DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 464 560 HE 034 875

AUTHOR Udoh, Bridget Oscar
TITLE Cultural Adjustment of Foreign Students in an Institution of Higher Education.
PUB DATE 2000-12-00
NOTE 125p.; Doctoral Dissertation, Louisiana State University. Page numbers in table of contents do not agree with document. Contains small print. Appendixes C and D contain significantly cropped text.
PUB TYPE Dissertations/Theses - Doctoral Dissertations (041) -- Tests/Questionnaires (160)
EDRS PRICE MF01/PC05 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Acculturation; Adjustment (to Environment); *Cultural Differences; *Foreign Students; Higher Education; *Student Adjustment; Student Attitudes; *Undergraduate Students
IDENTIFIERS *Louisiana State University

ABSTRACT

Foreign students frequently encounter problems adjusting to new social environments while attending institutions of higher education. The purpose of this study was to describe the level of social difficulty experienced by foreign students from different regions of the world while studying in the United States. The target population for this study consisted of 748 undergraduate foreign students enrolled at Louisiana State University (LSU) in the spring of 2000. The accessible population was all students enrolled in English as a Second Language (ESL). The sample consisted of 178 of such students enrolled in English 1004 and 1005 (ESL) classes during the spring 2000 semester. The number of actual participants was 105, which represented 59% of the sample. The instrument used in this study was a Social Situation Questionnaire (SSQ) adapted by S. Bochner (1982). The study revealed a "model" to help explain the social difficulty experienced by foreign students at LSU. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine this model. Variables that made significant contributions to the model included: (1) whether or not the student was Asian; (2) whether or not the student was a senior; (3) length of stay in the United States; and (4) age. It is concluded that undergraduate foreign students at LSU experience low levels of social difficulty. The refinement of the model is recommended. Four appendixes contain a classification of the countries of origin of these students, items from the SSQ, the SSQ, and the participation consent form. (Contains 38 tables and 138 references.) (SLD)

CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN AN INSTITUTION OF HIGHER EDUCATION

A Dissertation

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
Louisiana State University and
Agricultural and Mechanical College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

in

The School of Vocational Education

by
Bridget Oscar Udoh
B.S., Southern University, 1984
M.Ed., Southern University, 1985
December, 2000

DEDICATION

I wish to dedicate this study to my husband, Oscar Okon Udoh and children Idorenyin, Eme, and Iboro-Umoh. Every time the academic journey became long, difficult and discouraging you urged me to push on to the end.

I further dedicate this work to my late father, Paul Ekong Uyon and my mother, Maria Paul Uyon. To my late father, I say thank you for your foresight in education. And to my mother, thank you for your constant reminder to me during my early school years of the pecuniary and non-pecuniary returns to education. I treasure the advice and guidance that I received from you.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to first acknowledge God for the guidance, faith and affirmations to complete this course of life. A number of people have provided the support needed for me to complete this program of study. It is indeed a pleasure to thank and acknowledge, with my deepest appreciation, some of the people who contributed to this endeavor.

I would like to express my appreciation to Dr. Geraldine Holmes who served as my major professor for this research project. Throughout this academic endeavor, Dr. Holmes was a great mentor, whose keen insight and expertise guided this project through every stage. Her support, encouragement, patience and guidance were a source of inspiration to me. I only hope to repay what I have learnt from Dr. Holmes by passing it on to another student someday.

Appreciation is also extended to the members of my dissertation committee for their ongoing support and encouragement: Dr. Michael F. Burnett who generously gave hours of his time, vision and personal encouragement, Dr. Charles Grenier, Dr. Thomas J. Durant and Dr. Vincent Kuetemeyer.

Thanks to the Graduate School for giving me a Fellowship that enabled me to complete this program.

I am indebted to my husband, Oscar Okon Udoh for his continuing prayers, love and encouragement. This dissertation would not have been completed without the love, prayers and support of my children, Idorenyin, Eme, and Iboro, and my Goddaughter, Aniefiok Ekpe who believed in me.

I would like to thank Mr. Erin Schmidt and Natalie Rigby of the International Students Office for all their support as I prepared for my data collection. My deepest and most sincere appreciation go to Mr. Bernie Braun of the Office of Budget and Planning for providing me with the relevant information on the foreign student population, Margaret Borland and Patricia Murphey of ELOP for giving me a portion of my pilot study group. My deepest appreciation go to Ms. Edith Babin, Dennis, Howes, Fluitt-Dupuy, Roberts, Mundt, and Mr. Abraham of ESL for giving me the study sample group. My sincere thanks also go to Mrs. Virginia Grenier for providing me relevant information on the LSU Hospitality Foundation.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

Tables

ABSTRACT

Foreign students frequently encounter problems in adjusting to their new social environment when studying at institutions of higher education. The purpose of this study was to describe the level of social difficulty experienced by foreign students from different regions of the world while studying in the United States.

The target population for this study consisted of 748 undergraduate foreign students enrolled at Louisiana State University (LSU) in the spring of 2000. The accessible population was all students enrolled in English as a Second Language (ESL). The sample consisted of the 178 undergraduate foreign students enrolled in English 1004 and 1005 (ESL) classes during the spring 2000 semester. The number of actual participants was 105 which represented 59% of the sample. The instrument used in this study was a Social Situation Questionnaire adapted from Bochner (1982). Results showed that although comparisons did not reveal statistically significant differences between groups, a substantively and statistically significant model existed which enhanced the researcher's ability to accurately explain social difficulty experienced by foreign students enrolled at LSU. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine the model that explained the subjects' social difficulty level. Variables which made significant contributions to the model included: whether or not the student was Asian, whether or not the student was a senior, length of stay in the U.S., and age. It was concluded that undergraduate foreign students at LSU experience low levels of social difficulty. The refinement of the model was recommended.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

What does the adjustment of foreign students mean? A review of previous research on foreign students in higher education does not reveal a strong consensus on the meaning of the concept of college adjustment. Some researchers (Johnson, 1971; Stafford et al., 1980; Taft, 1977; Vaz, 1984) view adjustment as whether a student experiences specific problems in behavioral terms in college while other researchers (Alexander et al., 1976; Baker & Siryk, 1984; Bennett & Okinaka, 1990; Chartrand, 1992; Hurtado et al., 1996; Klein, 1977; Smeldley et al., 1993) view adjustment as the process by which students avoid and/or overcome some form of psychological distress. According to Al-Sharideh et al., (1998), in both cases, researchers typically view adjustment as representing a transitional process that unfolds over time as students cope with the demands of the university environment. In this study, adjustment will be viewed as a process in which the students avoid and/or overcome stressful social situations as they cope with the daily operations of life in their new environment.

Foreign students in American higher education institutions bring a lot of value to the programs as well as to the institutions they attend. According to Kaneya, (1997) "Foreign students spend more than $7 billions annually while studying in the United States (U. S.). The tuition fee alone amounts to $3 billion. The U. S. Department of Commerce ranks U. S. higher education as the fifth largest exporter of services in the country" (p. 2). More recent figures are even higher. For example, the Association of International Educators (now known as NAFSA-National Association for Foreign Student Affairs) reported that the 490,933 foreign students enrolled in the United States contributed almost $11.7 billion into the U.S. economy during the 1998/99 academic year. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/facts00.html, August 20, 2000. Also, during the 1998-99 academic year, the 6,413 foreign students and their families made an economic contribution to the state of Louisiana netting $236,316,994.25. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/econimpact3.html.

The Institute for International Education estimates that expenditure made by foreign students in the U. S. creates over 100,000 jobs (Ghosh, 1997). According to the former U.S. trade representative,

Mickey Kantor, it is estimated that over 156,000 U.S. jobs are dependent on the expenditure of foreign students. [Online] available at: http:// www.nafsa.org.advo/facts.html, August 20, 2000.

In addition to financial benefits, foreign students are valuable to U. S. institutions of higher learning in other ways. The impact of foreign students in American higher education institutions can be an enriching and rewarding experience. The President of Daytona Beach Community College, presented it well when he said:

> They are now our neighbors and colleagues and we need to be aware of their culture, beliefs, and native languages. They are also our strength as we face global competition. Their insights, languages, ways of doing business will enable us as a nation to better serve our international customers as we become more integrated in the global market place. This diversity adds to the quality of our lives (Hartsell, 1999, p.2).

The implications are that U. S. institutions must view themselves as playing an important role in a global context by encouraging strong representation of international students on their campuses. One way of doing this is to make a real effort to build international dimensions into curricula. Educators, too, must create environments in which prospective students feel welcome. Given the projected changes in the demographic constitution of the U. S. toward a more culturally diverse population in the immediate future (Leon & Kim, 1991), there is great need for increasing services and programs to foreign students.

Students study outside their home countries all the time. According to Zikopoulos (1993), the U. S. Census of Foreign Students shows World regions of foreign students to include Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America, Middle East, North America, and Oceania. World subregions consist of certain countries within each region. Each world region has cultural problems endemic to it, and foreigners from every region bring along a "cultural baggage" when they move into a host culture even for a temporary stay. A cultural baggage could include things like language barriers, religion, politics and climate (Milton, 1997).

According to Milton, everyone who moves into a new culture whether within or outside the home country experiences some difficulties at some point. Such difficulties generally lead to a stressful condition known as "culture shock". Furnham and Bochner (1989) view culture shock as a situation in which a sojourner is unfamiliar with the social conventions of the new culture, or unable or unwilling to

perform according to the rules. Culture shock refers to the distress experienced by sojourners as a result of losing all the familiar signs and symbols of social interaction (Bochner, 1982). Culture shock happens in different environments. An individual may experience a form of it in an intra-national or international move, such as moving from one region of the country to another, from one country to another, or when one changes jobs. Social difficulty is one of numerous forms of stress experienced by sojourners in their new environment. Bochner, (1982) defines social difficulty as "feeling anxious, uncomfortable, frightened, embarrassed or uneasy" (p. 178). Culture shock carries a negative connotation, therefore, a more preferred term is "culture learning" or "social learning" (Bochner, 1982). The difference between culture shock and culture learning is that in culture learning, a new sojourner does not have to assimilate the host culture but rather learn the verbal and non-verbal facets of interaction in the new society. However, many people may experience inadequacy in the new culture, a situation known as "social difficulty" (Bochner, 1982). According to the author:

> "socially inadequate individuals" are unable to learn a wide range of interpersonal skills due to parenting and peer group relationships, and because of other forms of social and physical deprivation. Socially inadequate individuals are also unable to accurately interpret or perform non-verbal signals, master the social conventions of the society, and may also be unaware of many of the rules of social behavior pertaining to their own particular subgroup. Examples of the specific behaviors which the socially incompetent perform unsatisfactorily include expressing attitudes, feelings and emotions; adopting the appropriate proxemic posture; understanding the gaze patterns of the people they are interacting with; carrying out ritualized routines such as greetings, leaving-taking, self-disclosure, making or refusing requests, and asserting themselves (Bochner, 1982, p. 165).

