to understand new technical terms and to learn to take notes in English.¹⁰²

Moghrabi administered the Nelson-Denny entrance examination to a sample of 190 foreign students. The results indicate that many foreign students are lacking in English language skills and that there was a strong correlation between a student's high school preparation in English and his English proficiency in college level work.

¹⁰²Maxwell, p. 302.

Over 88% had shown a vocabulary score below fifty, and 75% had a comprehension ability below the 30th percentile. About 40% had a reading speed of less than 100 words per minute.¹⁰³

He comments that the grade point average of foreign students who had received poor English preparation was shown to be lower than students who were better prepared. "Students who are linguistically poor often have emotional anxiety which disturbs not only the student but also those who are involved in his instruction."¹⁰⁴ When Hagey and Hagey asked foreign students what areas of their individual classroom work they felt they needed help in, 77 percent of their sample said that they would like special efforts on the part of professors in aiding them in the use of English. They conclude that,

emphasis is needed upon oral-aural skills to enable the student to become more involved in classroom activity, removing his dependence upon his reading as the only source of information.¹⁰⁵

Lack of facility with English can have profound effects on a foreign student's social-psychological adjustment to his American environment. Foreign students who come to the United States for a college education are frequently those who most excelled in scholarly endeavors at home and are accustomed to doing well academically. Finding that they are unable to compete as successfully or demonstrate their knowledge and ability adequately because of poor communication skills is frustrating. Many students may feel that they are looked upon as being

¹⁰³Moghrabi, p. 329.

¹⁰⁴Ibid.

¹⁰⁵Hagey and Hagey, p. 43.

less knowledgeable than they actually are because their verbal skill is not always sufficient to relate what they know in articulate or precise terms. Torrey et. al. refer to this phenomenon as "culture shift" which they explain as the "loss of prestige and change from high status in their home countries to low status in the United States" in part due to "difficulties in communication involving both language proper and paralinguistic processes."¹⁰⁶ In colleges and universities in the United States the international student often

finds himself in what may seem to be an unfriendly sea of competitors, most of whom are familiar with the American educational system and take for granted the many colloquial expressions and not-easily-understood American allusions that creep into the daily lectures.¹⁰⁷

Selltiz et. al. note that some foreign students are more worried about their reading ability and getting assignments done properly and on time. Other students appear to have greater difficulties when it comes to spoken English. One foreign student is reported as saying

'The most difficult thing--my spoken English is very poor. Sometimes I'm afraid the professor or assistant cannot understand me about my studies and I'm afraid they suspect my knowledge is poor.'

The authors remark that approximately a third of their sample reported that talking to Americans was a source of difficulty.¹⁰⁸

In order to help meet the need for examining foreign students' English proficiency prior to their actually coming to the United States,

¹⁰⁶Torrey, et. al., p. 85.

¹⁰⁷Blegen, et. al., p. 5.

¹⁰⁸Selltiz, p. 125.

the Test of English as a Foreign Language [TOEFL] was instituted in 1964. A year later, the National Council on the TOEFL, which had existed since 1961, along with the aid of the Ford Foundation, the College Entrance Examination Board and the Educational Testing Service began a world wide program for testing the English language skills of international students. In the academic year 1971-72, 64,243 foreign students took the TOEFL. There are four administrations of the test given internationally each year at approximately 1600 centers. The items that appear on the TOEFL are well researched and a different form of the test is given at each international administration. It is hoped that, by using the TOEFL, the foreign students who come to the United States will have more uniform proven ability in English language skills.¹⁰⁹

Despite the administration of the TOEFL, there are apparently problems that persist for foreign students in the use of English on American campuses. A foreign student's capabilities in the use of formal English may be nearly flawless yet he may experience problems in communication with Americans. Dr. Alfred J. Kraemer of Vanderbilt University in discussing "Cultural Self-Awareness and Communication" points out that what an individual assumes about his words and the person to whom he is speaking can make tremendous differences in whether or not he is understood.

It is virtually impossible for anyone to communicate with other people without making assumptions about them. We may make these assumptions knowingly or, more commonly, without being aware of making them. Ease of communication is determined, in part, by the extent to which such assumptions are

¹⁰⁹Sanford C. Jameson and Donald J. Malcolm, "TOEFL--The Developing Years," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 8, N 3, Winter 1972-73, pp. 57-62.

correct. When false assumptions interfere with communication, we may recognize that this is happening. We may sometimes discover later that it has occurred. Frequently, we never become aware of it.¹¹⁰

Often our communications with people from other cultures are heavily influenced by our own cultural conditioning and the assumptions we make based on our own feelings about a situation. These assumptions can

manifest themselves as 'projected cognitive similarity'-- that is; when we implicitly assume that the other person's ideas and thought processes are similar to what ours would be if we were in their place.¹¹¹

Such assumptions can and do cause breakdowns or misinterpretations in communication even when both participants in the communication have excellent command of the language. The important feature is: does the same word or phrase mean the same thing to both participants? If it does not, then they are likely to misunderstand one another. Non-Americans who speak English with supreme articulation frequently do not intend the same meaning as an American would place on the words the foreigner has used. By the same token, Americans tend to make statements which incorporate their own values--values which may not be shared by a foreign listener.¹¹² Thus, it seems reasonable to infer that foreign students might experience considerable difficulty in understanding and interpreting the meanings of Americans even though they have a good command of the English language. }

¹¹⁰Alfred J. Kraemer, "Cultural Self-Awareness and Communication," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 10, N 3, Winter 1973, p. 13.

¹¹¹Ibid.

¹¹²Ibid., p. 14.

SUMMARY

In the forgoing analysis, we have looked at the major areas in which foreign students seem to experience the greatest adjustment difficulty during their sojourns in the United States. We have seen that foreign students do encounter an array of problems which are unique to them and which will tend to create upheavals in their lives that inhibit or interfere with their behavior patterns and academic concentration.

International students on American campuses often have problems in becoming socially adjusted. They sometimes find that Americans treat them as somewhat of an oddity and over-attend to their "foreignness" while failing to show real interest in the foreign student as a person. Some foreign students complain that Americans are superficial and that genuine friendships are difficult to establish. The subtle cues and nuances of domestic dating and social interaction are confusing and frustrating to students from other countries. On occasion foreign students whose own values run counter to American patterns of social interaction are pushed into awkward social situations which tend to amplify and compound their problems.

The institutional apparatus and policies of colleges and universities in the United States can cause a foreign student many problems in academic adjustment. Examination and grading procedures are frequently very strange to international students. Trying to "keep up" in a system which is not always sensitive to their needs makes the scholarly pursuits of foreign students doubly hard. The distinct Western reference in the

American classroom is often a source of annoyance to students from a traditionally Eastern exposure.

Being very far away from home in a land where traditional beliefs, customs and culturally engrained attitudes are quite different, the foreign student may feel estranged and isolated. The emphasis on independence in the American family structure often appears to the foreign student as a lack of cohesion in our affiliations and a lack of respect for age and authority. Differences in philosophy, religion and life style cause foreign students to feel out of place in America and may create alienation toward the United States and its people.

The expectations foreign students have of America make their adjustment concerns even more pronounced. The United States is often seen by students from abroad as a land of plenty where everyone is rich and friendly and where opportunity abounds for all. Such unrealistic views can have detrimental effects on foreign students when they are confronted with the sometimes harsh realities of life in America.

Many foreign students have difficulty in financing their education in the United States. Financial aids, grants and loans are sometimes very hard to come by for the foreign student and the support they receive from home may be insufficient from the start or can be decreased or cut off as the result of currency valuations, personal tragedy or national catastrophe. The United States Government has been criticized for not doing more to aid foreign students financially, yet there remains pressure to place dwindling funds in the hands of domestic students. Immigration laws severely restrict the summer employment of foreign students which adds to their difficulty in finding money to continue the education in the United States.

The use and comprehension of the English language is perhaps the most prevalent problem experienced by foreign students. Understanding colloquial expressions, slang, and technical jargon presents formidable obstacles to the international student both in and out of the classroom. Many foreign students are forced to rely on written material in their studies because they find their comprehension of lecturers who move too rapidly and their ability to take notes in English less than adequate. The Test of English as a Foreign Language has helped to alleviate this problem to some degree but many foreign students still express concern over their capacities in the use of English. Even the student who has good language skills may encounter difficulty because of assumed perceptions about words and phrases that may not be appropriate for both speaker and listener.

One must keep in mind that the six major categories of foreign students' problems presented here are not mutually exclusive. Problems in one area relate to and compound problems in other areas. It is impossible, for example, to separate the language difficulties a foreign student experiences from problems of social adjustment concerning communication and interaction with American acquaintances. That is, if an American student tells a foreign student that he is "really a cool dude" without any other explanation of his feelings, the foreign student may never realize the positive sentiments of the American student for him.

While the six areas of problems discussed are not mutually exclusive, they are not totally exhaustive. There may be and probably are some problems which foreign students face that would fall outside the general categories examined here. However, it seems obvious that

the above mentioned problem areas are those which are most significant in creating social-psychological stress for the foreign student on an American campus. It is this social-psychological stress and the accompanying mental and emotional maladjustments of the foreign student which this writing will now emphasize as it turnw to an examination of campus services designed to meet the needs of international students.

CHAPTER III

THE NEED FOR GREATER COUNSELOR PREPARATION

Foreign students come to American campuses with great hopes and expectations as well as a sense of preparedness in facing exciting new challenges. Frequently, however, the challenges they face are not the same ones they expected. Social and academic difficulties, lack of sufficient funds, bewildering cultural differences and inadequate language skills deter the foreign students' smooth entrance into and life within their respective campus community and the society in general.

Putting all of the problem areas together and studying their effects on the mental health of foreign students, one might conclude that students from abroad are more likely to become emotionally upset, depressed, unhappy and show signs of psychological disturbance than their American counterparts. Such a conclusion would be quite accurate. Nickelly et. al. report that a greater number of foreign students required psychiatric attention during a three year study than did American students in the same period. They remark that the major reasons for the emotional disturbances were the nature of the host culture, the academic pace and the distance away from home.¹¹³

¹¹³A. Nickelly, M. Sugita and J. Otis, "Adjustment and Mental Health Attitudes in Foreign Students," Mental Hygiene, N 48, 1964, p. 464.

Similar findings have been reported by Jarrah-Zadeh and Eichman who note that the bulk of the confusion and resultant emotional disturbance foreign students experience stems from the conflicting and contradictory stimuli they receive.

On the one hand, the Government and foundations encourage them to come to the United States for study. On the other hand, many university officials and even many students are disinterested or hostile. This evitably creates confusion . . . and . . . When the confusion, conflict, and/or isolation becomes too great, we can expect the foreign student to show stress reactions and perhaps, definitive emotional illness.¹¹⁴

Their findings demonstrate that many foreign students will ultimately experience "less than desirable adjustment" while a small minority will have emotional breakdown. "This small minority, however, will probably equal or exceed the number of American students who experience similar distress."¹¹⁵

Further evidence of severe emotional illness developing in foreign students as a result of the tremendous pressures they encounter here comes from Zurin who found psychotic reactions to occur in the case studies of eight foreign students.¹¹⁶

It would appear that the problems of foreign students are not merely a set of minor concerns--a sort of obstacle course--which each student must pass through but which all who encounter such concerns will

¹¹⁴Jarrah-Zadeh and Eichman, p. 92.

¹¹⁵Ibid., p. 93.

¹¹⁶L. M. Zurin and E. T. Rulin, "Paranoid Psychotic Reactions in Foreign Students From Non-Western Countries," Journal of the American College Health Association, V 15, 1967, p. 223.

successfully reach a point of reasonable adjustment. Some foreign students find their unique circumstance overly taxing and are unable to adjust effectively to the point of developing severe emotional disturbances. Many others develop lesser but still serious psychological upsets which would require at least minimal treatment.

Current Conditions

Recognizing that foreign students face a myriad of problems which may result in a variety of adjustment patterns ranging from mild confusion and frustration to severe psychological disturbance, one is prompted to ask: What is currently being done on American campuses to handle the concerns of international students?

When viewing foreign student affairs and the apparatus established to handle foreign students' problems on most campuses, one individual stands out above all others in terms of designated responsibility. That individual is the foreign student advisor. Generally speaking, campuses with a hundred or more foreign students will have a full-time student advisor. Some very large campuses with a great number of foreign students present may have a correspondingly large number of foreign student advisors. Regardless of the size of the campus or the number of foreign students attending there, by far the greatest portion of burden for "solving" foreign students' problems is placed on an advisor who usually becomes overloaded with responsibility. As Du Bois points out

The complicated minutiae that beset foreign student affairs are often eagerly placed on the shoulders of such an officer (foreign student advisor), who is generally a member of the administrative staff rather than of the faculty. This, too, has its drawbacks. A foreign student advisor in this context may be able to provide the needed advice but he can scarcely

be expected to discharge competently the individual academic and personal counseling that may be required.¹¹⁷

Foreign student advisors are expected to fill as many roles as the foreign student may have problems. They are either given the responsibility or take it upon themselves by virtue of being the most logical person to whom foreign students direct questions for an entire realm of concerns which they may or may not be equipped to handle. Foreign student advisors may be saddled with the role of teacher, admissions officer, counselor, residence hall manager, coordinator of student activities, community liaison and provider of an "American experience."¹¹⁸ They may also be expected to or feel responsibility for the internationalization of individual college campuses. That is, the furthering of interaction between domestic and foreign students so that both will come to know the other and to understand themselves better.¹¹⁹

Clearly, no individual or group of persons holding a rather specialized office like that of foreign student advisor can be expected to be competent in all of these tasks. Even if their knowledge, skill and training were sufficiently extensive--the limitations of time and energy would prohibit efficient execution of each of these requirements.

Certainly, foreign student advisors are not the only collegiate personnel who are concerned with the problems of foreign students. Admissions and financial aids officers frequently become involved in trying to help foreign students solve the problems that arise in these areas. Academic advisors and counselors may also become involved in expediting a foreign student's career or his social-personal adjustment

¹¹⁷Du Bois, p. 172.

¹¹⁸Carpenter, p. 39.

¹¹⁹Johnson, "Comparative Stereotypes," p. 24.

to life in the United States. Sometimes the efforts put forth by counselors and student personnel workers have been noble. However, in many cases such efforts have been poorly directed or insufficient attention has been given to the uniqueness of foreign students, resulting in a lack of sensitivity to the difficulties faced by this group. In discussing foreign student career counseling, De Antoni notes that the basic weakness in the efforts to handle foreign students' problems has been

due to the fact that interest and concern waxed gloriously in some years, and waned just as precipitously in others. Constant and persistent efforts were never given to the matter.¹²⁰

Perhaps it is because student personnel workers and counselors are a product of the domestic host culture or because they have, over-all, greater contact with American students by virtue of sheer numbers, whatever the reasons, domestic counselors appear to be somewhat limited in their cultural sensitivity to culturally different groups. Vontress, in examining the cultural barriers between middle class counselors and "disadvantaged" counselors remarks:

Perhaps the greatest blockage in the relationship is the counselor's lack of understanding of the sociopsychological background of the client . . . The counselor, having grown up in, or having assimilated so completely the values of the middle class environment, is deprived of an understanding of those whom he would in some way assist. Admittedly, some counselors are more deprived than others, and perhaps the most deprived are those who do not realize they are deprived.¹²¹

¹²⁰Edward De Antoni, "Foreign Student Career Counseling: A Personal View," International Educational and Cultural Exchange, V 7, N 3, Winter 1972, p. 93.

¹²¹Clemmont E. Vontress, "Cultural Barriers in the Counseling Relationship," Personnel and Guidance Journal, V 48, September 1969, p. 13.

Foreign counselors and educators have noted the rather limited perspectives American counselors have, not only of foreign students' concerns, but of the cross cultural studies and of the nature of counseling elsewhere in the world. Avner Ziv, the Director of the Counseling Program at Tel Aviv University in Israel asks, "Is it because America is self-sufficient in every area that American counselors believe they can find all the answers--and even all the questions?" He comments further that he was astonished to learn that Americans seem to know so little about studies done in their own fields in other countries.¹²²

Adding to the difficulties of providing foreign students with adequate services is the fact that many international students do not take full advantage of the services available to them. Of 265 foreign students who responded to the questionnaire of Hagey and Hagey, only 59 percent reported having received any kind of academic advisement after they enrolled and only 29 percent had discussed social or personal concerns with a counselor or other staff member.¹²³ Sue argues that many "third world" students are suspicious of white, domestic counseling services and comments that these students tend to feel that their problems will not be well understood by persons who have a predominantly middle class view.¹²⁴ Such attitudes seem to be applicable to some

¹²²Avner Ziv, "Guidance U. S. A.--Views From Abroad, 'from Israel,'" Personnel and Guidance Journal, V 53, N 1, September 1974, p. 56.

¹²³Hagey and Hagey, p. 44.

¹²⁴Stanley Sue, "Training of 'Third World' Students to Function as Counselors," Journal of Counseling Psychology, V 20, N 1, 1973, p. 73.

extent to foreign students' views of American counselors.

Despite the many and varied obstacles that are evident in attempting to provide the services necessary to deal effectively with the problems of students from other cultures, many colleges and universities have made serious efforts to better accommodate international students. Some of these efforts have been reasonably successful--some have been grossly inadequate. At the same time, other institutions--usually small, liberal arts colleges--have sought to recruit foreign students while making little or no provision for their special concerns. "Experienced foreign student advisors on the campuses agree that the worst problem is colleges recruiting foreign students without being equipped to handle them."¹²⁵ Moghrabi writing on the academic and supportive services that American institutions might provide foreign students concludes:

Although American universities are trying to improve their services to foreign students, there is much more to be done in the areas of curriculum, teachers' attitudes, counseling, and admission before they can adequately serve and train foreign citizens of the world.¹²⁶

Apparently then, the current conditions relating to the counseling and student personnel services available to foreign students are not all that they might be and there is room for improvement.

The Need for Greater Awareness

The problems of foreign students relate to the entire institutional framework of American colleges and universities. Such a broad

¹²⁵Chronicle of Higher Education, p. 8.

¹²⁶Moghrabi, p. 334.

consideration is valid since any suggestions on improving the programs and services concerned with enhancing the foreign students' circumstances within any part of the institution will carry over in certain respects to the betterment of the total institution.

It is assumed that, in many instances, those currently enrolled in counselor education programs may eventually take positions in other areas of student personnel work. It is further assumed that present or future counselors and student personnel workers in other areas will be able to reap equally whatever benefit there may be from the suggestions to be made here. Nevertheless, for convenience sake, the term "counselor" or "counseling trainee" will be used hereafter to refer to the recipients of present efforts. When relevant points seem more pertinent to other areas of student services, they will be specifically labeled in context.

Counselors and counseling trainees, unless they have traveled extensively abroad or have become personally familiar with a number of foreign students, cannot be expected to know a great deal about the abundant problems foreign students confront daily while attending college in the United States. Perhaps it is presumptuous to expect institutions to make special efforts to prepare their counselors in dealing with the emotional upsets foreign students experience. This would not seem to be the case however.

Increasingly, college and health authorities note unhappiness or emotional disturbance among students from different cultures. As the host nation we have the responsibility of understanding the nature of the problem and of developing remedial measures whenever possible.¹²⁷

¹²⁷Jarrah-Zadeh and Eichman, p. 82.

The tremendous range of pressures and stresses which are likely to effect foreign students should lead to a similarly wide range of methods to cope with the problems involved.¹²⁸ Whether we as the host culture should or should not impose our values on foreign students or attempt to acculturate them to the American style of life and education is rather debatable. But, if students from abroad have come to the United States to observe or participate in the institution and the culture, then it would be a discriminating practice to not provide for them the same facilities and considerations we provide for our own students.¹²⁹ Among other services, colleges and universities must make adequate arrangements for the counseling and testing of their growing populations of international students.¹³⁰

While there is obviously ample sentiment and sound reasoning upon which to assert that colleges and universities need to provide adequate services to meet the needs of foreign students, there remain some questions. Many foreign students do not take full advantage of the services available to them. Why then should special efforts be made to accommodate a group of students who do not want or will not use such services? Apparently, there are some very good reasons why special efforts are in order. Hagey and Hagey, who cited that only relatively small percentages of foreign students had actually received academic advice or personal counseling also note that

¹²⁸Klein, et. al, p. 77.

¹²⁹Du Bois, p. 168.

¹³⁰Moghrabi, p. 334.

Though one might initially assume that students do not feel the need for an orientation program, more than 79% preferred some help. Those who had experienced any kind of program, . . . significantly favored this kind of help. This is certainly suggestive of the value of such programs to the students.¹³¹

It perhaps also suggests that students are able to best evaluate a program when they have had some exposure to it. Therefore, we may be able to infer that the reasons why more foreign students do not utilize advisement and counseling services to a greater degree have more to do with their exposure to and awareness of those services than with a lack of need or negative attitudes toward them. Perhaps foreign students do not make greater use of counseling services because they are not well appraised about American counseling in general or know very little about the counseling service arrangements at their respective institutions.

In a different study than the one cited above, Hagey and Hagey have discussed the international student in the junior college. Their conclusions indicate that the problems foreign students face are not significantly different in two-year institutions compared to four-year institutions. They also note that foreign students report an infrequency of continuing academic advice and often expressed the desire for more help in orientation.¹³² These findings also seem to support the notion that foreign students want whatever help is available and tend to

¹³¹Hagey and Hagey, p. 43.

¹³²A. R. Hagey and Joan Hagey, "The International Student and the Junior College: Academic and Social Needs," Journal of College Student Personnel, V 13, N 2, March 1972, p. 144.

support also the inference that familiarity with services may lead to their greater usage.

Assuming an institutional commitment, or for that matter, an individual commitment to do more to improve the counseling services available to foreign students, what then should our course of action be to effect that enhancement? Placing increased responsibility on the foreign student advisor does not seem tenable since, as we have already seen, this staff member is often overloaded. Restructuring the operational aspects of the counseling services might be helpful, but indications are that we need not go to such extreme lengths to accomplish the goal of better counseling of foreign students. The best alternative seems to be to put greater effort forth to develop counselors' awareness of cross-cultural phenomena and the problems of foreign students in American higher education.

While he (the counselor) cannot be expected to become a universal expert on the cultures of the world, more detailed familiarity with selected nationalities should not only equip him to deal more effectively with their distinctive problems, it should also increase his sensitivity more generally to the implications of cultural differences among his charges.¹³³

. . . The counselor (should) have some grasp of the concepts of cultural relativism and of the relationship between personality and culture. This would also serve to place in perspective his knowledge of the principles and techniques of counseling that are derived from the American social setting.¹³⁴

Counselors in service and counselor education students from the host culture, having little previous exposure to the concerns of foreign students need to become more personally conscious of cultural

¹³³Lambert and Bressler, p. 4.

¹³⁴Du Bois, p. 175.

differences and their effects on students from abroad.

Little can be done for students except through personalized experience, and the personal relationship is a most important factor in effective counseling. Counselors of foreign students can do their best only when they have learned relevant facts about foreign students and their backgrounds.¹³⁵

Such knowledge and personalized experience would certainly seem to be very important to social-personal counseling since closeness and understanding are so much a part of discussing intimate emotional concerns. That does not exclude, of course, the need for comprehending cultural differences in vocational-career counseling.