According to various researchers (Furnham, 1979; Hall, 1959; Hall & Beil-Warner, 1978; Leff, 1977), these social elements vary among cultures. Therefore, it is assumed that people who are new to a culture will experience initial social difficulty in their new environment. This predicament has led researchers to identify several models to help sojourners cope with their cultural adjustment problems. Among the models, the social skills model has stimulated much research and been effectively used to assess and treat social inadequacy (Bochner, 1982). According to Bochner, "the social skills model has been developed and used primarily in connection with the problem of intra-cultural social inadequacy" (p.165). The model which was developed at Oxford University was further extended to use with social incompetence of the cross-cultural sojourner. The social skills/culture-learning model states that "culture shock occurs when a sojourner is unfamiliar with the social conventions of the new culture, or if familiar

with them, unable or unwilling to perform according to these rules" (Furnham & Bochner,1986, p.250). Since individuals in a new culture are not familiar with the rules or the behavioral patterns of the host environment, they are socially unskilled in that environment. According to Bochner (1982), "individuals in this predicament include foreign students, visiting academics, businessmen and diplomats" (p.166). Some of these individuals who are highly skilled in the verbal and non-verbal aspects of interaction in their home countries, find their inadequacy in the new environment frustrating and embarrassing. The social skills model assumes that rather than adjusting themselves to a new culture, sojourners learn selected aspects of the culture which can be discarded when they are no longer functional, such as when the sojourner is among fellow nationals or after returning home. The social skills model that was extended by Bochner (1982) to cross-cultural sojourners has "implications for the understanding and management of cross-cultural incompetence" (p.166). According to Bochner, the theoretical guidelines for helping the sojourner learn the social rules of the new culture include: first identifying the specific social situations which trouble the sojourner, and then giving the individual specific training in the deficient skills.

The current cultural training models are gradually moving beyond cultural sensitivity to culture-specific knowledge that will enhance foreign students' adjustment strategies. Current research aimed at exploring models that address culture-specific social factors that contribute to successful adjustment of foreign students in higher education settings is solely needed along with models being explored to assess and treat social inadequacy. The social skills model is a good example of such a model.

Although foreign students come to the United States to study, their social life (such as shopping, dating, and party interaction) is equally important to their daily living. In order to function effectively in the host culture, foreign students must lead a well rounded life, in and out of the classroom by learning the skills needed to live a normal daily life. However, such skills may be lacking in some sojourners (including foreign students), thus causing them some social problems. Foreign students are also faced with adjustment problems such as homesickness, loneliness, language deficiency, financial difficulties, food, and housing needs (Brislin, 1975). The problems could be caused by any combination of cultural, social, personal or academic factors (Cao-Linglan, 1997).

According to Dalili (1982), the United States government has been actively involved in exchange programs and foreign student activities since the 1940s. Even as early as 1951, President Harry S. Truman was quoted as referring to the Fulbright Exchange program by stating that "This program is vitally important in widening the knowledge and technical ability of the peoples of the twelve participating countries." [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/presidents.html, (August 2000). Also, more recently, President Clinton made a similar statement when he said "No one who has lived through the second half of the 20th century could possibly be blind to the enormous impact of exchange programs on the future of countries." [Online]. Available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/presidents.html. In support of his statement, President Clinton also signed an executive memorandum on international education on April 19, 2000. The goal of the memorandum is to at least double America's exchange opportunities in higher education in the next ten years. The implication is that new ways of recruiting and retaining foreign students must be sought. Several factors such as the quality of education attract foreign students to the United States. Other factors include limited opportunity in higher education throughout most of the world, the interest of America in global issues, the pre-eminence of the U. S. in scientific and technical fields, and the fact that English is a world language (Dalili, 1982).

The phenomenon of student and scholar movement across cultural boundaries is not new because it has gone on from ancient days to modern times, particularly in the period after the Second World War (Bochner, 1982). For example, between 1950 and 1979, several million students received their advanced academic education in institutions of higher education located in countries other than their own (Kapoor & Smith, 1978). During the 1998/1999 academic year alone, some 490,933 students from around the world enrolled in U.S. universities and colleges (NAFSA). This figure represents approximately three percent of total enrollment in U.S. colleges and universities. After WWII, the U. S. presidents encouraged the international student exchange program to boost the economic and intellectual resources of the country. The program is still being encouraged by the current U.S. president. [Online]. Available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/presidents.html, (August 2000). The International Student Exchange Program (ISEP) "arranges university-level exchanges on a reciprocal basis between participating U.S. institutions and participating institutions outside the United States. More than 200

institutions in 34 countries are members of the ISEP network". [Online]. Available at: http://www.miusa.org/participant/prog19.htm.

Researchers have investigated the adjustment problems of foreign students in the United States as far back as the 1950s (Bennett, Passin & McKnight, 1958; Lambert & Bressler, 1956; Morris, 1960; Scott, 1956; Selltiz et al, 1963; Sewell & Davidsen, 1961). One of the concepts of the well-being of sojourners was introduced by Oberg in 1960. The concept was that entering a new culture is potentially a confusing and disorienting experience (Bochner, 1982). Since then, this negative concept has been used to explain the difficulties of the cross-cultural sojourn. The difficulties experienced by young American Peace Corp members in the 1960s led to research studies aimed at alleviating stress among volunteers (Bochner, 1982). This research movement by clinical psychologists (Guthrie, 1975; Guthrie & Zeektick, 1967; Harris, 1973; Smith, 1966; Textor, 1966) was the first major attempt to prepare people for work and study in other cultures. On the one hand, clinical psychologists take the therapeutic approach to solving problems related to adjustment to a new culture, while Bochner (1982) takes the culture learning model approach which states that:

> The major task facing a sojourner is not to adjust to a new culture, but to learn its salient characteristics. In particular, if the sojourner is to work effectively in the new setting, and lead a relatively stress-free and fulfilling life, the person must acquire the social skills of the host culture, especially knowledge necessary to negotiate everyday social encounters with members of the receiving society (p.164).

Statement of the Problem

Students from all regions of the world who come to study in the U. S. must adapt, not only to the American culture, but also sometimes to other cultures within the environment where they live. These pressures are felt by foreign students both on campus and off campus on a daily basis. They must decide whether to retain part, none, or all of their original culture in order to lead productive lives in their new environment. "Foreign students are likely to experience more problems than students in general and have access to fewer resources to help them solve these problems" (Brislin, 1975, p.2). More specifically, foreign students in U.S. institutions of higher education experience adjustment problems (culture shock) in spite of their intellectual and financial contributions to the country. Foreign students have had to rely

more on one another than any other source. This study will be of benefit to foreign students, especially newcomers to the American higher education system, who must succeed in spite of all odds.

Institutions in the U. S. are faced with challenges in responding to the needs of international students. With the rapid changes in technology (distance learning) and global tuition competition, foreign students are turning to other countries and methods for their higher educational needs. Also, the recent Asian crisis may eventually impact U.S. enrollment. Therefore, the institutions that value the enrollment of foreign students, for both the scholarly contributions and economic impact on society, will have to be innovative in recruiting and retaining foreign students.

Purpose of the Study

Researchers (Guthrie, 1975; Guthrie & Zektick, 1967; Harris, 1973; Smith, 1966; Textor, 1966) have shown problems encountered by Peace Corps volunteers in the 1960s of adapting to the lifestyle of the host culture. Similarly, in the private sector, during the post-war era, multinational trade increased and companies found that their overseas operations were negatively impacted by the inability of their staff to cope with unfamiliar social and business practices (Fayerweather, 1959; Skinner, 1968; Triandis, 1967; Wilson, 1961). Also, military personnel and technical experts experienced similar problems (Boxer, 1969; Brislin, 1979). Other researchers (Alexander, Workneh, Klein, & Miller 1976; Tayash, 1988) emphasized the assimilation into American culture as a significant factor influencing the adjustment of foreign students. Because of these and similar previous research findings in the area of foreign students' adjustment to host cultures, it is hypothesized that foreign students experience some degree of social difficulty when they come to study in the United States depending on their individual characteristics as well as cultural background. Older students, male students, students from different religious backgrounds, climate, and political background are expected to experience different kinds and levels of adjustment problems in the host culture.

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationship that exists between proximity of culture and level of social difficulties experienced by foreign students from specific world regions while studying at an institution of higher education in the United States.

Objectives

The following objectives were formulated to guide the research:

1. To describe the undergraduate foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States (U.S.) based on the following selected demographic characteristics:
   a. Country of origin
   b. Length of stay in the United States
   c. Marital status
   d. Gender
   e. Age
   f. Level of previous work experience in home country
   g. Field of study
   h. College classification

Research shows that the experience of female students differs in some respects from male students (Goldsmith & Shawcross, 1985; Rowe & Sjoberg, 1981). Nationality, field of study, academic level, age, socioeconomic status, marital status and a host of other demographic characteristics have been also found to affect the level of problem and adjustment experienced by foreign students (Zikopoulos, 1993).

It is important to know the background of the students in order to design an effective orientation program for them. Different cultures have different patterns of social difficulty associated with everyday situations (Bochner, 1982).

2. To determine the Social Difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States.
3. To compare the social difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students currently enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States based on the following selected demographic characteristics:
   a. Gender
   b. World region
   c. Marital status
   d. Field of study

e. Level of previous experience in home country

f. College classification

Without the benefit of knowing the needs of the foreign students, appropriate orientation programs cannot be designed and evaluated to meet students' needs, thus leading to frustration and waste of resources. By comparing the difficulties among different world regions, specific programs can be organized for the respective regions. In the past, very little empirical work was done on everyday social situations involving people from different cultures (Van der Kolk, 1978).

4. Determine if a model exists to explain a significant portion of the variance in the extent to which foreign students experience social difficulty from the following selected demographic and perceptual measures:

a. Country of origin

b. Length of stay in the United States

c. Marital status

d. Gender

e. Age

f. Level of previous experience in home country

g. Field of study

h. College classification

Previous studies have found that such demographic characteristics as gender, academic level (undergraduate versus graduate), and nationality have played a role in social difficulty levels experienced by foreign students (Bryant & Trower, 1974; Rim, 1976; Magnusson & Stanttin, 1978).

Findings from this study will enable institutions to tailor the foreign student orientation programs to the perceived similarities and differences among cultures and thus save some time and money on planning, implementing and evaluating effective orientation programs.

Significance of the Study

The importance of the social aspect of any student's life cannot be overemphasized. Socially competent individuals are more adept at navigating everyday social situations whether it is in the

classroom or outside. The findings from this study can be used by foreign student orientation program designers, institutions, administrators, teachers and future students to help them cope with their social problems in their adjustment process. Activities can be designed that will expose students to life off campus to help them adapt to American life in order to help them improve their scholarship and research.