Foreign student vocational needs and career goals cannot be adequately assessed without considering the frame of reference provided by his culture . . . A counselor who is cognizant of the cultural background of the foreign student should be able to do a better job of involving him in an assessment of his strengths and limitations in pursuit of a specific job and career objective.¹³⁶

Understanding the problems international students face and developing an awareness of cultural differences as they relate to the foreign student's condition on American campuses is a starting point, but "cultural" awareness does not stop there. Through his exposure to foreign students and their unique concerns, the counselor should also develop a sense for the cultural bias that may exist in his own attitudes and which might be reflected in his counseling.

Basically, a counselor needs to be aware that the formal training in counseling is culturally biased--what he has learned may not be applicable to the foreign student sitting in front of him.¹³⁷

¹³⁵Blegen, et. al., p. 6.

¹³⁶Ho, p. 188.

¹³⁷Ibid., p. 189.

Klein et. al. have stated the problem of cultural bias in relation to foreign student counseling quite thoroughly:

Most students are polite and feel implicitly obliged to voice positive attitudes toward the United States and to demonstrate friendly social contacts with Americans. For pragmatic reasons they want to show sponsors and professors that they have reaped what they know are the expected benefits. On a personal level they prefer to believe that experiences have been good in order to mask any pain or stress. And it is painful and difficult for anyone from any culture to share personal negative thoughts and feelings with strangers. This difficulty is compounded further by our own readiness to believe positive things about ourselves. Even when one is actively aware of this problem as a potential source of bias, it is especially difficult to overcome in interview situations where cultural differences make interactions somewhat awkward and difficult. It is far easier to accept the first wave of praise or denials of difficulty as 'the answer' than it is to continue to probe awkwardly and painfully. But our experience has shown us time and again that extensive probing and contact reveal negative attitudes and painful experiences we would never know of had we not persisted.¹³⁸

The effect of cultural bias as it related to counselors and to the counseling situation cannot be emphasized too strongly. It is important that counselors in training obtain an exposure, not only to the problems of foreign students, but also to the elements of their own prejudice. In a profession where one's own perceptual abilities are so extremely important in understanding the counselee and his particular concerns, it would seem unreasonable to expect a practitioner who does not perceive the client's frame of reference nor his own cultural biases to function effectively.

Callao, a counselor of Filipino-American heritage, commenting on second generation Asian-Americans and the counselor's role writes:

¹³⁸Klein, et. al., pp. 81-82.

The question 'Who am I' is especially difficult for the assimilated and acculturated Asian-American who may not be sure to what culture or subculture he belongs. Quite often, counselors who are oriented toward the dominant culture and its concerns are themselves culturally disadvantaged. Culture shock can and does occur to counselors who are unaware of important subcultural concerns. In many cases too much time is spent on the study of the latest techniques and research methods while one of the most essential ingredients of the counseling process--people and their life styles--is forgotten.¹³⁹

There are numerous benefits to be gained from a counselor's exposure to cross-cultural variations and the related manifest problems, particularly for the client, but also for the institution and the counselor himself. In relation to the foreign student's emotional upset or vocational quandry, greater counselor awareness of the student's cultural background and its relation to his life in the United States can only serve to expedite the counseling relationship which should in turn help the counselor help the client. For the institution, it will gain better counseling services, including other student personnel services and hopefully a happier, more well-adjusted foreign student body. For the counselor, he will be better prepared and more effective in dealing with the concerns of those foreign students he counsels and he may be a better counselor over-all. Kraemer, discussing the possible benefits of understanding one's own biases remarks:

At the very least, an increase in cultural self-awareness should make it easier for people to suspend judgement when they are confronted, in an intercultural encounter, by

¹³⁹Maximo J. Callao, "Culture Shock--West, East, and West Again," Personnel and Guidance Journal, V 51, N 6, February 1973, p. 416.

behavior that appears odd. It should make them more ready to suspect that the appearance of oddness may be caused by the cultural influences in their own thinking.¹⁴⁰

Being cognizant of current conditions and apparent needs does not, in itself, constitute a solution to a problem. Solutions, or at least, efforts put forth toward the realization of a solution, must have their foundation in a reasonably thorough grasp of the problem. More importantly, they must have a well-planned and well-executed action component.

¹⁴⁰Kraemer, p. 14.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY OF LEARNING ACTIVITY: AVENUES FOR DEVELOPING AWARENESS

The answer to the handling of abundant foreign student concerns lies neither in placing greater work loads on the already overloaded foreign student advisor nor in restructuring the operational framework of college and university student services. Rather, the best answer seems to be in developing greater counselor awareness of the unique pressures and adjustment difficulties of international students, of cultural variance and of biases that may limit cultural perceptions. But the phrase "greater counselor awareness," though it has a pleasant ring to it, only states the "what" of what needs to be done in relatively general terms. It does not say specifically what needs to be done and it certainly does not answer the most important question--how?

Counselors in the field and counseling trainees may be exposed to a wide variety of informational sources on special problems in counseling or on how they may adopt new approaches in order to be more effective counselors. Lectures, workshops and numerous publications all serve to provide the counselor and prospective counselor with better tools and greater knowledge of his discipline. However, despite the wealth of knowledge available through each of these sources or the quality of their presentation, they all have the disadvantage of being

somewhat hit or miss. A lecture or a workshop may come to one's campus affording ready access to its message, but then again it may not be presented any closer than in the nearest major city which might be a considerable distance away. Also, lectures and workshops may not be ongoing propositions. If one is unable to attend at the time of presentation, there may be a long wait for the next one, if in fact there is a next one. In-service counselors and graduate counseling students simply may not be able to "get away" to attend the presentation. Also, workshops frequently have the drawback of being rather expensive. Scholarly publications are an excellent source of information, but with the plethora of journal articles available it is impossible to cover them all.

The practitioner then can only hope to read a fraction of the articles published in his field and is forced to center his attention on particular topic areas, if he is to derive more than a superficial understanding of that area. Without some stimulus to call his attention to an area, a counselor may have only negligible exposure to it. Therefore, each of these sources of information is in some respect inappropriate in an endeavor to provide all or most counselors and counseling students with a knowledge of foreign students' problems and an awareness of cultural bias.

A more appropriate avenue for educating counselors to be sensitive to the realm of cultural variance would be something placed within counselor education coursework. If, in the pursuance of a counseling degree, a trainee were exposed to information and learning activities related to international students and cultural differences, then we might be assured that he would go into the field with preparation along

these lines. If that information and those activities were an established fact of the curriculum for counseling students in all graduate schools, then we would know that the profession was better prepared to deal with foreign students' problems. This approach seems to blend with the suggestions of Vontress who states:

Unique in-service and pre-service training should be provided if cultural barriers are to be bridged. In-service training should allow counselors an opportunity to look at themselves and analyze their attitudes, feelings and perceptions of people who are different. . . it also seems tenable to suggest that counselor education programs be examined for relevance. Indeed, counselors in training must have an undergirding in the behavioral sciences, but what is perhaps far more important, they must be provided with experiences in coming to grips with themselves, in exploring their feelings about and perceptions of the culturally different.¹⁴¹

Some type of regular coursework on foreign students' problems and cultural differences would seem to be the most efficient and uniform method for insuring that counselors going into the field would have a background commensurate with counseling foreign students. The question immediately arises, however, with the myriad of concerns facing counselor education and the volume of information and skills counseling students must absorb--how much time can graduate schools afford to spend on such a specialized problem area, regardless of its significance? Also, in-service counselors have already taken their coursework in counseling. Should they be required to devote an entire quarter or semester to developing an understanding of foreign students' concerns? Do they need to take that much time? It does not seem feasible or necessary to ask graduate schools to institute an entire new course to

¹⁴¹Vontress, p. 16.

educate counselors and counselor trainees to international students and the cultural differences pertinent to counseling. There is no doubt enough subject matter on foreign students and the area of cultural variance, particularly if one is talking about understanding and communication across cultural barriers, to fill an entire course. But we cannot hope to teach counselors everything there is to know about other cultures, their customs, sanctions and mores or all the difficulties that might arise in communication between domestic counselor and foreign counselee any more than we can hope to teach all the facts of all the different counseling theories. A more expeditious approach would be to institute a unit within an already established course on problem areas in counseling.

In a curricular offering on the problems that arise in the counseling relationship, the framework for the discussion of foreign students' problems is already established. The financial expenditure for materials and salary has already been made and few if any new expenditures would be required. Such a unit could provide considerable exposure to an important problem area while requiring no greater commitment of time and energy than would ordinarily go along with other graduate level work. While a unit on foreign students would not be "painless" or would not take time away from some other area, it would not necessitate rigors of learning any more taxing than other counselor education learning activities. It is a problem area of sufficiently significant import to make the shifting of other content matter to accommodate this new unit a near necessity for a counselor education program concerned with the full preparation of its trainees. In short, a unit on foreign

students' problems and cultural differences could yield formidable results for counselor education while placing no extravagant pressures nor requiring vast changes in the existing program. Thus a unit plan designed to provide counselors with learning activities in the area of cultural variance, cultural bias and the problems of international students forms the answer to the specific "what" question mentioned above.

What Is A Unit Plan?

The unit plan as it is used throughout education may have different forms of statement or different intended results, but the general structure of a unit seems to have a reasonably consistent set of components through which learning is assumed to flow. Del Popolo, in discussing the essential foundations of the unit notes that it derives from both a philosophical and a psychological basis.

Philosophically, the unit is concerned with the relationship between educational goals and the procedures employed to achieve the goals. Some will deal with the content or subject matter of the program while others will pertain to the development of attitudes, skills, and appreciations . . . Psychologically, the unit is concerned with knowledge of the learning process and the nature of the subject matter to be presented. When preparing a unit, considerable attention must be paid to restructuring the subject matter to fit the needs of a particular group of learners.¹⁴²

Therefore a unit may be seen as having several functions including the relating of goals to methods in education, placing information within a clear, understandable framework and operating with sensitivity to both the affective and objective elements of learning. In this way

¹⁴²Joseph A. Del Popolo, "A Re-Definition of the Unit," Peabody Journal of Education, V 43, N 5, March 1966, p. 281.

a unit encompasses the content and the process of teaching/learning activity. "The essential quality one strives for is wholeness."¹⁴³

"Wholeness" means the drawing together of component parts into an integrated effort to present material relevant to a particular topic area. A unit, like most other plans or systems must have organization, if it is to meet the implicit goal of "learning." Generally speaking, a unit will be divided into several segments--each of which has a direct relation to other segments and hopefully adds the overall effectiveness of the unit. With some variation, most units will contain the following segments.

1. A title. A short descriptive statement about the main purpose of the unit.
2. A statement of possible objectives. Goals to be achieved in the course of the unit.
3. A statement of possible content. A statement of the subject matter, problems, and issues to be covered.
4. A statement of possible activities. Suggested instructional procedures and learning experiences.
5. A statement of possible learning materials. Instructional media such as books, films, magazines and audio-visual aids that could be used in presenting the unit.
6. A statement of possible evaluation procedures. Methods the teacher might employ in judging the accumulated skills or knowledge of the students as well as the effectiveness of the unit plan itself.¹⁴⁴

¹⁴³Ibid., p. 282.

¹⁴⁴George Mannello, "Resource Unit Versus Instructional System," The Educational Forum, V 35, N 1, November 1970, pp. 83-84.

The concept of the unit is quite flexible. It may be adapted to any number of learning situations. In a sense, it is the vehicle and the subject matter or desired learning is the passenger. The vehicle can carry a variety of passengers. The unit plan in this light is viewed as a useful tool but certainly not an end in itself. The time taken to write a unit plan would be completely wasted if the direction and thrust of the learning experiences did not directly pertain to the planned objectives relevant to the subject.