The institutions of higher learning will benefit from this study because the higher education community will become more capable of attracting and retaining foreign students at a time when foreign student enrollment is declining in the United States (Lester, 1998). Results from the study can also provide information to teachers in United States colleges and universities concerning foreign students' needs on their campuses. Administrators, too, could use the information to plan programs that more effectively address the needs of their foreign student population.

Limitations of the Study

Although the English language classes provided an efficient way of reaching many students, the study was limited by the fact that some instructors did not grant permission for such exercise as questionnaire completion during class time, and that some students chose not to take part in the study. Additionally, some of the participants did not meet the study's inclusion criteria as well as possibility of typographical errors when entering data. On the other hand, this method of data collection has various advantages over mail option because of the high response rate, immediate response, and elimination of postage, and follow-up process.

Definition of Terms

1. Foreign student

Refers to anyone who is enrolled in courses at accredited institutions of higher education in the United States who is not a U.S. citizen, an immigrant (permanent resident) or a refugee (Zikopoulos, 1993).

2. Research I University

These institutions offer a full range baccalaureate programs, are committed to graduate education through the doctorate and give high priority to research. (National Science Foundation). [Online] at: http://www.nsf.gov/sbe/srs/seind98/access/c2/c2s4.htm

3. Culture

Human culture was founded in prehistoric times originating from the development of tools; the start of farming; the growth of cities; and the development of writing. A culture is a set of cultural traits that meets the needs of a large group of people and ensures their survival (The World Book Encyclopedia, 1986). Cultures differ from one part of the world to another. For example, eating is a common theme, but what people eat, when and how they eat, and how food is prepared differ among different cultures. Most people do not realize how greatly culture influences their behavior until they come across other cultures. Then they come to see that things which they viewed as natural were only cultural. When cultures come in contact, it brings about change in the cultures involved. Cultures borrow traits from one another especially if a new trait is better than a traditional one. When foreign students come to study in American institutions, they frequently encounter problems (culture shock) adjusting to their new social environment (Al-Sharideh & Goe,1998). For many foreign students, struggling with culture shock upon arrival in the U. S. is full of pain.

4. Cultural Adjustment

The process of learning about American behaviors and values and coping with them is part of cultural adjustment. Sojourners do not have to give up all aspects of their cultural identity to make it through cultural adjustment process. The United States is a country of immigrants with variety of cultural traditions and practices. This unique diversity means there is no single uniform "American culture". However, certain standards of behavior are accepted in the U. S. that may be different from other cultures. Thus the process of learning about American lifestyle. [Online]. Available at: http://www.cal.org/rsc/A14CULT.HTM

5. Cultural shock

Going to another country can be a frightening experience because of the differences in culture and customs that could cause serious misunderstanding between ethnic groups. This presents a stressful situation commonly labeled "cultural shock". People feel most comfortable within their own culture and they prefer the company of others who share their culture. When people have to deal with persons of another culture, even small differences in behavior may make them uneasy. The difficulty or uneasiness

that people undergo when they leave their own culture and enter another is called culture shock. (Malik, 2000).

6. NAFSA - National Association for Foreign students Affairs
7. TOEFL scores – The scores obtained by the student in the Test of English as a Second Language.
8. LSU – Louisiana State University
9. Higher Education – The group of colleges and universities in the United States which are accredited by agencies recognized by the Secretary of Education (Zikopoulos, 1993).
10. World Regions – The regions of the world, and the subregions, countries, territories, and other places of origin within each region (Zikopoulos, 1993).
11. Sojourner - Someone who lives somewhere temporarily (Webster's NewWorld Dictionary).

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This review of literature is intended to provide the foundation for studying the phenomena of foreign student cultural adjustment and the predictors for successful adjustment in the United States. The review is organized in seven sections. The first section discusses the contributions of foreign students to the United States. The second section discusses the impact of social situations on foreign students in the United States. The third section discusses models used in foreign student adjustment programs. The fourth section discusses social networks of foreign students. The fifth section discusses stressful social situations. The sixth section discusses previous, related studies. The final section discusses the Adaptation of Bochner's (1982) Instrument: Social Situation Questionnaire.

Contributions of Foreign Students to the United States

Intellectual Capital

Foreign students make significant contributions to the U. S. through scholarship by providing vital connections to global academic communities and enabling students to interact with peers from other countries. This dynamic involvement fosters international linkages in foreign trades and foreign diplomacy. As U. S. education institutions strive to be part of the global marketplace, the country stands to benefit enormously. Hill (1996) reported that of the 10,493 foreign students who received doctorate degrees in Science and Engineering in 1995, most planned to remain in the United States. Over 50% of those who planned to remain in the U. S. continued in their postdoctoral work while 25% were employed in industry, and 13% were employed in academia. These individuals contribute intellectual capital to the U. S. basic research infrastructure. Additionally, foreign teaching and research assistants (especially in science and engineering fields) constitute an inexpensive source of labor because of inadequate American students to fill these positions (National Science Foundation, 1987; Brislin, 1990, p. 176).

A recent article by Milem (2000, September-October) in the Academe supports the intellectual contributions of multicultural students when he states that:

> Students who interact with peers of different backgrounds or who take courses with diversified curricular content show greater growth in their critical thinking skills than those who do not do so. They also tend to be more engaged in learning and are more likely to stay enrolled in college, to report greater satisfaction with their college experience, and to seek graduate or professional degrees. Similarly, students educated in racially and ethnically heterogeneous institutions assess

> their academic, social, and interpersonal skills more highly than do students from homogeneous colleges and universities. In addition to these benefits, diversified environments give students opportunities to develop the skills and competencies they will need to function effectively as citizens of an increasingly diverse democracy. Those who interact with peers of different backgrounds while in college are more likely to engage in community service. They also demonstrate greater awareness and acceptance of people from other cultures and are more committed to improving race relations in our society (p. 28).

For example, Milem pointed out in the same article that a recent study of law students at Harvard University and the University of Michigan found that exposure to diversity in law school significantly affected students' views about the U.S. criminal justice system and improved their understanding of civil rights and social and economic institutions in the society. These students were said to report that interacting with peers from different backgrounds allowed them to engage in discussions they would not otherwise have had, and that it improved their ability to work and get along with others.

Findings from a recent research in the Academe (2000, September-October), which was jointly sponsored by the American Council on Education and the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), also lent support to the intellectual benefit of the multicultural classroom. For example, empirical evidence from the three studies which involved faculty and students, support the contention that "racial and ethnic diversity contribute to the robust exchange of ideas that characterizes intellectual excellence on college campuses" (Academe, p.57). Some of the findings from the studies in support of the intellectual contributions of a diversified classroom included:

1. Perceptions from faculty that students benefit from learning in a racially and ethnically diverse environment because of the exposure to new perspectives and in their willingness to examine their own perspectives. Faculty also reported that diversity provides interaction important for developing critical thinking and leadership skills.
2. An overwhelmingly strong (97%) endorsement from the Macalester survey faculty respondents agreed that diversity enhances learning.
3. Faculty respondents reported that they needed "diversity to teach to their highest potential and that having multiracial and multiethnic classrooms allows them to be more successful in helping their classes achieve the educational outcomes they envision" (p. 57). Also, students at the University of Maryland reported that they learned more about others and acquired broader perspectives on

issues in diverse classes, as well as learning more about themselves. By being exposed to others' experiences and viewpoints, students became more aware of their own opinions and biases.

Financial Capital

Affluent international students have long been a pot of gold for many American colleges and universities. Nearly all foreign students pay full tuition and fees, and they often spend freely on their extracurricular activities. The almost 500,000 foreign students currently in the U.S. institutions of higher learning contributed more than $11.7 billion to the economy in 1998, according to NAFSA. [Online]. Available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/facts00.html.

In 1998, the National Science Foundation reported that undergraduate enrollment of foreign students had grown very modestly in the past two decades, and also indicated that in 1995, foreign students still represented only two percent of total undergraduate enrollment. [Online]. At: http://www.nsf.gov/sbe/srs/seind98/access/c2/c2s4.htm

The loss of foreign students in higher education will not only cause these institutions to suffer, said Althen, director of the Office of International Students and Scholars at the University of Iowa. Althen declared that it isn't just the schools that will suffer financially, if enrollment of foreign students continue to decline. The landlords, the store owners, the car dealerships, the telephone companies, and the banks in those communities will also sustain economic loss. [Online]. Http://www.nafsa.org/acc/itm.

Louis, (1998, February 17) of The Wall Street Journal reported recently that U.S. universities, longtime magnet for foreign students, are facing more competition from other nations hoping to cash in on that lucrative market. Many other countries are stepping up their efforts in recruiting foreign students. Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and Japan have launched various marketing activities, including hosting college fairs abroad. Last year, Japan eased its immigration restrictions to make it easier for foreign students to enter the country. Britain is subsidizing marketing efforts by its universities abroad. Australia is promoting the fact that its foreign students have an easier time working part-time jobs than in the U.S. [Online]. Available at: http://www.nafsa.org/acc/itm_6.0.html

NAFSA also reported that currently, almost 500,000 foreign students enrolled in U.S. institutions contribute nearly $11.7 billion to the US economy. In support of this claim, NAFSA stated that over 80% of undergraduate foreign students finance their education in the US primarily from personal and family resources. [Online]. Available at: http://www.opendoorsweb.org. OpenDoors also added that "competition from other English speaking countries coupled with stronger regional systems of academic exchange will mean that the number of internationals studying in the U.S. will fall" (p.2). [Online] available at: http://www.opendoorsweb.org/Lead%20Stories/future.htm

Louis (1998), stated that U.S. college officials remain confident they can continue to attract large numbers of foreign students because of the prestige of their institutions. However, in recent years, growth rates have been flat, and the economic turmoil in Asia, which accounts for 57% of America's foreign students, may offer an opportunity for foreign competitors.

Additionally, Louis stated that nearby Canada, which has 95,000 foreign students, is setting up new educational-information centers in Latin America as a marketing strategy to attract students to Canadian institutions. Canada is using cheaper tuition and safe campuses to sell their academic institutions to foreign students including U.S. students. For example, a Taiwanese student reported that she chose Canada over the U.S. because Canadian tuition was about four times lower than that of the U.S.

Louis concluded by reporting that in contrast, the U.S. government has been scaling back some of its outreach efforts in foreign student recruitment. In the meantime, Canada is taking steps to fill the gap left by Asia's continuing financial crisis by targeting Latin America and the Middle East. Besides the financial contributions to the U.S. economy, foreign students return to their countries and hold political positions, become diplomats, policy and decision makers and deal with the U.S. at governmental levels.

Marcus (2000), of The Associated Press, summed it up well when he said, "They [foreign students] go home and, by virtue of their U.S. degrees, they tend to achieve diplomatic or commercial prominence in their countries. They become our customers." [Online] available at: http://www.techserver.com/newsroom/ntn/biz/011598/biz15_28402_S3_noframes.html

Providers of Diversity and International Representation

There are added advantages for American students who interact with foreign students in their institutions. Foreign students bring a rich cultural and intellectual background to the U.S. For example, talented and hard-working foreign students serve as excellent role models for U.S. students. Also, at the graduate level, foreign students fill key research positions, especially in science and engineering where adequate numbers of qualified American students are lacking (NAFSA, 2000). [Online]. Available at: http://www.embark.com/nafsa/International.asp. Additionally, "approximately one-fifth of all the doctoral degrees awarded by U.S. institutions and one-third of doctorates in engineering, mathematics, and the physical and biological sciences are earned by international students" (p.1). [Online]. Available at: http://www

.embark.com/nafsa/International.asp (p.1). Therefore, when American students interact with peers from other countries, they are better able to understand and respect the contributions made to the U.S. by foreign students. They also become aware of the interconnection between their local communities and the rest of the world. The presence of foreign students helps create an appreciation and value for the diversity of the world's cultures which could help deepen people's understanding of their own culture.

In light of this fact, Rood (2000) of the Probe Ministries, gave two intriguing facts about international students that should be of interest to institutions of higher learning. Rood stated that:

1. Approximately 60% of the foreign students in the U.S. come from what is known as the "10/40 Window." This group of countries is located between the 10th and 40th degree northern parallels, where 90% of the world's "unreached peoples" live. And "The door into these countries may be closed or barely open, but the door out is wide open!" [Online]. Available at:

http://leaderu.com/orgs/probe/docs/missions.html.

2. International students compose the pool from which many of the world's future leaders will emerge, recalling Hanna's declaration in a talk delivered at Park Street Church in Boston in 1975, that between one-third and one-half of the world's top positions in politics, business, education and the military would be filled in the next twenty-five years by foreign students who were then attending colleges and universities in the United States. Today, that declaration has come true. [Online] available at: http:

//leaderu.com/orgs/probe/docs/missions.html Impact of Social Situations on Foreign Students

There is no single, uniform "American culture" since the United States is a nation of immigrants who brought with them a variety of cultural traditions and practices. However, there are certain standards of behavior which are accepted in the United States that may appear strange and cause foreign students great discomfort. This process of cultural adjustment, learning about American behaviors and values and coping with them, has a great impact on how foreign students adjust to various social situations.

Foreign students experience different types and levels of adjustment problems when they arrive in the United States. Individuals, cultures and family backgrounds of foreign students are all different. The problems experienced by individual foreign students are also different. For example, students from the Far East and Southeast Asia frequently list lack of English language proficiency as their major problem followed by vocational planning and making friends (Meloni, 1986). African and Latin American students, however, report problems with grades. Asians, Africans, and Latin Americans perceive their host community as unfriendly, thus making it difficult to make friends, which leads to isolation (Meloni, 1986; Reinicke, 1986).

The cultural problems with Arab students include written assignment, since their culture leans more to the verbal aspect of learning than the written aspect. Regardless of academic level (graduate or undergraduate), most Arab students do not encounter written assignment until they come to study in the United States (Zikopoulos, 1992).

Meloni (1986) found that students in the humanities and social sciences had significantly more academic problems than did students in the sciences and engineering. Attempting to use a "one size fits all" approach in designing foreign student orientation program is not the solution to this problem. Orientation programs should not be a one-time thing, but rather an on-going process through out the period of study. One of the ways that U. S. institutions of higher learning can facilitate the adjustment of foreign students is through English language instruction. English language deficiency ranks at the top of the international student problems as reported by Asian and Middle Eastern students (Zikopoulos, 1992). Another approach is requiring pre-departure orientation programs for students in their native countries in addition to a qualifying score on the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) examination.

Additionally, foreign student advisors can play a critical role in identifying and directing stressed students towards outlets to help them ease the adjustment process. Since social isolation had been found to be a major problem among foreign students (Hagemann, 1984), some outlets such as the "Host Family Program", such as found on the LSU campus, and the "Study Buddy Program" (Meloni, 1986) such as the one found on the Duluth campus of the University of Minnesota, seem to be quite successful.

Previously Identified Models for Foreign Student Adjustment

While learning the host culture, foreign students draw on their past experiences. If foreign students' past experiences are not valid in their new host environment, the teachers should teach them to recombine their experiences in new ways so as to become valid (Hagemann, 1984). As early as 1937 when the *Marginal Man* (Stonequist) was published about persons caught between two cultures (Bochner, 1982), various models have been developed to help sojourners cope with their adjustment problems in the host culture. The traditional "sink or swim" model is still popularly used although not very effective because personalities and cultures vary (Brislin & Pederson, 1976, p.28). The next logical step in the study of this issue is the question "How can United States institutions of higher learning assist foreign students in their adjustment to their campuses"? Recently, more researchers have developed more practical models. Some examples of culture learning models include the intellectual model and the intercultural communications workshop model .

The Intellectual Model

This is also known as the university classroom model (Harrison & Hopkins, 1967). This model deals mainly with cross-cultural communications. The intellectual model demonstrates the effort by universities to respond in the area of intercultural education by offering courses directly concerned with cross-cultural communication. "Programs outside the university may also have required readings, tests, or evaluation procedures, and a particular topic may be taught, just as university courses may include experiential exercises or unstructured opportunities" (p. 35). Many off-campus trainers and facilitators of cross-cultural groups also establish affiliations with universities in order to emphasize the experiential approach of cross-cultural training. The weakness of this model is its tendency to generalize abstractly about a topic, culture or process with insufficient attention to the real situation (Brislin & Pederson, 1976). The focus should be on the problems encountered in the situation in relation with communication skills.

Intercultural Communications Workshop

This is a form of human relations training for foreigners and Americans in small group settings. This strategy to cross-cultural orientation was developed in universities where larger numbers of foreign students provide a venue for face-to-face intercultural education with American students (Brislin & Pederson, 1976). This model provides participants with opportunities to ease through the stages of a continuum of culture learning. Trainees learn about their cultures and how they differ from other cultures. This model offers high quality orientation and also deals with interpersonal communication. However, it may be difficult to evaluate its transferability beyond the small group.

The Social Skills Model

This model was developed for intra-cultural social inadequacies but extended into social inadequacy of cross-cultural sojourners. The social skill model views sojourners as selectively ignorant people "in need of education and training, particularly in relation to everyday social encounters with members of the host culture, in the homes, market-place, factories, offices and playing fields of the receiving society" (Bochner, 1982, p165). This model has clear implications for the understanding and

management of cross-cultural incompetence. The first step is identifying the specific social situations which trouble a sojourner, then offering training in the lacking skill.

Most administrators of higher education are focusing on campus orientation programs and English language instruction while neglecting other problem areas of adjustment to life in general. This study will attempt to develop a model, which can account for perceived social difficulties experienced by foreign students while studying in the United States.

The social skills model which has been developed and used primarily for intra-cultural social inadequacy is being extended to the social incompetence of the cross-cultural sojourners such as foreign students. According to Bochner (1982), the social skills model was "developed at Oxford University for work within English society" (p.165). This study adapts the extension of the social skills model to the foreign students. The social skills model has stimulated a great deal of research (e.g. Argyle, 1979; Gambrill, 1977). Particularly, a considerable amount of work has gone into the assessment and treatment of social inadequacy (Sundberg, Snowden & Reynolds, 1978; Trower, Bryant & Argyle, 1978). Bochner (1982) stated that:

> some of the specific behaviors which the socially incompetent perform unsatisfactorily include expressing attitudes, feelings and emotions; adopting the appropriate proxemic posture; understanding the gaze patterns of the people they are interacting with; carrying out ritualized routines such as greetings, leave-taking, self-disclosure, making or refusing requests; and asserting themselves (p.167).

These elements are known to vary across culture (Furnham, 1979; Hall, 1959; Hall & Beil-Warner, 1978; Leff, 1977). Although most foreign students may be intelligent, successful, and socially competent in their native surroundings, when in new cultures they are suddenly thrust into a stage of child misunderstanding, inexperience and perhaps, inability to communicate. Foreign students experience varying degrees of culture shock, insecurity and stress (Hagemann, 1984). Realizing that new foreign students need some help adjusting, university officials arrange trips, invite speakers, present demographic information and advise students on social norms. These activities often expose the students to life off campus in a narrow and passive way. Although such activities may appeal to the cognitive needs of the students, they do not address their emotional needs. The university should find ways to determine their needs and seek to address such needs in order to help the students adapt to their new environment. The

American educators would do well to develop in foreign students, skills that can help them adapt to American life, improve their scholarship and research and to better lead their communities and countries upon returning home. The social skills model has clear implications for the understanding and management of cross-cultural incompetence (Bochner, 1982). The first step in the adaptation process involves the identification of the student's social deficiency and then offering training in those skills that are lacking. Several studies support the efficacy of remedial training (Argyle, 1979; Pendleton & Furnham, 1980; Trower, Bryant & Argyle, 1978). Those skills that are known to be capable of being taught to receptive individuals include perceptive skills, expressive skills, conversation skills, assertiveness, emotional expression, anxiety management, and affiliative skills. Other researchers who studied cultural shock (Hall, 1959; Smalley, 1963; Byrnes, 1965; Guthrie, 1966; Cleveland, Mangone & Adams, 1966; Cary, 1956; Hodgkin, 1972; Singh, 1963) by different names showed no implications for remedial action on how to reduce cultural shock but rather provided a broad theoretical base (Bochner, 1982). More recently, Bochner has stated that:

> culture shock occurs within a specific domain, namely in the social encounters, social situations, social episodes, or social transactions between sojourners and host nationals. The present approach generates specific and testable hypotheses regarding the main determinants of culture shock, namely the lack of requisite social skills with which to negotiate these situations. The present formulation also provides specific implication for research and remedial training, namely the need to identify which social situations, in which sojourner culture-host culture combination, are the most troublesome; and to devise training techniques to teach those specific skills (p.172).

However, social skills are seldom taught or acquired in formal training courses. They are acquired informally within behavior settings that can vary on a wide spectrum. Previously identified models (Bochner, Lin & McLeod, 1980) for helping foreign students adjust to their host environment, although often used as explanatory principles are rather loose and tend to refer to hypothetical events without substance (Bochner, 1982, p. 167). This study will attempt to develop a model that will fill this gap whereby the appropriate steps are taken to identify the students' specific needs and then design a program that can be evaluated based on empirical findings. The social skills model has been found to be the closest model, therefore, will be modeled after in this study. The social skills model is chosen to guide this study because of its uniqueness. The model is specific and at the same time general. It is specific because "it stays very close to its data, and its conclusions rest on information about how

particular groups experience specific situations in particular host societies" (Bochner, 1982, p. 167). The model is general because the empirical outcomes are related to the underlying principle that a smooth social interaction requires a basic, mutual understanding by the participants of the social episodes (Harre, 1977).