An important aspect of unit study is to be sure the instructional experiences undertaken contribute in some way to the established objectives and are related to the content and/or skill goals of the unit.¹⁴⁵

Some units follow a logical or sequential pattern in which each step or segment descends directly from the one preceding it.¹⁴⁶ Yet, as we have seen, the general structure of a unit tends to "dove tail" toward the thematic aspects of the whole plan. The constant maintenance of a central concept has the apparent advantage of expediting the content-process relationship and consequently the enhancement of learning. An added advantage to this centrality of emphasis is that it can aid in problem formation and problem solving.

When units are built around basic themes or concepts, they provide a basis for the formulation of related problems. At this point the student may become actively involved in pursuing the solution of a problem appropriate to his motives, interests, and abilities.¹⁴⁷

¹⁴⁵Del Popolo, p. 282.

¹⁴⁶Joan M. Leonard, John J. Fallon and Harold von Arx, General Methods of Effective Teaching: A Practical Approach (New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1972), p. 18.

¹⁴⁷Kenneth H. Hoover and Helene M. Hoover, "Lesson Planning: Key to Effective Teaching," The Clearing House, V. 42, N 1, September 1967, p. 41.

Grant has pointed out that there is one glaring difficulty in conventional lesson planning (and we perhaps can infer unit planning as well). That is, such plans do not say what the teacher will actually do and particularly--what he will say. Verbal output is simply not explained or even mentioned.¹⁴⁸ This could be a serious omission and perhaps specific verbal behaviors on the instructor's part should be more carefully examined. However, such specificity seems to run counter to the idea of flexibility. Rather, a sound unit would appear to be comprised of elements which provide organization for the attainment of knowledge and skill--the strength of that organization being the freedom it allows for spontaneity and other dynamic processes. In emphasizing the length of a unit, Del Popolo points out

The time needed for the successful completion of a unit can be suggested but should not serve as a restrictive force. Unitary teaching demands flexibility in time usage.¹⁴⁹

No equation between verbal behavior and time duration in a unit plan is suggested here. Nevertheless, the principle of flexibility seems to permeate both of these issues and all others related to unit planning. The strength of a unit seems to be in its clarity of definition and intentions, its synthesis of content and process in education and its sensitivity to objective as well as affective elements in planning, learning and evaluation.

¹⁴⁸Dorothy A. Grant, "A Refocus on Lesson Planning," Teachers College Record, V 68, N 6, March 1967, p. 503.

¹⁴⁹Del Popolo, p. 284.

Objectives

Once a teacher or instructor has decided upon an area of content worthy of building a unit, he must, like any planner using a systematic approach, establish goals. In one respect, he has already established one goal--to have his students learn about and/or learn to do something. A teacher, by virtue of being a teacher, has some kind of goals, either by intent or default. "Intentionality is best described behaviorally through the passive or active behavior of teachers."¹⁵⁰

Teaching is not a capricious activity: it is intentional. Even the teacher who states that his students are independent learners and establish their own goals has this intention for them.¹⁵¹

Since goals seem to be inherent in the nature of teaching, the wisest teacher would be one who specifically selects goals and planned outcomes and directs his and the learners' activity toward those ends. If he does not do this, he will likely decrease his effectiveness as a teacher and decrease the likelihood that his students will actually learn what he wants them to learn. "Without carefully prepared objectives, the instructor can meet frustration in deciding among the seemingly countless ways to approach a subject."¹⁵²

¹⁵⁰Allen E. Ivey and Stephen A. Rollin, "A Behavioral Objectives Curriculum in Human Relations: A Commitment to Intentionality," Journal of Teacher Education, V 23, N 2, Summer 1972, p. 162.

¹⁵¹Stuart Cohen and Richard Hersh, "Behaviorism and Humanism: A Synthesis for Teacher Education," Journal of Teacher Education, V 23, N 2, Summer 1972, p. 173.

¹⁵²Hal J. Basham and Robert J. Davis, "New Teaching Vitality from Lesson Planning," Improving College and University Teaching, V 15, N 2, Spring 1967, p. 130.

Being cognizant of the importance of stating goals and objectives is obviously quite significant to teaching and learning. However, it is pertinent to note that how one states objectives is as significant as the idea that one should state objectives in the first place. To state merely that one wants his students to understand such and such better does not indicate how much better or in what ways better. Goals should be set down in succinct terminology so that the desired learning or performance change is evident in terms of degrees. In educational theory, such succinct statements are referred to as behavioral or instructional objectives.

A behavioral objective describes a desired behavior change in a student who must demonstrate this change so you know he has achieved it. Thus, writers of behavioral objectives must clearly state what the student will be doing to show he has accomplished it.¹⁵³

The purpose of an instructional (behavioral) objective is to establish a clear statement about what is actually going to take place as the result of learning. Mager has written that a good instructional objective should have the characteristics of identifying terminal performance of students, describing the conditions in which this performance will take place and describing standards of adequate performance. He adds that all objectives need not contain all of these characteristics but that, in writing objectives, these criteria should govern the form the instructional objectives take.¹⁵⁴

¹⁵³Bruce M. Mitchell, Arnold F. Stueckle and Robert F. Wilkens, Conceptual Planning with Behavioral Objectives (Dubuque: Kendall/Hunt Publishers, 1971), p. 49.

¹⁵⁴Robert F. Mager, Preparing Instructional Objectives (Palo Alto: Forum Publishers, 1962), p. 26.

When a unit plan is intended to convey certain information or develop particular skills, its objectives are best stated in relation to what that information is or what those skills are and how it will be verified that the information or skill has been attained. Objectives written in this fashion make the selection of learning activities much easier and facilitate student and unit evaluation. If one knows precisely what the final desired outcome is, he can proceed to the planning of experiences which will best lend to the accomplishment of the outcome and he will be able to observe whether or not the outcome was reached.¹⁵⁵

Brainstorming, Discussion and Interview

In dealing with an issue or a problem, one method for eliciting possible alternatives or ideas from students is brainstorming. In brainstorming, students are invited to come up with as many ideas as they can on a topic or on how to solve a problem. There are four basic rules to brainstorming which are aimed at permitting maximum idea output and at arriving at possible alternatives.

1. As ideas are brought up, critical evaluation is suspended for all members of the class or group. Ideas must flow freely no matter how absurd or inappropriate they seem to be. Critical or judgmental comments during the brainstorming session tend to inhibit participants. The goal is to find creative and unique ideas, not to develop critical thinking, at least not for the moment.

¹⁵⁵Basham and Davis, p. 132.

2. Participants are encouraged to be "free-wheeling" in their ideas and wild ideas are welcome. Wild or outlandish ideas are easier to tame down than dull ideas are to revitalize.

3. A quantity of ideas is desired and encouraged. The greater the number of ideas you have to choose from the greater the likelihood that you will find some quality ideas.

4. Beyond coming up with original ideas, students are invited to build and improve on the ideas of others. By adding to or combining already stated ideas students might arrive at superior modifications.¹⁵⁶

During the brainstorming session the ideas and alternatives are recorded by a previously appointed secretary so that the group will have a complete record of all ideas suggested. After the session has ended, participants then begin a process of evaluating the ideas one by one. It is here that critical thinking becomes important. The guiding principle of brainstorming is that creative thinking should precede critical thinking. That principle seems logical enough, but the advocates of brainstorming point out that critical, judgemental thinking is often so heavily emphasized in education that real creative thinking is stifled because evaluation begins too soon.¹⁵⁷

Brainstorming is a well-known, widely used problem solving tool. It encourages participants to use their imaginations and be creative. It helps elicit numerous solutions to any given problem . . . In the area of values, it is very helpful in eliciting alternatives.¹⁵⁸

¹⁵⁶Robert W. Wood, "Brainstorming: A Creative Way to Learn," Education, V 91, N 2, November-December 1970, p. 160.

¹⁵⁷Ibid., p. 161.

¹⁵⁸Sidney B. Simon, Leland W. Howe and Howard Kirschenbaum, Values Clarification: A Handbook of Practical Strategies for Teachers and Students, (New York: Hart Publishing Co., 1972), p. 204.

Further, brainstorming would appear to be a valuable tool in the raising of issues and problem areas related to a given subject.

Unlike the free-wheeling, rapid-fire aspects of brainstorming, classroom discussion is more disciplined, slower, frequently more serious and not as clearly organized in terms of discreet steps. Discussion is nonetheless a valuable tool in the processing of issues and problems.

Though one is less likely to find the groundrules of discussion neatly defined in texts, as one might with other educational devices, there are some general guidelines. Kreyche has listed seven such guidelines to be followed in discussion which emphasize the roles of both professor and student:

1. Thorough preparation in the subject matter before-hand is important for all participants. If direction and concentration on the topic is to be maintained, everyone must have "done his homework." Anything less is likely to turn an intended dialogue into a monologue.

2. The professor must be alert to the sensitivities of students who are afraid to enter comments or respond to questions. He should endeavor to draw these students out and then emphasize the positive or "correct" aspects of his (the student's) response.

3. The professor should avoid calling on students. Students should respond to students. The professor must not become (or appear to be) the supreme authority--if he does, dialogue will give way to conditioned response.

4. Generally speaking the humanities and social sciences lend themselves to discussion better than do the physical sciences and

mathematics.

5. Students can and should learn as much as possible outside of class and no one should be permitted to merely get by on his verbal prowess while neglecting the subject matter. Good talkers have as much responsibility as do less verbal students.

6. When a class becomes involved in discussion it is nearly a foregone conclusion that they will not cover as much material as a lecture would. Participants should recognize and accept this at the outset.

7. Discussion yields many side benefits such as bringing out "grass roots" communication, establishing greater mutual respect among participants, revealing prejudices and diminishing them, and better overall understanding within the group.¹⁵⁹

Discussion in the classroom usually is centered around either practical problems arising from some point in the course content which students may seek answers to or theoretical problems derived from and based upon research and prior study.¹⁶⁰

It is important to realize that classroom discussion, despite its beneficial aspects in examining a topic or problem, can all too easily turn into something less than an intellectual exchange.

Unlike conversation, the boundaries of discussion are drawn around a subject matter, and many kinds of remarks are therefore inappropriate. Discussion is more serious, disciplined, and thoughtful than conversation. In comparison to 'bull-sessions,' classroom discussion proceeds

¹⁵⁹Gerald F. Kreyche, "Exercise in Classroom Dialogue," College and University, V 44, N 2, Winter 1969, p. 170.

¹⁶⁰Leonard, Fallon and von Arx, p. 224.

beyond the usual topics of sex, religion and human relations of interest to young adults in their personal lives.¹⁶¹

Assuming that the subject matter is appropriate and that the maturity of the students is sufficient to avoid constant side-tracking, discussion is perhaps the most useful way of processing issues and problems in the classroom. Discussion can precede or follow nearly any other educational experience to the enhancement or clarification of the subject matter.

Feelings, emotions, and personal experiences and circumstances are not usually topics under consideration in the classroom. Such things are not generally pertinent in terms of learning content though they undoubtedly are present in the classroom. On occasion, the life conditions of participants can constitute relevant content matter. In these instances, discussion is probably a less than appropriate avenue for analyzing this type of information. When personal information about classroom members is pertinent, some form of interview is best to use in its gathering and processing.

An interview may be defined as the "purposeful exchange of meanings through spoken words, gestures, expressions and inflections."¹⁶² The interview situation can involve only two participants but may include several, depending on the circumstances and the nature of the information that is likely to be derived from the interview. The

¹⁶¹John N. Hobbs, "Discussion in the College Classroom," Journal of General Education, V 21, N 4, January 1970, p. 250.

¹⁶²Walter Van Dyke Bingham and Bruce Y. Moore, How to Interview (New York: Harper and Row, 1959), p. 10.

interview as it is referred to here does not mean the counseling interview, though the elements of information processing and rapport building are likely to be present in both. "A good interview represents both a verbal and a nonverbal interaction between two or more people working toward a common goal. The interview is a purposeful conversation."¹⁶³

Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum in their book Values Clarification have described an excellent procedure for the use of interviewing in the classroom situation. Essentially, it involves breaking the class up into groups of five to ten. In each group, one member volunteers to be interviewed by the other group members. Each group member gets an opportunity prior to the interview to write down any questions he may wish to ask the focus person. The focus person gets the same opportunity for the writing of questions he wants to be asked and passes these to a friend. In the interview, the focus person calls on members as he chooses to ask their questions. He may opt not to answer any given question and may inquire of any member why they asked a certain question before he chooses to answer the question. Unless there is a time limit the interview is over when there are no further questions or when the focus person indicates. Ground rules include absolute respect for the feelings, opinions and values of others and the exclusion of argumentation and debate over questions or answers.¹⁶⁴

¹⁶³Anne F. Fenlason, Essentials in Interviewing: For the Interviewer Offering Professional Services, (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1952), p. 3.

¹⁶⁴Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum, pp. 160-161.

Simulation, Roleplaying and Modeling

The three methods of information processing and examination discussed in the previous section are all very valuable ways of looking at issues, problems and situations. Each, however, is somewhat limited by the fact that it relies on what is generally a cognitive give-and-take level. None of the methods have a demonstrative component. They permit exchange on subjects, but do little to involve students in the activities related to the subjects. Other educational techniques have been developed which place emphasis on the "doing" rather than the "talking about." They are intended to pick up where the others leave off and to add an animation element to learning new behaviors as well as content laden material.

Using traditional teaching methods, such as lectures, discussions or seminars, it is very difficult for students to learn with feedback any very complex or personal set of behaviors appropriate to particular situations. Even demonstration of these behaviors has limited value for most students. Simulation strategies of one sort or another remain the most likely strategies for learning and practicing new behavior.¹⁶⁵

"Simulation is a controlled representation of a real situation. The use of simulation provides the student with learning experiences leading up to the attainment of instructional objectives."¹⁶⁶ Simulation may also be defined as a "procedure in which a model of or an analog to a real situation is created for the purpose of testing or teaching."¹⁶⁷

¹⁶⁵David W. Champagne and John F. Hines, "Role Playing Simulation Activities as a Teaching Strategy--Suggestions for New Users," Educational Technology, V 11, N 8, August 1971, p. 58.

¹⁶⁶Thomas V. Miller, "Simulation and Instructional Objectives in Counselor Education," Counselor Education and Supervision, V 12, December 1972, p. 84.

¹⁶⁷Isabel H. Beck and Bruce Monroe, "Some Dimensions of Simulation," Educational Technology, V 9, N 10, October 1969, p. 45.

Simulation can be used in a variety of ways for the development of or modification of behaviors that are necessary in the skill element of jobs or activities where more is required than simply a content knowledge of a subject. Beck and Monroe point out that there are three primary uses of simulation:

1. to evaluate or examine an existing system,
2. to develop a model or plan for a new system, or
3. to provide a learning situation that represents a real life circumstance.¹⁶⁸

They note also that there are four basic characteristics of simulation which are aimed at providing the learner with specific practice, problem solving and decision making experiences among others. As a training instrument, simulation: (1) starts with an analogous situation, (2) provides for low risk input, (3) feeds back consequences symbolically, and (4) is replicable.¹⁶⁹

There is some doubt as to the differences and similarities between simulation, roleplaying and modeling. All are ways of acting out or representing real situations in a learning environment. In a training situation, all have noticeable advantage over lecture and reading alone. Roleplaying and modeling tend to involve interpersonal communication as does simulation under certain conditions. Yet simulation can involve other things as well, such as the representation of management, and financial type decision making in a mock business environment. Perhaps the most useful distinction is one that labels simulation as a

¹⁶⁸Ibid.

¹⁶⁹Ibid.

category of learning techniques and roleplaying and modeling as types of simulations.

Miller, in discussing simulation as applied to counselor education, seems to follow this sort of categorization and places four types of learning situations under the general heading of simulation. He notes that reading and listening are essential learning methods to the entry level of simulation. Without the basic underlying principles gained through reading and listening, the student will not be prepared to be actively involved in other simulation techniques. At the second level, he points out that "modeling can involve live models or the use of video demonstration tapes which show the counselor skill being studied."¹⁷⁰ The third level Miller describes as practice responses and roleplaying. Practice responses are those appropriate counselor statements or questions which trainees attempt to learn by responding to written statements or audio taped statements representing the hypothetical clients' comments. Roleplaying involves the enactment of a real counseling situation between the trainee and another person (often another trainee) in which the trainee gives the appropriate response to statements made by the acting client. Unlike practice responses which are discreet, roleplay responses require a continuous effort on the part of the trainee in delivering the correct response. The final level of simulation is supervised counseling experience in a counseling laboratory with observation facilities. In Miller's levels of simulation, each level is placed in a logical sequence where level one must

¹⁷⁰Miller, p. 84.

be completed before proceeding to level two, and so on. Thus, modeling is seen as preparatory to roleplaying.¹⁷¹

Ettkin and Snyder have developed a model for peer-group counseling based on roleplaying. Their model is designed to fit a group situation and has an introduction and six task stages. The introduction stage involves warm-up and familiarization activities--relating feelings and perceptions to get the group acquainted. The first stage of the role play is the identification of common issues. Stage two is "setting the stage" i.e. creating linkage between group members on common problems. The third stage is the initial role play of a counseling situation with two group members. Stage four involves the reversal of the same two group members on the same or a similar problem. Stage five is the discussion by the entire group of the play and stage six is a replay which is usually used only if for some reason the first role play situation was unsatisfactory.¹⁷²

Simulation techniques appear to have beneficial qualities not evident in conventional teaching/learning methodology. Beck and Monroe list several:

1. Simulation can provide experience in a wider range of educational objectives: affective as well as cognitive; process as well as content oriented . . .
2. With simulation there may be greater transfer from the training situation to the life situation.
3. Simulation provides a responsive environment which may give learners a sense of immediacy and involvement.¹⁷³

¹⁷¹Miller, pp. 85-86.

¹⁷²Larry Ettkin and Lester Snyder, "A Model for Peer-Group Counseling Based on Role-Playing," The School Counselor, V 19, N 3, January 1972.

¹⁷³ Beck and Monroe, p. 48.

Summary and Review

The objectives of a unit or course of study tell you, in effect, where you are going and the learning activities provide a means for getting there. Occasionally, however, one also needs to look back and see where he's been. This is the purpose of some type of summarizing process.

Effective summaries help develop an awareness of the essential unity and purpose of what was done; they tie up the package in order to maximize the impact of each learning experience. The creative, dynamic summary can make cosmos out of chaos.¹⁷⁴

Summaries are most effectively placed at the logical ending point of some phase of learning activity. At least some form of brief summary is necessary when there is transition from one set of activities or content areas to another set. Summaries serve to relate and correlate pieces of information brought out in a unit of instruction. They help to crystallize ideas and concepts that may, to that point, be unclear or have been poorly interpreted. Summaries refocus the learner's attention on the original goal and thus maintain the recognition of the central problem or idea. They help to set the stage for further learning activities and serve as a transitional device. They aid in developing the judgement and evaluative process of students. Finally, summaries provide a setting for the review of progress made to that point. Understanding one's accomplishments or realizing what areas have not yet been firmly implanted expedites further learning activity.¹⁷⁵

One very simple and yet very efficient method of summary and

¹⁷⁴Leonard, Fallon and von Arx, p. 147.

¹⁷⁵Ibid., pp. 148-150.

review is the "I learned statements" technique. This technique merely asks students to choose a sentence stem like--"I learned that I" or "I realized that I"--and complete the stem with some personal insight or understood concept pertinent to the just completed learning activity. An important part of this technique is that it requires students to use the word "I" in their statements rather than making general remarks about "people." For example, the format may call for "I learned that I am more prejudiced than I thought" rather than "I learned that people are more prejudiced . . ." In the "I learned" statements technique, comments are only volunteered, they are not called for by the instructor. This method of summary has all of the benefits mentioned and is also a very powerful device to get students to search their feelings and thoughts on a subject.¹⁷⁶

Evaluation

The statement was made that all the elements or component parts of a unit of study should "dovetail" to the basic theme or aim of the unit. Each component then should in some way relate to every other component thus tying the entire package into a functional whole. This is what a unit should do, but one last element is necessary to determine whether or not it actually has accomplished this purpose. This last element is evaluation. Evaluation must be coupled with each other component of the unit to determine two things: did the students accomplish (demonstrate) the learning as defined by the unit objectives, and is the unit itself effective? Do the objectives need to be restated or are the learning activities appropriate?

¹⁷⁶Simon, Howe and Kirschenbaum, p. 163.

Ten Brink defines evaluation as "the process of obtaining information and using it to form judgements which in turn are to be used in decision making."¹⁷⁷ Such a definition would seem to fit the evaluation of students' capacities to demonstrate knowledge of a particular subject and to examine the quality of content and process of a unit since those evaluations require judgements to be made on the stated goals to final outcomes of the unit. Decisions must naturally follow as to whether goals and outcomes have been accomplished and if not, how to go about changing current or past practices to yield more effective learning.

Dressel defines evaluation in a somewhat different way but maintains the perspective that evaluation should provide information upon which to make further judgements. He states:

Evaluation involved judging the worth of an experience, idea or process. The judgement presupposes standards or criteria . . . The worth of an experience may be judged by its educational impact--that is, by the extent to which it, in itself or in comparison with other possible experiences, results in certain desired changes in those having the experience.¹⁷⁸

The implication of these remarks seems to be that evaluation cannot be a static or absolute quantity. It is instead a means toward gaining knowledge about experiences and processes so that one gains an understanding about the worth in a relative, continuous fashion. Evaluation

¹⁷⁷Terry D. Ten Brink, Evaluation, A Practical Guide for Teachers (New York: McGraw-Hill Publishers, 1974), p. 8.

¹⁷⁸Paul L. Dressel, Evaluation in Higher Education (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Publishers, 1961), p. 6.

must then be constant.

Evaluation is an ongoing process, not something you do only at the end of a course. It is a process that starts even before instruction begins and continues until the end of instruction.¹⁷⁹

Though evaluation must be continuous, any given evaluation is taken in the form of a static measure. Since any given evaluation measure is, in and of itself, essentially static, appropriate intervals of measuring must be found to make static measures a closer approximation of an ongoing process. These appropriate intervals are usually designated as being at the beginning of study (pre-test) to determine the student's understanding of the subject matter, during the unit of study at strategic points (progress tests) to evaluate learning of intermediate material or skill, and at the end (mastery test) to gain information on whether or not the learner has accumulated all that was intended for that study unit.¹⁸⁰

In discussing evaluation in education one is usually talking about some type of testing procedure. For present purposes, an indepth analysis of the various types of tests and their various uses will not be undertaken. Suffice it to say that the type of test should match the type of desired learning. It is important also to note that evaluation need not be viewed as something external to the learner.

It may be sufficient to point out that efficient learning, mastery of a life situation, is dependent partly, at least,

¹⁷⁹Robert Davis, Lawrence Alexander and Stephen Yelon, Learning System Design (New York: McGraw Hill Publishers, 1974), p. 81.