Social Networks of Foreign Students

Klineberg (1970), reported that there is often limited personal contact between foreign students and host nationals. Richardson (1974) found that there is a difference in the friendship patterns of British immigrants in Australia. Selltiz and Cook (1962) found that sojourners who reported having at least one close friend who was a host member, experienced fewer difficulties than sojourners with no host culture friends. According to Shattuck (1965), sojourners found personal, informal orientation much more effective than institutionally sponsored assistance.

Bochner et al (Bochner, Buker & McLeod, 1976; Bochner, McLeod & Lin, 1977; Bochner & Orr, 1979) "have shown that sojourning overseas students tend to belong to three social networks" (Bochner, 1982, p.173). The three social networks are monocutural network, bicultural network and foreign student's multicultural circle of friends and acquaintances. The monocutural network consists of close friendship with other sojourner compatriots, the main function of which is to provide a setting for sojourners to rehearse and express their culture of origin. The bicultural network, on the other hand, consists of bonds between sojourners and significant host nationals such as academics, landladies, student advisers and government officials. The main function of the bicultural network is to facilitate the academic and professional aspirations of the sojourner. Finally, the foreign student's multicultural circle of friends and acquaintances has the main function of providing companionship for recreational, non-culture and non-task orientated activities.

> Social network theory has clear implications for the acquisition of the social skills of a second society: culture learning will be a positive function of the number of host culture friends an overseas student has, in particular the extent to which the student has been able to gain membership in suitable bicultural social networks. The advantage of this formulation is that it leads to testable hypotheses (Bochner, 1982, p.173).

This projects that foreign students who have appropriate host culture friends will learn the skills of the second culture more easily than foreign students whose friends are all compatriots. If this is true,

then there is implication for remedial action, such as providing housing conditions to increase the likelihood of the development of suitable bicultural bonds (Bochner, 1982).

This study is an extension of the social psychology of stress therefore a brief review of the theory and research in this area follows below.

Stressful Social Situations

The existence of stressful situations is the distinctive feature of the social psychology approach. This approach was directed by Endler and Magnusson (1976) and Endler and Hunt (1968) who pioneered the identification of social situations that elicit stress and anxiety. The emphasis on situational determinants of social anxiety has led to research on developing means to reduce anxiety. The most elaborate method of reducing anxiety is social skills training (Priestley et al., 1978; Trower, Bryant & Argyle, 1978).

In essence, foreign students make valuable contributions to the economic and intellectual well being of the United States. However, the problems facing foreign students in the U.S. are still making life a little uneasy for them. Therefore, research efforts are being made to help the sojourners cope better with their problems. Several models exist that attempt to meet foreign student adjustment needs but there is more to be done in developing effective models for the varying personalities and cultures in the country. The researcher will draw many ideas from previously proposed models of social adjustment, especially the social skills model proposed by Bochner (1982). Therefore, the model may appear similar on the surface to other models of social adjustment. What is different about this model is its comprehensiveness in an attempt to meet the needs of specific cultural groups and at the same time is applicable to multiple cultural backgrounds. The key to using this model is flexibility in designing a program to meet the needs of a specific situation.

Previous Related Studies

One of the best known pioneers of research related to the difficulty of life experienced by sojourners in foreign lands was Stonequist, who wrote the book (The Marginal Man, 1937) on the problems of sojourners caught between two cultural systems, and belonging to neither.

When the Second World War ended, another wave of empirical research dealt with the difficulties of the cross-cultural sojourner in relation to the flourishing student exchange program. Researchers (Bennett, Passin & McKnight, 1958; Lambert & Bressler, 1956; Morris, 1960; Scott, 1956; Selltiz et al., 1963; Sewell & Davidsen, 1951) inquired into the adjustment problems of foreign students in the United States.

Another research wave was brought about by the problems encountered by the Peace Corps volunteers in the 1960s. The volunteers had problems adapting to the lifestyle of the host countries where they worked. Such researchers (Guthrie, 1975; Guthrie & Zektick, 1967; Harris, 1973; Smith, 1966; Textor, 1966) conducted studies and therapy from the psychologists' perspective. This era also marked the first major attempt in preparing people to work and study in other cultures (Bochner, 1982). Prior to this era, the researchers focused mainly on exploratory studies dealing with developing theories and testing hypotheses. With the advent of the Peace Corps, the goal of researchers was to alleviate the stress of the volunteers and how to prevent future "culture shock" among the Peace Corps volunteers.

Similarly, in the private sector, during the post-war era, multinational trade increased and companies found that their overseas operations were negatively impacted by the inability of their staff to cope with unfamiliar social and business practices (Fayerweather, 1959; Skinner, 1968; Triandis, 1967; Wilson, 1961). Also, military personnel and technical experts experienced similar problems (Boxer, 1969; Brislin, 1979). Consequently, applied social psychologists (Fiedler, Mitchell & Triandis, 1971; Foa & Chemers, 1967; Triandis, 1975) at the University of Illinois responded to these problems by devising various cross-cultural training and orientation programs. At the time, the sojourner's problems tended to be viewed from the medical aspect. Therefore, sojourners who had difficulties were considered to have a psychological breakdown, and needed counseling and therapy (Bochner, 1982). However, Bochner proposed a contrary view to the psycho-therapeutic models to the problems associated with

cultural adjustment such as the social skills model. Other researchers have also moved away from the psycho-therapeutic approach to foreign student adjustment to such models as the Intellectual and Intercultural models mentioned earlier in the study.

Other researchers (Alexander et. al., 1976; Tayash, 1988) emphasized the assimilation into American culture as a significant factor influencing the adjustment of foreign students. In the context that it was used, Gordon (1964) contended that an immigrant was "assimilated" once he/she adapted to lifestyle and cultural conditions of the host country. This included the development of a basic proficiency in the host language, and knowing the basic native customs and values, which would facilitate the foreign student's ability to meet academic and personal life needs. An assimilated student would be better able to understand the social expectations of the professors, American students, benefit more from in-class experiences, as well as communicate and demonstrate his/her academic ability better. However, the concept of assimilation had a negative connotation because it implied neglecting the student's original culture in favor of the host culture. Generally, despite the apparent benefits, previous studies show that some foreign students may choose not to assimilate into the American culture nor develop social relationships with Americans.

For example, Sewell and Davidson (1956) identified the detached observation pattern of adjustment, in which foreign students had no desire to be socially or emotionally involved in the lifestyle of the host country. In such instances, the students perceived their stay in the host country as short, and chose not to associate with Americans. The detached observer student would rather seek companionship among fellow foreign students. Sewell and Davidson also reported that foreign students in this category tended not to encounter severe adjustment problems, either in the host country or on re-entering their home countries. Foreign students in this group were able to maintain aspects of their original culture through limited participation in the host lifestyle. The gap in this study is that the authors did not elaborate on the type of social relationship that would best facilitate the adjustment process. Also, this pattern of adjustment would require that "there is sufficient number of other students of the same nationality or cultural background with whom to form social relationships" (p.704).

Yet other previous researches (Amir, 1983; Basu & Ames, 1970; Labor, 1965; Quintana et al., 1991; Salim, 1984; Selltiz, 1963) emphasized the influence of social contact and interaction with Americans as being significant in the adjustment of foreign students. Interaction with Americans was stressed because foreign students must typically interact with American professors, administrators, and students in the academic arena. Additionally, foreign students must interact with Americans during leisurely activities such as shopping, banking, and recreation. Labor (1965), reported that developing effective social skills in interacting with members of the host society could serve as a tool in solving adjustment problems. However, the gap in this study is that in addressing the social interaction with Americans during foreign student adjustment, the specific aspects of social interaction that influence adjustment lacks adequate attention.

Recently, another wave of research has begun into strategies to attract and retain affluent foreign students since U.S. schools are facing competition for these incoming students (Louis, 1998). Several factors are responsible for the competition, among which include distance learning, high cost of tuition, other English speaking countries, and the Asian crisis. For example, more lectures and classes are being offered off campuses via satellite or two-way video at a fraction of the cost, reported Lenzner and Johnson (1997). [Online]. At: http://www.forbes.com/forbes/97/0310/5905122a.htm. For instance, Texas Christian University has initiated a fully online intensive English program. [Online]. At: http://www.opendoorsweb.org/Lead%20Stories/onlineIEP.htm. This innovative virtual English as a Second Language (ESL) appears to be at the vertex of the interaction between global higher education and technology. Besides online alternative, foreign students are choosing two-year colleges over four-year universities to cut down on education cost. [Online] available at: http://www.alr.org/jf98/fas23.html.

Following the economic and political crisis in Asia, NAFSA conducted a study on the impact of the Asian crisis on Intensive English Programs (IEP) in the United States. The result of the study indicated that compared to spring 1997, enrollment had declined during the 1998 spring term. Up to 77% of the IEPs reported a drop in enrollment of Korean students.

Adaptation of Bochner's (1982) Instrument: Social Situation Questionnaire

An existing instrument which was adapted from Cultures in Contact: Studies in Cross-Cultural Interaction (Bochner, 1982) was modified for use in this study. Although the instrument was tested for validity and reliability by the original author, the researcher further conducted a pilot study with 50 foreign students who later became a part of this study. In addition, the researcher had a panel of experts validate the readability of the instrument before distributing to the participants. The instrument which consisted of 64 questions was grouped in four parts:

Part one - "Social Situation Questionnaire" consisted of 40 social situation items on commonly occurring social situations identified by previous research as potentially stressful for people in general. The list of items was adapted from a scale originally developed by Trower, Bryant and Argyle (1978), and from a pilot study (Bochner, 1982).

Part two - The "Best Friends Check List" consisted of five questions about participants' best friends. This was said to elicit the nationality of the participants' friends. The check list was adapted from a similar instrument devised by Bochner, McLeod and Lin (1977). According to Bochner (1982), having a particular person for a friend has been used in many studies as an index of group membership (Cartwright and Zander, 1960). Bochner also reported that the concept "friendly" occupies the 19th rank on Anderson's (1968) likableness rating of 555 personality-trait words.

Part three - The "Companion Check List"consisted of eleven questions in which participants were asked to indicate who their preferred companion was for each of the activities. The researcher was mainly interested in the nationality of the companion, therefore, the companion's name was not to be revealed.