¹⁸⁰Arthur Jones, E. D. Grizzell and Wren Grinstead, Principles of Unit Construction (New York: McGraw Hill Publishers, 1939), p. 119.

upon the ability of the learner to determine when the goal has been attained; whenever possible this should be done by the learner himself.¹⁸¹

In terms of the evaluation of the unit itself, Bergland and Quatrano have identified a series of questions which the participants of a system should ask to determine the overall worth and efficiency of the unit or system:

1. Are the objectives clearly stated and formulated along measurable and operational lines?
2. Does the criterion test truly reflect the objectives?
3. Have the objectives been properly interpreted in exploring the learning tasks?
4. Do the learning tasks identify everything that has to be learned in order to enable the learner to perform in a way described by the objectives of the system?
5. Were any tasks identified that do not contribute to the attainment of the objectives?
6. Have the best possible and most economical components been selected and are they functioning effectively?¹⁸²

Summary

An instructional unit designed to familiarize counseling trainees with the concerns of international students and cultural bias appears to be the most reliable and expedient means of assuring counselor preparedness in that area. The unit would best be placed within an already established course on the problems involved in the counseling relationship. Placed in this fashion, the unit would require no new

¹⁸¹Ibid., p. 63.

¹⁸²Bruce Bergland and Louis Quatrano, "Systems Evaluation in Counselor Education," Counselor Education and Supervision, V 12, March 1973, p. 192.

expenditures for the counselor education department and would utilize only existing materials and resources.

The essential quality of a unit is that of "wholeness." A unit must be a clear and understandable learning package. Sensitivity to both the objective and affective elements of learning and the relating of educational goals and methods are important features of the unit. An instructional unit is made up of objectives, content, learning activities, materials and evaluation procedures. Units are very adaptable in that they provide a setting for various types subject matter.

Carefully planned and well stated objectives are vital to unit planning. If an instructor knows what his objectives are he can mold learning activities to accomplish them. Evaluation is made easier by the setting of definite objectives because the instructor knows exactly what information and/or behavior should be reflected in a test situation.

The technique of brainstorming is used to stimulate students to be creative and imaginative in formulating ideas on a particular topic. Brainstorming involves the class in a free-wheeling out-pouring of ideas/solutions related to a problem area. Critical remarks and judgements are reserved for the end of the brainstorming session. Classroom discussion is more disciplined than brainstorming and requires more prior study. Discussion is a thorough, painstaking method of examining issues and problems. If the class can avoid sidetracking, discussion is an excellent method for uncovering relevant aspects of a topic area. For getting at the feelings and emotions of participants

in learning endeavors, an interview procedure is most effective. Group interviews are particularly applicable to the classroom situation.

Simulation, roleplaying and modeling are methods of establishing a setting in which the students may be involved in controlled representations of a real situation. Simulation may be thought of as a general category of analogous situations with roleplaying and modeling being types of simulation. Simulation is characterized by its low risk input, its symbolic feedback and its replicability. Roleplaying is most useful in enabling students to act out the counseling relationship through practice at listening and responding. Modeling gives the student a chance to see how someone in the focus role should respond/ behave under given conditions.

Summary and review processes are intended to allow the student to see all that has gone before. A good summary can tie the components of a course or a unit together into an intelligible whole. Summaries should always be placed at some logical ending point and should capsule the material in an efficient manner.

If instructor and students are to know whether they have, in fact, achieved the objectives they set out to achieve, a sound evaluation program must be present. Evaluation should be directly in line with the objectives and learning activities of the unit of study. If one's method of evaluation is appropriate, it should provide information on the relevance of objectives, content and activities and enable the instructor to make necessary revisions.

CHAPTER V

THE UNIT

. . . The importance of units and unit teaching in the entire instructional setting cannot be overstressed. Units touch all aspects of the educational activity of the school. At the planning level, they bring pertinence and immediacy to the objectives and content of the curriculum. At the teaching-learning level, they serve as the ideal vehicle for adapting the results of curriculum planning to the classroom situation; and at the evaluation level, units provide not only for the continual appraisal of goals, but also the means for achieving established goals.¹⁸³

With these remarks Joseph Del Popolo concludes his discussion on "A Re-Definition of the Unit." His comments embody the direction and emphasis of the present writing. Unit planning and instruction is seen as providing the basis for the presentation of a wide variety of content material while permitting the greatest flexibility in learning activity and teaching methodology. Unit plans are superior to workshops in terms of their availability and cost. Unit teaching incorporates a wider range of learning experiences than lectures. A unit is a more dynamic way of learning than the reading of scholarly publications. The unit, in its essential value to education, is the most appropriate approach to handling the problems foreign students face. Its value lies in preparing counselors and counseling trainees in the realm of cross-cultural phenomena and cultural bias. An endeavor to develop

¹⁸³Del Popolo, p. 284.

counselor awareness must be stated in fairly specific terms according to what should be done and how it should be done. The unit is the best answer to the "what" question.

Rationale and Content

The rationale for the unit has been given in Chapters II and III. The content of the unit is encompassed in the rationale--in those comments and questions which point to the difficulties foreign students encounter on American campuses. Problems discussed were those which are likely to cause frustration, bewilderment, hostility and maladjustive behaviors and which will, quite possibly, require the aid of a counselor. This refers to:

Social adjustment: developing relationships, finding real friendships, dating and isolation and loneliness;

Academic adjustment: different grading and testing systems, understanding lectures, and comprehending American academic rituals;

Customs: different beliefs and values, family structures and traditions;

Expectations: America as the "land of plenty"; Americans are always friendly, and freedom is unlimited;

Finances and legalities: insufficient funds and poor sponsorship, immigration and employment restrictions;

Language: colloquial English and American slang, lecture jargon, social and academic communications or the lack of them.

Also included in the content of the unit are such things as American perceptions of foreign students and the possibilities of counselor bias in cultural attitudes.

It is important to recognize that, though content is generally viewed as a concrete, static entity within a unit of study; content,

the material to be learned, is also a product of input and the synthesis of ideas and feelings. The present unit is aimed at discovering things about people and their circumstances, both foreign students and counselors themselves, and at understanding the manifestations of those circumstances. Content, in this light, is not completely static but is a process involving people's attitudes, sensations, past and present experiences and resultant effects. The participants of the unit will certainly have a great deal of information to absorb, but in doing so, they, through their comments and insights, will help to build content through the course of the unit.

Objectives

The primary goal of this unit is to make counselors or prospective counselors more aware of the cross-cultural differences and possible adjustment problems of foreign students in an American collegiate institution. The program is geared toward enabling trainees to increase their sensitivity to and capacity to deal with the specific difficulties experienced by foreign students, which would tend to make them more difficult to counsel or less receptive to domestic counselors than their American counterparts.

The specific instructional objectives of the unit are, in operational form:

1. To increase the number of times trainees are able to recognize aspects of American collegiate life that could create mental or emotional stress for a foreign student as indicated by the trainee's verbal and written behavior in the classroom situation.
2. To increase the amount of contact between trainees and

the foreign student population on the campus as evidenced by completed interviews or by classroom participation of foreign students.

3. To increase the number of times trainees offer suggestions and alternatives to counseling foreign students as indicated by verbal input.

4. To increase the amount of trainee exposure to literature dealing with cross-cultural differences as evidenced by verbal input and graded, written bibliographies.

5. To increase the number of times trainees state their own cultural biases and prejudices as indicated by written lists and verbal behavior.

Location and Placement of the Unit

There are two questions relating to where the unit will be placed, in terms of physical location and in terms of course curricula. The unit is designed to be placed in an already existing course in the counselor education curriculum of any college or university which does not currently provide some type of educational experience for the preparation of counselors to handle foreign student clients. The appropriate course setting for the unit would be that course of the counselor education program which dealt with the problems counselors encounter related to the practice of their profession. This could be an entry level introductory course or it could be a higher level "problems" course. In either case, it should be part of the core curriculum. With such a course as the vehicle for this unit, one would be assured that all graduate counseling students would be exposed to its benefits. Also, it would make available a reasonably short but intensive

exposure to in-service counselors who could audit this unit without taking a course.

Instructor

In a regularly instituted course in counselor education, staffing for such a unit should present no real difficulty. The instructor should have graduate level expertise in the teaching of problem areas related to counseling. Beyond that, however, he need not have had extensive exposure to foreign culture or contact with foreign students. Any contact of this nature would, of course, be beneficial, but is not a requirement of the program. Ideally, the instructor, whose very presence would provide a framework for the discussion of cross-cultural phenomena, would be a foreign professor who has counseled both foreign and domestic students and who has attended both foreign and domestic institutions. In any case, it is assumed that the instructor will have done some reading in the area before actually taking on the unit.

Prior Arrangements and Materials

It will be necessary to make prior arrangements for trainees to do some interviews with foreign students, and for foreign students to attend the class as resource persons. These arrangements could be effected by the chairman of the guidance and counseling department, the instructor of the course or by the trainees themselves. It would be helpful if, at the beginning of the unit, they would contact the foreign student advisor or the foreign student organization on campus to act as liaison. It is assumed, from their efforts in the literature, that foreign student advisors and foreign students would welcome the opportunity to be involved in this unique activity. The arrangements

would, in fact, be very much the same as those made for practicum courses i.e. establishing time slots where trainees and foreign students could meet for interviews and inviting a small number of foreign students to sit in on class activities at strategic points in the unit. Such arrangements, once made, could then be an ongoing practice.

The unit does not necessitate a store of additional resources, e.g. textbooks, films or supplementary materials. An adequate university library should provide the members of the unit with the appropriate literature for their bibliography and class input. Departmental equipment for video-taping would be helpful in simulation experiences, but the unit is not dependent upon such equipment. It is assumed that the majority of foreign students contacted during the unit would very likely provide some additional materials and would themselves be the greatest resource.

Length

The Implementation of the unit is divided into twelve, one-hour instructional periods. It is felt that the unit should not take greater time than twelve hours in a course that must deal also with many other problem areas. However, the nature of the unit appears to be important enough to require at least eight hours of exposure. Thus the unit is presented here as requiring from eight to twelve hours of class time. Considering that this unit has somewhat of a "pilot project" nature, the length of it cannot be set in limited terms. It is important to emphasize that this unit, like any other unit, must have a flexible quality--time must be subordinate to learning. If one of the learning activities of the unit requires greater time to complete than will be

suggested, extra time should be allowed for that activity within reasonable limits. "Reasonable limits" must in turn be left to the discretion of the instructor primarily, but not exclude the judgment of trainees who are in the best position to know the value of an experience for them.

Any plan must have structure and it must provide a framework to, at least, be tried. Therefore, specific activities will be described as requiring specific amounts of time for the sake of establishing a plan. Once tried, the plan and its length or the time limits required for a given activity may evolve into something quite different.

Further, a great deal will depend on whether the class meets in one hour periods, in two hour blocks, or in three or four hour sessions. The appropriate time for outside reading and outside individual activities to be suggested between periods would obviously need to be altered depending upon the length of the class period. One cannot perform an outside activity between hours one and two if the class meets in four hour sessions. Flexibility is again the key.

Implementation

In "Roles of the Foreign Student Advisor," Edward L. Carpenter writes:

When interviewing applicants for a professional position in my office, I always ask them to list a few categories of people against whom they are prejudiced. Almost all quickly disavow any prejudices. I then announce that they must be deceiving either themselves or me--that they could not be considered for employment unless they could develop at least 10 or 12 categories of prejudice. I usually have to explain further that everyone has certain kinds of people to whom he finds it hard to relate, to talk, even to be physically close.