Part four - Contained the demographic questions on the participants. The researcher added this section to the instrument to elicit pertinent personal information from the participants.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Population and Sample

As of the 2000 spring semester, 1,696 international students were enrolled at LSU, representing 120 nations, among whom 748 were undergraduates. The study population was defined as all undergraduate foreign students (n=748) enrolled at Louisiana State University during the Spring 2000 semester. The accessible population was defined as foreign students enrolled in English as a Second Language (ESL). The sample was defined as all undergraduate foreign students (n=178) enrolled in English 1004 and 1005 classes. These two classes were selected because "with few exceptions, all entering international students are required to take one or more levels of English in the ESL curriculum, including graduate students" (Grenier, et al., 1986, p.2).

World Regions Classifications

In order to distinguish between the different cultural backgrounds of respondents, the participants were grouped into the world region classifications represented in the study. (See Appendix A). According to Zikopoulos, (1993), the U. S. Census of Foreign Students shows World regions of foreign students to include Africa, Asia, Europe, Latin America, Middle East, North America, and Oceania. World subregions consist of certain countries within each region. These theoretical groupings of world regions are based on their physical location in the world (Berry & Annis, 1974; Boldt, 1978; Cattell, Breul & Hartman, 1951; Porter, 1972; Stewart, 1966) and on the assumption that societies in physical proximity to each other are likely to have had similar linguistic, religious and cultural roots, and may therefore share many common characteristics. This assumption is of course not always true, and there are many examples that contradict it (Bochner, 1982). For example, Canada is in close proximity with the U.S. but the language, culture, religion and climate in the two countries may be different in some aspects. Similarly, within Nigeria, the climate, culture, and language in the northern part are distinctly different from those of the southern part of the country. Whereas the predominant religion in the north is Muslim, the predominant religion in the south is Christianity. The cultural distance of each regional

group was considered relative to its proximity to the United States subregion and the level of social difficulty experienced by participants from the different regions.

Instrumentation and Data Collection

Instrumentation

The researcher adapted the instrument from Bochner (1982) which was validated by a panel of experts and representative students. Since three parts of the instrument were taken from other research, the researcher sought permission to use these scales in the current study. The researcher discovered that Pergamon Press Inc. published Bochner's book, but when they were asked to help locate Dr. Stephen Bochner, the letter was returned for lack of a forwarding address. (See Appendix D). Given this situation, the researcher was compelled to either use the study by Bochner (1982) or eliminate it from the study. Since the measurement of social difficulty was an important component of the study, the former alternative was chosen. The fourth part of the instrument was developed by the researcher as part of her dissertation research.

The instrument used in the study consisted of four parts: Part 1, The Social Situation Questionnaire; Part 2, The Best Friends Checklist; Part 3, The Companion Checklist; and Part 4, A Demographic Form. The primary purpose of the Demographic Form was to collect relevant personal data from the participants. The other parts of the instrument are described in detail in the following sections.

Part 1: Social Situation Questionnaire. The Social Situation Questionnaire was developed by Bochner (1982), and it consists of 40 statements referring to commonly occurring social situations which are potentially stressful for people. Respondents to the questionnaire were asked to indicate the level of difficulty they had experienced with each of the identified situations on the following anchored scale: 0 = Never experienced; 1 = No difficulty; 2 = Slight difficulty; 3 = Moderate difficulty; 4 = Great difficulty; and 5 = Extreme difficulty. The validity and reliability of the scale were established by the previous use of the instrument by Bochner. The 40 items are listed in Appendix B. The complete four-part instrument is listed in Appendix C.

Part 2: Best Friends Check List. The Best Friends Check List instructions stressed what the subjects thought of actual and not just hypothetical people presently residing in the United States. By using the pretext of preserving the anonymity of the subjects' friends, it may be possible to plausibly elicit the real matter of interest - the nationality of the friends. The check list was adapted from a similar instrument devised by Bochner, McLeod and Lin (1977). The Best Friends Check List is listed on part two of the study instrument. (See Appendix C).

Part 3: Companion Check List . The Companion Check List was used to ask subjects to indicate who their preferred companion was for 11 activities. It was again emphasized that subjects should think of actual and not just hypothetical persons presently residing in the United States. Subjects were not asked to reveal the names of these companions, but merely list their age, sex, nationality, and occupation. As in the case of the previous check list, the researcher was interested mainly in the nationality of the companions. The Companion Check List is on part three of the study instrument. Part four of the instrument collected personal data on the study respondents. (See Appendix C).

Pilot Test

In order to establish the content validity of the instrument for this specific study, a panel of experts consisting of 10 students and faculty members were asked to review the instrument for readability and timing. Additionally fifty students, who were later included in this study, were asked to respond to the instrument as a pilot test sample. The instrument was administered to 35 students in an English as a Second Language class. The instruments were given in person for immediate response. In order to obtain the other 15 responses, the researcher conducted a "man on the street" approach of data collection from students who were qualifying members of the population. After analyzing the 50 responses, nine were found to come from graduate students, therefore they were discarded. No adjustments to the instrument were deemed necessary after the pilot study.

Data Collection Procedures

In conducting the actual data collection, the researcher went to the participating English classrooms, after going through the proper university channels for approval. The researcher obtained a written approval from the Human Subject Committee, as well as permission from the English Department and the respective English instructors. Foreign students were surveyed in English language classes where the teachers allowed the students present to choose whether or not they would participate in the study. The instrument was distributed during class period to the willing students after the purpose of the study was explained to them. After the students signed a written consent form, they were directed to take the instrument home, fill it out and return to the instructor during the next class period. The students were also promised anonymity and confidentiality as well as being instructed on the process of filling out the instrument. Data collection lasted one week, Monday through Friday. During this week, the instruments were distributed to participants in the accessible English 1004/5 classes and completed instruments were picked up by the researcher. Data analysis was done using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

There were 13 sections of English 1004 and 1005 classes with 178 undergraduate students enrolled. Permission was given the researcher by the instructors to collect data in 11 of the 13 sections. Permission was not extended to collect the data during the class period. With the exception of one class, the researcher had to return to collect the completed questionnaires.

Classes meeting three days a week, met on Monday, Wednesday, and Friday. Classes meeting two days a week, met on Tuesday and Thursday. One-hundred twenty students were present during the week of data collection. Four students refused to participate. One-hundred sixteen questionnaires were distributed to students over a period of one week during the first class meeting, which was either on a Monday or Tuesday. The researcher returned daily to collect completed questionnaires from the instructors during the next class meeting. Sixty-four questionnaires were returned, making the overall response rate 55%. The researcher made an attempt to contact students (through the respective instructors) who failed to return their instruments to the instructors as earlier directed. However, none of the non-respondents could be reached by the instructors because students had left the university for the

summer break. Since no changes were made to the instruments and the pilot test data came from the same population, this set of data was merged with the actual study data. The combined responses increased the total number of respondents from 64 to 105.

Data Analysis

The social difficulty score was calculated by the mean value of the 40 items, each with a range of 0-5. Participants' mean social difficulty scores were grouped according to the following scale:

0.0 to 0.49 = Never experienced - where the respondent was not exposed to the situation; .50 to 1.49 = No difficulty - where the respondent experienced no difficulty;

1.50 to 2.49 = Slight difficulty - where the respondent experienced Slight difficulty; 2.50 to 3.49 = Moderate difficulty - where the respondent experienced Moderate difficulty;

3.50 to 4.49 = Great difficulty - where the respondent experienced great difficulty;

4.50 to 5.00 = Extreme difficulty - where the respondent experienced extreme difficulty.

Objective One

Objective one was to describe undergraduate foreign students currently enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States (U.S.) based on the following selected demographic characteristics: (a) country of origin, (b) Length of stay in the U.S., (c) Marital status (d) Gender, (e) Age, (f) Level of previous work experience in home country, (g) Field of study; and (h) College classification.

This objective was descriptive in nature and was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics such as count data, and percentages were used to analyze the data relative to objective one. The proposed variables were measured on categorical (nominal and ordinal) levels and summarized using frequencies and percentages in categories.

Objective Two

To determine the Social Difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States. Foreign students were given instruments which contained 40 statements describing various everyday social situations. Participants in the study responded to the 40 items regarding their level of experienced difficulty. This objective was accomplished by running frequencies on the different independent variables.

Objective Three

To compare the social difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students currently enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States based on the following selected demographic characteristics: (a) Gender; (b) Country of origin; (c) Marital status; (d) Field of study; (e) Level of previous work experience in home country; and (f) College classification.

This objective was accomplished using t-test and ANOVA. The theoretical groupings of world regions were based on their physical location in the world. The social difficulty scores were calculated using the forty items on the Social Difficulty Questionnaire. Participants were asked to give their responses on a six-point scale: 0=Never experienced, 1=No difficulty, 2=Slight difficulty, 3=Moderate difficulty, 4=Great difficulty, and 5=Extreme difficulty. The social difficulty score was calculated by the sum value of the 40 responses. Participants' social difficulty scores were grouped according to the following scale: No difficulty = 0-40; Slight difficulty = 41-80; Moderate difficulty = 81-120; Great difficulty = 121-160; and Extreme difficulty =161-200.

Objective Four

Objective four was to determine if a model existed to explain a significant portion of the variance in the extent to which foreign students experience social difficulty from the following selected demographics and perceptual measures: (a) World region, (b) Length of stay in the United States, (c) Marital status, (d) Gender, (e) Age, (f) Level of previous experience in home country, (g) Field of study, and (h) College classification.

This objective was accomplished using multiple regression analysis. The level of social difficulty experienced (social adjustment score) served as the dependent variable. The independent variables were (a) World region, (b) Length of stay in the United States, (c) Marital status, (d) Gender, (e) Age, (f) Level of previous experience in home country, (g) Field of study, and (h) College classification. The step-wise entry of variables into the model was used.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship that exists between proximity of culture and level of social difficulties experienced by foreign students enrolled at Louisiana States University from specific world regions while studying in the United States. All undergraduate, foreign students enrolled in English 1004 and 1005 classes at Louisiana State University (LSU) during the Spring semester of 2000 were included in the study.

One-hundred sixteen students were present during the data collection period. The instruments were distributed to 116 out of the 178 enrolled students in their English classes two weeks prior to the end of the spring semester. Sixty-four instruments were returned by students through their instructors. The researcher made an attempt to contact students (through the respective instructors) who failed to return their instruments to the instructors as earlier directed. However, none of the non-respondents could be reached by the instructors since students had left the university for the summer break. The 64 instruments returned by students through their instructors, were merged with the 41 instruments from the pilot study for data analysis. The pilot study participants were from the same population and met the inclusion criteria for the study. Nine respondents who indicated that they were graduate students were dropped from the study. It had previously been planned to administer the instrument in class and have them completed and returned by the end of the class period, but only one instructor was willing to sacrifice class time for the study at that point in the semester. The researcher could not start the data collection process without proper approval from university officials. Therefore, the process started late into the semester.

Objective One

Objective one was to describe the undergraduate foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States (U.S.) based on the following selected demographic characteristics: Country of origin; Length of stay in the United States; Marital status; Gender; Age; Level of previous work experience in home country; Field of study; College classification. The majority, (n=68, 64.8%) of the responding students were males and 35.2% (n = 37) were females. Participants were asked

to indicate whether they were single, married or married and living with spouse. Only six respondents (6%) reported being married, five of whom reported living with their spouses in the United States. The other 94.% (n=99) of the respondents were single.

Respondent's World Region

Respondents were asked to report the name of their country of origin. Thirty countries were represented. (See Appendix A). These countries were then grouped into four regions namely Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America because these were the regions represented in the study. The purpose of the grouping was for ease of handling data. The largest group of the respondents (n=37, 37.8%) were from Asia and the lowest number (n=9, 9.2%) of respondents were from Europe as shown on Table 1. These figures are consistent with the ratios enrolled at Louisiana State University and in the U.S. institutions of higher education, with Asia as the leading sending region.

Table 1

World Regions of Undergraduate Foreign Students

World Regions	n	%
Asia	37	37.8
Latin America	34	34.7
Africa	18	18.4
Europe	9	9.2
Total	98	100.0

Note. Seven participants did not respond when asked for their country of origin.

Length of Stay of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Respondents were asked to indicate the length of their stay in the United States by checking the appropriate time period for the following form options: 0 to 5 months, 6 to 11 months, 1 to 2 years, "other". To the question, "How long have you lived in the United States", many of the respondents

(n=45, 42.9%) reported that they had lived in the U.S. for a period of six to eleven months whereas only 20% (n=19) reported living in the U.S. for 0 to 5 months. Respondents who marked the "other" option were also asked to write in the appropriate number of years. A total of 21 indicated this category, and 21 reported a specific time period. The time periods reported for this "other" category ranged from a low of three years to a high of six years. Table 2 shows the breakdown of the subgroups of respondents' duration of stay in the United States.

Table 2

Length of Stay in the United States of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Length of Stay	n	%
0-5 months	20	19.0
6-11 months	45	42.9
1-2 years	19	18.1
over 2 years	21	20.0
Total	105	100.0

Age Groups of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Respondents were asked to indicate their age group out of four listed age groups. The first age group ranged from 18 to 24, the second age group ranged from 25 to 34, the third age group consisted of 35 to 45, and the fourth group was "others". The majority (n=79, 75.2%) of the responding students were in the 18 to 24 year age group. The four students who selected "others" from the list indicated that they were 17 years old. Table 3 provides a summary of the age distribution of the participants.

Table 3

Age Groups of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Age	n	%
17	4	3.8
18-24 years	79	75.2
25-34 years	22	21.0
35-45	0	0.0
Total	105	100.0

Foreign Students' Level of Previous Work Experience in their Home Country Respondents were asked to indicate their previous work experience in their home countries out of four listed work experience time periods. The first work experience group ranged from 0 to 5 years, the second work experience group ranged from 6 to 9 years, the third work experience group ranged from 10 to 15 years, and the fourth group was "other". The majority (n=95, 90.5%) of the responding students were in the 0 to 5 years of previous work experience group. The one student who selected "other" from the list of options indicated that he had 16 years of previous work experience. Table 4 shows a summary of the previous work experience of the participants.

Table 4

Foreign Students' Level of Previous Work Experience in their Home Country

Years	n	%
0-5 years	95.00	90.5
6-9 years	4.00	3.8
10-15 years	5.00	4.8
Over 15 years	1.00	1.0
Total	105.00	100.0

College Classification of Foreign Students

Respondents were asked to indicate their college classification by selecting one of four options provided on the instrument. The first option was freshman, the second option was sophomore, the third option was junior, and the fourth option was senior. The largest group (n=39, 38.6%) of the respondents reported that they were college freshmen while only 13% (n=13) reported that they were classified as juniors. (See Table 5).

Table 5

College Classification of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Year in college	n	%
Freshman	39	38.6
Sophomore	25	24.8
Junior	13	12.9
Senior	24	23.8
Total	101	100.0

Note. Four students did not respond when asked their college classification.

Field of Study of Foreign Students

Concerning the question of respondents' field of study, respondents were asked to indicate their field of study out of three listed fields. The first field of study was math, the second field of study was engineering, and the third field of study was "other". Out of the 102 responses provided for this question, the largest group (n=57, 55.9%) of respondents indicated that they were science majors, and only 5% reported that they were math majors. The 40 students who selected "other" from the list indicated that they were in some area of business. Three of the participants did not respond to this question. Table 6 provides a summary of the field of study distribution of the participants. (See Table 6).

Gender of Foreign Students

Of the 105 respondents, 64.8% (n=68) reported that they were males while 35.2% (n=37) reported that they were females.

Table 6

Field of Study of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Major	n	%
Math	5	4.9
Science	57	55.9
Business	40	39.2
Total	102	100.0

Note. Three students did not respond when asked their Field of Study.

Marital Status of Foreign Students

Concerning marital status of respondents, a total of six respondents reported being married. However of the six married respondents, one (1%) reported not living with their spouse in the United States while five (4.8%) reported living with their spouses in the United States. The other 99 (94.3%) of the 105 respondents reported that they were single.

Objective Two

Objective two was to determine the Social Difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States. Part 1 of the Social Situation Questionnaire contained 40 statements describing various everyday social situations. Respondents were asked to indicate their levels of difficulty in the various social situations by selecting from a list of six options (0 -5) ranging from "Never experienced" to "Extreme Difficulty". Selecting the "Never experienced" option indicated that the respondent had never been exposed to that particular social situation. If a respondent selected the "Never experienced" option from the list, it indicated that the respondent had experienced no difficulty when faced with that social situation. The selection of the "Slight difficulty" option indicated that the respondent experienced a slight difficulty in the social situation. Selecting the "Moderate difficulty" option indicated that the respondent experienced

moderate difficulty in the particular social situation. Selecting the "Great difficulty" option indicated that the respondent experienced great difficulty in that social situation. And selecting the "Extreme difficulty" option from the list indicated that the respondent experienced extreme difficulty in that social situation.

To facilitate reporting of these findings, a scale was established by the researcher to guide the interpretation of the responses to the individual items. This scale was developed to coincide with the response categories provided to the respondents and included the following categories: 0.0-0.49 = Never experienced; .50 to 1.49 = No difficulty; 1.50 to 2.49 = Slight difficulty; 2.50 to 3.49 = Moderate difficulty; 3.50 to 4.49 = Great difficulty; 4.50 to 5.00 = Extreme difficulty. The items with which the respondents experienced most difficulty included: "Making United States friends of your own age" (m = 2.66) and "Appearing in front of an audience – (acting, giving a speech)" (m = 2.54). These two items were in the "Moderate difficulty" category. The item with which respondents reported experiencing the least difficulty was, "Going into restaurants or cafes" (m = 1.13). Respondents reported experiencing "No Difficulty" to a total of seven items (see Table 7). Overall, respondents reported "Moderate Difficulty" on 2 items, "Slight difficulty" on 31 items, and "No Difficulty" on 7 items.

Table 7

Individual Social Situation Item Means of Undergraduate Foreign Students

Social Situation Items	n	m	SD
Making United States friends of your own age	105	2.66	1.37
Appearing in front of an audience (acting, giving a speech)	105	2.54	1.75
Going to a small private party with American people	105	2.38	1.69
Dealing with people staring at you	105	2.26	1.40
Complaining in public - dealing with unsatisfactory services	105	2.26	1.59
Approaching others - making the first move in starting up a friendship	105	2.22	1.43
Getting to know people in depth (well, intimately)	105	2.22	1.37
Taking the initiative in keeping the conversation going	105	2.18	1.28
Going out with somebody who you are sexually attracted to	104	2.10	1.73

Being with people that you don't know very well	105	2.04	1.30
Making ordinary decisions (plans) affecting others (what to do in the evenings)	105	1.99	1.30
Talking about yourself and your feelings in a conversation	105	1.98	1.38
Getting very intimate with a person of opposite sex	105	1.97	1.73
Dealing with somebody who is cross and aggressive (abusive)	104	1.97	1.42
Making friends of your own age	105	1.87	1.37
People standing or sitting very close to you	103	1.76	1.29

(Table 7 - Cont'd)

Social Situation Items	n	m	SD
Being the leader (chairman) of a small group	104	1.74	1.63
Meeting strangers and being introduced to new people	105	1.73	1.19
Making close friends from other countries of your own age	105	1.72	1.31
Reprimanding a subordinate - telling off someone below you for something that they have done wrong	105	1.71	1.43
Going on public transport (train, buses)	105	1.70	1.54
Going to a social occasion where there are many people of another national or cultural group to yourself	105	1.67	1.33
Being interviewed for something	105	1.66	1.43
Seeing a doctor	105	1.65	1.60
Talking about serious matters (politics, religion) to people of your own age.	105	1.64	1.26
Being with a group of people of your own age, but of the opposite sex	105	1.63	1.26
Going into pubs	105	1.62	1.68
Waiting in line	105	1.61	1.36
Dealing with people of higher status than you	104	1.59	1.24
Going to discotheques or dances	105	1.56	1.49

Being with older American people	105	1.52	1.31
Going into a room full of people	105	1.51	1.29
Buying special goods (medicines, books, electrical goods, etc.)	105	1.50	1.23
Using public and private toilet facilities	104	1.49	1.42
Attending a formal dinner	105	1.48	1.45
Going to worship (church, temple, mosque)	104	1.43	1.52
Shopping in a large supermarket	105	1.41	1.26
Understanding jokes, humor and sarcasm	105	1.40	1.31

(Table 7 - Cont'd)

Social Situation Items	n	m	SD
Apologizing to a superior if you have done wrong	105	1.40	1.31
Going into restaurants or cafes	105	1.13	1.14

Note. Response scale included the following values: 0 = Never experienced, 1 = No Difficulty, 2 = Slight Difficulty, 3 = Moderate Difficulty, 4 = Great Difficulty, 5 = Extreme Difficulty.

To further summarize the information regarding social difficulty, an overall mean score was computed for each participant as the mean of the 40 items in the scale. This score resulted in a social difficulty ranging from a low of 0.31 to a high of 4.05. The overall mean for the total group was 1.81 (Standard deviation = .685). The response category within which most of the respondents fell was the 1.50 to 2.49 - "Slight difficulty" category (n = 57 or 54.3%). No respondents reported information that placed them overall in the "Extreme difficulty" category, and only two were classified in the "Great difficulty" category. (See Table 8).