Eventually an applicant will hesitatingly mention such groups as very fat people, people who talk loudly, people who ostentatiously display wealth, uneducated people, perhaps people from certain racial or religious backgrounds. With such difficulty in naming even a few blatant prejudices, how many subtle, unrecognized prejudices must get in our way each day? I recommend this little exercise for each one of us; it would be worthwhile to set a goal of about 25, in order to begin getting at the less obvious barriers to the attainment of our desired role in personal relationships.¹⁸⁴

Hour One

At the beginning of the first class, trainees would be asked to take out about ten minutes to write down as many categories of people against whom they are prejudiced as they could. After the allotted time the instructor would call for the trainees to make comments on their list. How many did you come up with? What groups did you list? How do you feel about your prejudices? Where do you think they've come from? Twenty minutes could be taken for the group to discuss their prejudices. Trainees would not be forced to respond on specific prejudices if they are uncomfortable about them. The effort here is to give trainees an opportunity to explore their prejudicial sentiments. The instructor might note: "You all listed politicians but no one said Democrats or Republicans specifically. Why?" After the discussion has subsided, the instructor could take the remainder of the period to introduce the unit as one dealing with foreign students' problems and cultural bias:

For the next several meetings, we're going to be talking about the circumstances foreign students face on American campuses--especially in relation to the way those circumstances cause adjustment problems for foreign students. We're also going to be looking at how we [counselors and Americans in general] perceive foreign nationals in this country.

¹⁸⁴Carpenter, p. 41.

Some background information could be given at this point.

This first meeting would serve to provide a framework for students to look at their own prejudices and to present an atmosphere of searching for the subtle barriers which inhibit communication and understanding. It would also serve the purpose of a quasi pre-test/self-test on prejudices and cultural-personal biases. Lastly, it would partially introduce the unit, and, hopefully, give trainees something to be thinking about.

Hour Two

At the beginning of the second class, the instructor would ask students to brainstorm the problems foreign students might face in American higher education. The instructor would state the rules of brainstorming, ask for a volunteer to be recorder or assign someone and then say

I told you last time that we'd be talking about foreign students and their problems. Now I want you to bring up as many areas as you can think of where foreign students might experience problems. Remember, no holds barred and we'll save judgements for later.

After the brainstorming session, the entire group would go through a process of evaluating each problem area listed. The input of the instructor would be secondary to that of the trainees, but nonetheless important because he may need to clarify certain points.

Example: On the list, one student has offered financial problems. In the evaluation another student comments, "I don't really think foreign students have had financial problems--most of them come from rich families and have plenty of money."

The instructor could point out that that is not true of many foreign students, that some are barely able to get by on the paltry

sums which they have available for expenses. At the end of the discussion, the instructor would spend the last part of the period explaining and amplifying the problems of international students.

At the end of the period, students will be assigned the task of reading no less than four journal articles in the areas of foreign students and cultural differences and told to pay particular attention to literature that discusses maladjustive responses in foreign students. Trainees will be required to turn in an annotated bibliography of their readings which will be checked for completion after inspection for acceptability. Should any resources prove unacceptable, the instructor will ask for replacement resources on subsequent meetings. Also, the record of the brainstorming session would be maintained for later use.

This second period would serve the purpose of further introducing the material of the unit and of creating a circumstance to accommodate an examination of foreign students' problems and trainees' perceptions of those problems. The outside assignment will also set the stage for a more in-depth examination in the next meeting.

Hour Three

At the beginning of hour three, trainees would be asked to break up into groups of five or six members each. They would then be asked to take the first half of the period to discuss what they had found in their reading, and, as a group, to list and briefly describe from seven to ten specific areas in which foreign students have difficulty or where cross-cultural differences create problems. In their brief descriptions, they would be told to explain whatever cause and effect relationships seemed apparent. After thirty minutes, trainees

would be instructed to re-join as a class and a spokesman for each group would read the problem items of that group aloud. After each group had presented their lists, the instructor, using the brainstorming record from the previous class, would compare and contrast a few example responses from the former to the later list. He would then ask trainees to reflect on their reading and discussion and to fit their remarks into "I learned" statements.

Near the end of the hour, the instructor would take a moment to inform students that an upcoming part of the unit will involve their doing taped interviews with foreign students. He would explain that the purpose of the interviews is to give them (trainees) a chance to talk to foreign students about concerns and to ask questions they have formulated from their reading and classroom discussion. The instructor would emphasize that the interviews are basically an information gathering tool rather than an examination of their counseling skills and that their primary behavior should be that of listening with interest and attempting to understand the person with whom they are talking. The instructor would collect and retain the lists of problems and descriptions developed in the groups and would have these mimeographed into hand-outs. Trainees would be assigned another bibliography of four sources. This time, homing in on the area of communication difficulties generally and in the counseling relationship where foreign students are involved. Trainees would hand in the first four sources.

This third hour would serve to make clearer the discrepancies between the way trainees perceived foreign students' problems and cultural variations from period two and the way they perceived those

same areas after some exposure to the literature and discussion with other trainees on their reading. The "I learned" statements should cause trainees to examine closely what they had gained from their experience thus far and, perhaps, to view more carefully the scope and complexities of cross-cultural phenomena.

Hour Four

At the beginning of hour four, the instructor would give each trainee a copy of the hand-out compiled from their lists of problems developed in the previous hour. The instructor would tell the students that they should look over all of the items of the hand-out to help strengthen their grasp and understanding of the concerns of international students, cultural differences and cultural biases. He would add that they will be given a short quiz over that material on the occasion of their next class meeting.

The instructor would then take out approximately twenty minutes of class time to present a brief lecture on the difficulties surrounding the communication aspects of foreign students' problems, especially those which might effect the counseling relationship. Here, the instructor would be dealing not only with the difficulties surrounding the use of the English language, but also with the many cultural cues, non-verbal exchanges and other characteristics of a communicative process which may be culturally slanted and thus culturally biased. The instructor may choose to integrate into these comments a few remarks on the more general communication problems of the counseling relationship, relating this information to not only foreign students, but also other groups or subgroups where cultural differences of one form or

another are important.

Following his lecture, the instructor would have trainees break up into groups as they had done in hour three and discuss the new material they had read. On this occasion, trainees in their groups would be asked to list and define two more problem areas this time related to communication difficulties and the counseling relationship. Near the end of the period the instructor would have each group state their two items with short descriptions and he would write five items of his choice (those which seemed to center on the most pertinent aspects of communication and culture) on the blackboard for each trainee to copy. He would note that these items or some form of them would also appear on the quiz. Finally, he would tell the trainees to make out a schedule of their available hours during the week and to turn these schedules in to the guidance and counseling department within the time between the present meeting and the next meeting so that appointments for initial interviews with foreign students could be made.

Primarily the fourth hour would serve the purpose of tying together the general area of foreign students' problems and the difficulties experienced in the communication aspects of the counseling relationship where cultural differences and cultural biases are involved. It would also, in the instructor's lecture, provide a forum for the synthesis of foreign students' communication problems in the counseling relationship and other, similar areas of difficulty important to counseling but not necessarily related to foreign students. In this way, the unit becomes more integrated with the rest of the course.

Hour Five

At the beginning of the fifth hour, the instructor would give the afore-mentioned quiz to trainees. As stated, it would draw from the items developed by the group discussions of the two previous meetings on the problems of foreign students in general and on communication difficulties cross-culturally and in the counseling relationship. The quiz would be in the nature of presenting a list of five areas of foreign students' concerns; social adjustment, academics, legalities, finances and communication. Students would be required to cite under each of these areas, two factors contributing to the problems of foreign students in that area and to explain briefly the salient features of that factor, paying particular attention to cause and effect relationships.

Example Item: Financial Problems

Possible Answers

1. Poor sponsorship. The governments of many foreign foreign students do not make provisions for increases in tuition, for inflation, for increased housing costs or for the miscellaneous expenses. The result is that some foreign students are forced to try to get jobs, under restrictive conditions, and some will try to work illegally. This can obviously cause severe mental strain on the foreign student.
2. Lack of financial aid. Both the United States government and some colleges and universities have placed strict limitations on the financial help and economic aid programs available to foreign students. Thus many foreign students must seek financial support from private agencies or attempt to get funds from home. These latter sources are frequently insufficient and the foreign student bears the burden. Maladaptive and even hostile responses may result.

Twenty minutes would be allotted for the quiz, but at the instructor's discretion, it may be stretched to twenty-five. Scoring of the quiz would be quite straightforward, because the instructor will have a list of items from the two previous meetings with explanations included. Direct comparison would yield balanced checking with a minimum of subjectivity.

Following the quiz the instructor would collect trainees' responses and would ask the class to make comments on the quiz, its items, length, difficulty and so on. Did it test what you feel we have covered? Was there anything analogous about it? Do you think it was wholly relevant? The instructor might give students the option of making verbal responses at the moment or, for anonymity's sake, writing down their comments and criticisms outside of class and dropping them in his office mail box later.

For the later part of the period, the trainees would again break up into groups. The instructor would explain to the class the group interview technique and allow them to pursue this activity until the end of this meeting. Before they leave, however, the instructor would assign the task of doing one interview with a foreign student outside of class before the next meeting. He could again reiterate the purpose of the interview.

The fifth meeting would serve to "find out where students are"-- what they've learned and how well they relate it. It would, also, in the students' comments on the quiz, serve to evaluate what has transpired for them--i.e., is the unit fulfilling its purpose so far and was this particular evaluation suitable. The group activity at the end

would serve as a "warm-up" for more group interviews in upcoming meetings. The assignment would also lend itself to future activities as well as to begin a process of getting trainees in touch with foreign students.

Hour Six

At the beginning of hour six, students would go back into groups as they had been in previous meetings. For the first fifteen minutes they would be instructed to follow the same group interview technique as they had been working on in the fifth meeting. Self-disclosure of values, attitudes and feelings is emphasized here, but only insofar as the focus person wishes. After the first fifteen minutes, the instructor would stop activity and explain that trainees are to continue in the group interviews with one alteration. For the remainder of the period, trainees would take turns role-playing as foreign students. Trainees would be told to

respond as you think a foreign student would respond, if he/she were asked the same question or to refuse to respond to questions that you feel a foreign student would not answer--if any arise.

Trainees would then pursue this combination group interview-role play activity until the end of the meeting.

Before the hour was over, however, the instructor would assign one more taped interview with a foreign student, noting that this second interview should be done, if possible, with a foreign student from a different country or cultural heritage as the first interview. Trainees would be told that they should bring both tapes and recorders with them to the next meeting.

This sixth meeting should serve to further familiarize trainees with the group interview, help them in developing questions for their outside interviews, place them in the position of further examining their own values and biases, and place them in the position of trying to feel or think as they believe a foreign student would. This last factor will hopefully lend to trainees' attempts at empathy for and understanding of foreign students.

Hour Seven

At the beginning of hour seven, the instructor would have trainees go back into their groups and would ask for a volunteer from each group to play excerpts from his tape for the group. The volunteers could stop their tapes at any point and mention his feelings or thoughts on his own or the foreign student's comments at the time. Trainees would be asked to listen for particular exchanges that inferred or seemed to indicate a lack of communication, the presence of a cultural barrier inhibiting interaction, or other problems related to language, understanding and the over-all qualities of the interview. Comments and questions would be welcomed from other group members and the playing of tapes would rotate around the group to the extent that time allowed. Participants would be instructed to use their judgement on which of their two tapes they chose to play or to play parts of each tape so long as they did not monopolize the bulk of the hour. The instructor would mention that trainees should keep their comments brief, because the primary purpose of the exercise is to listen to the nature of the communication and to be thinking about what is happening. At the end of the hour, trainees would be dismissed with no further assignment.

The activities of this hour should bring trainees much closer to an understanding of foreign students and cultural barriers and communication problems that influence the counseling relationship where foreign students are involved. It should provide trainees with a great deal of "food for thought" on their perceptions of foreign students and their personal capacity to develop rapport and comprehend the concerns of international students.

Hour Eight

At the beginning of hour eight, the instructor would have the class arrange their chairs in a circle. He would then call for a discussion of the last class period's activities on listening to the taped interviews. He would ask the class what features of the interviews the trainees found to be most relevant, what problems they experienced in talking and listening to foreign students, what, if any, difficulties seemed to occur for all or most of the trainees, what problems, thoughts or feelings foreign students most widely expressed and what they (trainees) saw as the likely difficulties that would arise in the counseling of foreign students. During the discussion, the instructor would act as facilitator in raising the above questions and in keeping the class from becoming side-tracked. He would endeavor to pick out particularly pertinent aspects of the discussion which seemed to be central issues and the most prevalent aspects of the trainees' interviews with foreign students.

The instructor here should serve to draw the experience and its important components together. He should expand upon and clarify points; and he should emphasize the specific cultural mechanisms and the

problems they create as possible examination items. At the end of the period the instructor would inform students that in the next class meeting, several foreign students will be present and will participate in the class activities. Trainees would be assigned to review their notes from this and previous class meetings of the unit.

This eighth hour would serve to provide a form for trainees' comments and questions on their interviews and discussion from the previous meeting. The instructor's remarks should help to make clear and integrate various elements of the experience and should enable trainees to better comprehend the problems of bias and cultural slant that could interfere with the counseling relationship. Most of the features of the interviews should come to the surface in this period and the instructor's statements should aid students in their recognition of those factors which are ultimately most significant for study and evaluation purposes.

Hour Nine

Arrangements will have been made prior to this meeting for five or six foreign students to attend this and the next meetings of the class. In the making of these arrangements, it is hoped that the foreign students who are able to come to the class are a mixed group, i.e. including both males and females, graduates and undergraduates, and students from at least four different national origins. The instructor and/or the foreign student advisor will have explained the nature of this unit to each of the foreign students and will have answered any questions that these students may have. The instructor will have asked each of the foreign students if they have any remarks

on themselves, their homeland, their impressions of America or American higher education or any anecdotal information on their situation here that they would like to present to the class. If they do, then, following introductions, the class meeting would begin and proceed with the presentations of any or all of the foreign students who have remarks that they want to make. As much time would be taken for this as necessary within the limits of the hour.

If the foreign students have no opening remarks or if they take up only a portion of the period, the class would again be divided into groups with one or more foreign students (depending upon the size of the class) becoming members of each group. The groups would then pursue the group interview procedure as they had done on previous meetings. This time, however, there would obviously be no need for anyone to role-play the assumed responses of a foreign student--this situation would be the "real thing." The instructor would review the rule that the focus person should control the interview and not be afraid to "pass" on a given question or to inquire why a question had been asked. The foreign students would be encouraged to fill the roles of both focus person and questioner.

Participants would carry out this activity until the end of the hour at which time the instructor would thank the foreign students for coming and ask them to return for the next meeting of the class. This last request would be, in essence, a formality since the prior arrangements should have provided for the participation of foreign students who were willing and able to come to two successive meetings.

This ninth hour should serve to provide a framework through

which trainees may further develop an understanding of foreign students, their concerns, opinions, customs, values and observations. It should provide a basis of comparison for trainees to evaluate their role-played responses against those of the foreign students. It would afford trainees the chance to see what the foreign students consider important by the questions they (foreign students) ask. This type of exposure should serve to enhance trainees' chances of developing rapport with those who are culturally different.

Hour Ten

For the first twenty minutes of hour ten, the same group interview technique, with foreign students participating as group members, would be resumed. It might be beneficial to have everyone switch groups. That decision should be left to the instructor's discretion, who may feel that the former groups were going well, in which case he may not want to change them, or, if they seemed to be rather "slow," he would likely want to shift personnel around.

After the allotted time, the instructor would tell students to break their groups and to arrange their chairs in a circle. The instructor would ask for one trainee and one foreign student to volunteer for a role-playing exercise. He would have each student bring his chair to the middle of the circle facing each other. He would ask the foreign student volunteer to play the role of the client and to describe a problem of his own choosing, either a real concern of his own or a simulated concern of a nature, that in the foreign student's experience (personal or vicarious), could have occurred. The instructor

would ask the trainee volunteer to listen closely and to make comments or ask questions when he feels they are necessary.

The role-play would begin and continue for ten minutes with the rest of the class observing. At the end of ten minutes the instructor would stop this role-play session and ask for two more volunteers. They would also proceed for ten minutes at which time two more volunteers would be called for. After the third role-play, the class would be dismissed and the instructor would thank the foreign students for offering their time, their thoughts and their experiences to the class and for sharing of themselves in this unique instructional situation.

The purpose of hour nine is to provide a setting in which trainees and foreign students can share their concerns. It should also serve to present to trainees some of the attributes of a real counseling situation with a foreign student. The trainee volunteers would certainly get a better "feel" for what it might be like to actually come in contact with a foreign student client, and the rest of the class would hopefully see some of the forces operating in the counselor-foreign student client relationship.

Hour Eleven

Hour eleven is reserved for a general review of the unit. The instructor would call for any and all questions or remarks the trainees might have and, when possible, would endeavor to have other trainees answer questions. Trainees would here be able to enter any opinions, positive or negative, of their experiences in the activities of the unit, of foreign students and of cross-cultural problems in the

counseling relationship. For any relevant points that were not raised by trainees during the hour, the instructor would summarize those points, messages or issues important to the unit and attempt in this meeting to crystalize all the elements of the unit into an intelligible whole. At this time the instructor could hand out a list of "dos" and "don'ts" in counseling foreign students as drawn from the handbook

Counseling Foreign Students by Blegen et. al.:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. <u>Do</u> give the student a chance to talk. What he is able to say will be a fair measure of how much he understands of what you say to him. | 1. <u>Don't</u> chatter on to the student about all the services offered by the office. Recognize that he is now being asked to absorb as many new ideas per day as he formerly did in a month. |
| 2. <u>Do</u> encourage the student to talk by asking him questions. He has just traveled over half the globe to reach your campus. | 2. <u>Don't</u> ask the student for his passport as a conversation opener. (In other words, don't be tactless and overbearing.) |
| 3. <u>Do</u> try to make some evaluation of the student's proficiency in English. He is probably expecting it, and it will help you to help him later. | 3. <u>Don't</u> try to teach the student English in one easy lesson. |
| 4. <u>Do</u> get basic information about the student for your permanent records. | 4. <u>Don't</u> pin the student down with a lot of pointed questions. Respect his private affairs. |
| 5. <u>Do</u> give the student a chance to tell you why he came to see you. | 5. <u>Don't</u> be too anxious to make referrals. The student may think you are trying to get rid of him. ¹⁸⁵ |

¹⁸⁵Blegen, et. al., pp. 41-42.

The instructor would inform the class that the next and final meeting of the unit will involve an examination of what they have learned based on material similar to that of the earlier quiz, the hand-out just distributed, and on the major elements of the class activities related to the interviews and role-play situations where cultural differences were of apparent significance.

This hour should serve to provide trainees with the opportunity to ask questions and get clarifications on any points that were previously somewhat confusing. Trainees would have a chance to vent any negative feelings and frustrations they have about the unit's activities or the people and problems of the unit. They would also gain a greater understanding of what kinds of material they will be tested on.

Hour Twelve

This final hour of the unit would be reserved for evaluation purposes. The actual test given to trainees would come from the material and activities of the unit and must, of course, be sensitive to those aspects of the unit. The entire examination will not be outlined here; rather, types of items and examples will be suggested.

1. Fifteen - twenty multiple choice items:

Example: Four major hypotheses developed to explain the adjustment of foreign students in the United States are:

- (1) association, stages, frustration, group contact
- (2) association, relevance, stages, group contact
- (3) frustration, least resistance, group contact, stages
- (4) frustration, relevance, least resistance and group contact

Example: Generally speaking, America's colleges and universities are currently:

- (1) Making less of an effort than in past years to attract foreign students
 - (2) Making formidable efforts to prepare their administrative and service apparatus to handle foreign students
 - (3) Making greater efforts than ever to recruit foreign students
 - (4) Instituting special curriculums for foreign students
2. List the five "dos" and don'ts" of foreign student counseling as outlined by Blegen et. al.

(See Hour Eleven.)

3. List and briefly discuss two possible sources of difficulty in the area of financial problems which might effect foreign students. Pay particular attention to cause and effect relationships.

(For examples see Hour Five.)

4. Give your opinions of this unit. Was it too long, too short? Was it relevant? What would you change if anything?

After the completion of the unit or at some later time, the instructor should perform his own evaluation. He might want to follow the steps outlined in the section on Evaluation in Chapter IV. Essentially, he would be trying to determine if the objectives were appropriate, if activities matched the objectives and if students' learning matched the intended learning objectives of the unit. Also, were the things done (lecture, activity, achievement) that needed to be done and was anything done that turned out to be unnecessary or extraneous. Only after the unit has been tried out could these things be determined in any meaningful way.

SUMMARY

To summarize, the presentation has involved: a background on foreign students in American higher education; an examination of the problems or possible sources of problems that foreign students face; an argument for greater counselor preparation in dealing with the concerns of foreign students; an argument for what might be done toward making that preparation a reality and a look at some of the components of that "what"; and lastly, a description of how a college or university might fit the plan into its counselor education program and how the essential aspects of the plan would operate. These five chapters and the descriptions, explanations and arguments contained herein were written so that a sixth chapter might follow. The sixth chapter is, of course, inferred--it would involve the actual institution of the plan described here, and it would be written by deans, chairmen, counselor education faculty, counselor education students and foreign students in America's colleges and universities.

Some questions can be raised about this thesis in determining what it is and what it is not. Is it a "cure-all" to the problems of foreign students? Not likely. Will it naturally make all counselor education trainees or in-service counselors eminently qualified to handle every concern a foreign student might have? Not likely. Will it necessarily make every trainee who is exposed to it the best counselor he can be? Not likely. On the other hand, will it probably give

counseling trainees a better understanding of foreign students and their problems? Yes. Will it probably provide a framework through which trainees may better understand cultural variance and cultural bias? Yes. Might it lend itself to a greater overall awareness among trainees of their views and attitudes toward foreign students? Probably. Does it cost a lot? No. Will counseling education departments need to hire a new faculty member to teach it or require materials not readily available? No. Is there evidence in the literature which indicates that it, or something like it, is needed? Undoubtedly, yes.

APPENDIX A

When this writer was taking his counseling practicum, there happened also to be a foreign student taking it at the same time. On one of the classes' regular meetings, this foreign girl came in with an anecdote about one of the clients she had recently seen. The client was another foreign girl who had become so infuriated at an acquaintance that she had gotten a container of acid from the chemistry lab and was going to kill the acquaintance. The counseling student told her client that in her (the client's) homeland, she might get away with committing such an act, but here, the police had very sophisticated tools of investigation and that she would certainly be found out and would face a severe penalty. The client, though still somewhat resistant, changed her mind after hearing that she might wind up in jail for a large part of her life if she killed her acquaintance.

A simple enough solution to avoid a tragedy? Yes. But would every domestic counselor have thought to mention the penalties for murder in this country? Might a domestic counselor have assumed that his foreign client understood the legal and law enforcement aspects of the United States and never have mentioned these things, and instead, tried to get at the problem in another, less effective, manner? It is hard to say.

Had this circumstance not occurred in my own experience, I would have never actually been forced to consider the very simple notion that foreign students often lack basic information about the country

in which they seek an education. I submit that many, perhaps most, counseling trainees would not have realized this fact without some kind of exposure of an information-gathering nature to foreign students. If such simple, basic considerations can elude our attention, how many subtle, obscure, more complex elements of cultural difference can also pass without notice? For this reason, I have written a program to help meet the need of greater counselor awareness of foreign students' problems. I sincerely hope it will be put into use for the sake of foreign students and the counseling profession.

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