Table 8

Overall Mean Social Difficulty Scores Reported by Undergraduate Foreign Students

Mean Social Difficulty Score		n	%
0.0 - 0.49	Never experienced	2	1.9
.50 - 1.49	No difficulty	29	27.6

1.50 - 2.49	Slight difficulty	57	54.3
2.50 - 3.49	Moderate difficulty	15	14.3
3.50 - 4.49	Great difficulty	2	1.9
4.50 - 5.00	Extreme difficulty	0	0.0
Total		105	100.0

The questionnaire also contained a section dealing with the three best friends of the respondents, as well as a section which asked the respondents to list their preferred companions for eleven specific activities. The main aim of the sections on best friend and preferred companion of respondents was to collect data on the social network of the respondents.

Part two of the instrument was concerned with the friendship patterns of the respondents. The data from the "Best Friends Check List" were analyzed by running frequencies on the nationality of respondents' best friends to see if the three best friends of each respondent were co-nationals (compatriots), host nationals (Americans), or foreign students from another countries. The co-nationals consisted of individuals from the same country as the respondents. The host nationals consisted of individuals from America, and students from another country consisted of individuals from other foreign countries outside the home country of the respondents.

Information regarding the "Best Friends 1" reported by respondents in the study is presented in Tables 9-11. This information is organized such that the world region of the respondent is cross-tabulated with the world region of the "Best Friend 1" reported. Therefore, the cell in the table that corresponds with Africa as the world region of the respondent and Africa as the world region of the "Best Friend 1" would indicate the number (and percent) of respondents who reported their Best Friend 1 to be a co-national. Additionally, the cell corresponding to Africa as the world region of the respondent and America as the world region of the Best Friend 1 would indicate the number of individuals who reported their Best Friend 1 as host nationals. The combination of the other cells in the column representing each of the world regions of respondents would represent the number of individuals who reported their Best Friend 1 as foreign students from an "Other" world region. This was presented for each of the three "Best Friends" of the respondents.

When these data were examined for the "Best Friends 1," the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of Best Friends 1 that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (47.1%). Students from Latin America were found to have the highest percentage of "Best Friends 1" that were classified as co-nationals (from their same world region) (70.6%). Students from Europe reported the highest percentage of Best Friends 1 as being from other foreign countries (44.4%). (See Table 9).

Examinations of the responses regarding "Best Friends 2" revealed similar results to that of Best Friends 1. There was, however, generally an increase in the number of host-nationals (Americans) reported in this category (28.1% overall as compared to 20.8% overall for Best Friends 1). This increase seemed to be most pronounced among the students from Asia (See Table 10).

Examinations of the responses regarding "Best Friends 3" revealed similar results to that of Best Friends 2. There was, however, generally an increase in the number of host-nationals (Americans) reported in this category (31.2% overall as compared to 28.1% overall for Best Friends 2). This increase seemed to be most pronounced among the students from Africa. (See Table 11).

Table 9

Best Friends 1 of Foreign Students by World Region

World Region of Best Friend 1	World Region of Respondents									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	8	47.1	1	2.8	2	22.2	1	2.9	12	12.5
America [a]	8	47.1	4	11.1	1	11.1	7	20.6	20	20.8
Asia	1	5.9	23	63.9	1	11.1	0	0.0	25	26.0
Europe	0	0.0	1	2.8	4	44.4	2	5.9	7	7.3
Latin America	0	0.0	7	19.4	1	11.1	24	70.6	32	33.3
Total	17	100.0	36	100.0	9	100.0	34	100.0	96	100.0

Note. Nine participants did not respond when asked their Best Friend 1.
America [a] = Host nationals or American friends.
Co-nationals are Africans with African friends, Asians with Asian friends, Europeans with European friends, and Latin Americans with Latin American friends.

Scores on the respondents' second best friends indicated that Africans reported the highest percentage host nationals, Europeans reported the lowest percentage host nationals, Latin Americans reported the highest co-national, and Africans reported the lowest co-nationals as shown in Table 10. (See Table 10). Overall, the respondents' second best friends were co-nationals, followed by host nationals (Americans). Students from other foreign countries were in the last place. However, in the case of Africa, co-nationals tied with host nationals for first place while in the case of Europe, host nationals tied with students from other foreign countries for second place.

Table 10

Best Friends 2 of Foreign Students by World Region

World Region of Best Friend 2	World Region of Respondents									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	7	41.2	2	5.6	1	11.1	0	0.0	10	10.4
America [a]	7	41.2	10	27.8	2	22.2	8	23.5	27	28.1
Asia	1	5.9	18	50.0	2	22.2	0	0.0	21	21.9
Europe	1	5.9	0	0.0	4	44.4	3	8.8	8	8.3
Latin America	1	5.9	6	16.7	0	0.0	23	67.6	30	31.3
Total	17	100.0	36	100.0	9	100.0	34	100.0	96	100.0

Note. Twelve participants did not respond when asked their Best Friend 2
Co-nationals are Africans with African friends, Asians with Asian friends, Europeans with European friends, and Latin Americans with Latin American friends.
America [a] = Host nationals or foreign students with American friends.

Scores on the respondents' third best friends indicated that Africans reported the highest percentage host nationals, Europeans reported the lowest percentage host nationals, Latin Americans reported the highest percentage co-nationals, and Africans reported the lowest percentage co-national as shown in Table 11. (See Table 11). The overall results indicated that the most salient network was the co-national one, followed by bonds with host nationals. Generally, the respondents' third best friends were co-nationals followed by host nationals except for Africa, where the host nationals (Americans) came in first. The other foreign nationals came in last except for Europe where America tied with Asia for second place.

Table 11

Best Friends 3 of Foreign Students by World Region

World Region of Best Friend 3	World Regions of Respondents									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	4	25.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	4.3
America [a]	7	43.8	10	29.4	2	22.2	10	29.4	29	31.2
Asia	2	12.5	15	44.1	2	22.2	2	5.9	21	22.6
Europe	2	12.5	0	0.0	5	55.6	2	5.9	9	9.7
Latin America	1	6.3	9	26.5	0	0.0	20	58.8	30	32.3
Total	16	100.0	34	100.0	9	100.0	34	100.0	93	100.0

Note. Twelve participants did not respond when asked their Best Friend 3.
Co-nationals are Africans with African friends, Asians with Asian friends, Europeans with European friends, and Latin Americans with Latin American friends.
America [a] = Host nationals or American friends.

Part three of the instrument was concerned with the preferred culture of respondents' companions. Information regarding the "Preferred Companions" reported by respondents in the study is presented in Tables 12-21. This information is organized such that the world region of the preferred companion of the respondent is cross-tabulated with the world region of the activity of the respondent. The eleven activities were: seeking help for an academic problem; going to disco or party; visiting a doctor; seeking help for language problem; going to the movies; going out with the opposite sex; seeking help for personal problem; going into a pub; shopping; sightseeing; attending a place of worship.

Therefore, the cell in the table that corresponds with Africa as the world region of the respondent and the world region of the preferred companion in "Seeking Academic Help" as the activity would indicate the number (and percent) of respondents who reported Africa to be a co-national. Additionally, the cell corresponding to Africa as the world region of the respondent and America as the world region of the preferred companion in "Seeking Academic Help" would indicate the number of individuals who reported their preferred companions as host nationals. The combination of the other cells in the column representing each of the world regions of respondents would represent the number of individuals who reported their preferred companions as foreign students from an "Other" world region. This was presented for each of the eleven activities of the respondents.

In six out of the eleven activities, host nationals came first as preferred companions, with the top choice being for seeking help with language problem at 62%, followed by going out with the opposite sex at 43%. Host nationals did not lag behind co-nationals and students from other foreign countries as desired companions as expected. The interaction between host nationals and foreign students were both formal and personal as indicated by the top two activities in which Americans were sought as preferred companions. (See Tables 12 - 22).

Concerning the question of respondents seeking academic help, Latin Americans reported the highest percentage that preferred co-nationals while Europeans reported the lowest percentage that preferred co-nationals. Europeans reported the highest percentage that preferred host nationals while Africans reported the lowest percentage that preferred host nationals when seeking academic help as shown in Table 12. Overall, Africans and Latin Americans tended to go to their co-nationals first, while respondents from Asia and Europe tended to go to the host nationals (Americans) first.

When data were examined for the activity "Seeking Academic Help", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Europe (50%). Students from Latin America were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region) (56.7%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (20.7%). (See Table 12).

Table 12

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Seeking Academic Help

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Seeking Academic Help									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	8	47.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	8	9.5

(Table 12 - Cont'd)

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Seeking Academic Help									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
America	5	29.4	12	41.4	4	50.0	11	36.7	32	38.1
Asia	2	11.8	11	37.9	1	12.5	0	0.0	14	16.7
Europe	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	37.5	2	6.7	5	6.0
Latin America	2	11.8	6	20.7	0	0.0	17	56.7	25	29.8
Total	17	100.0	29	100.0	8	100.0	30	100.0	84	100.0

Note. Twenty-one participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Seeking Academic Help".

Examination of the responses regarding the activity "Going to Disco or Party", revealed that the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals were students from Africa (56.3%). Students from Latin America were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions who were classified as co-nationals (71%). Students from

Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (19%). (See Table 13).

Examination of the responses regarding the activity "Visiting a Doctor", revealed that the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals were students from Africa (53.3%). Students from Europe were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions who were classified as co-nationals (83.3%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (21.4%). (See Table 14).

Table 13

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Going to Disco or Party

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Going to Disco or Party									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	3	18.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	3.7
America	9	56.3	4	15.4	2	25.0	6	19.4	21	25.9
Asia	0	0.0	15	57.7	1	12.5	0	0.0	16	19.8
Europe	1	6.3	2	7.7	5	62.5	3	9.7	11	13.6
Latin America	3	18.8	5	19.2	0	0.0	22	71.0	30	37.0
Total	16	100.0	26	100.0	8	100.0	31	100.0	81	100.0

Note. Twenty-four participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Going to Disco or Party".

Examination of the responses regarding the activity "Seeking Help for Language Problem", revealed that the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals were students from Europe (85.7%). Students from Latin America

were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions who were classified as co-nationals (30%). Students from Africa reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (12.5%). (See Table 15).

Table 14

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Visiting a Doctor

Nationality of Respondent's Preferred Companions	Visiting a Doctor									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	5	33.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	6.5
America	8	53.3	5	17.9	0	0.0	6	21.4	19	24.7
Asia	0	0.0	17	60.7	1	16.7	0	0.0	18	23.4
Europe	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	83.3	2	7.1	7	9.1
Latin America	2	13.3	6	21.4	0	0.0	20	71.4	28	36.4
Total	15	100.0	28	100.0	6	100.0	28	100.0	77	100.0

Note. Twenty-eight participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Visiting a Doctor".

Table 15

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Seeking Help for a Language Problem

Nationality of Respondents'	Seeking Help for a Language Problem

	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	4	25.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	4.9
America	8	50.0	18	64.3	6	85.7	18	60.0	50	61.7

(Table 15 - Cont'd)

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Seeking Help for a Language Problem									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Asia	2	12.5	8	28.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	10	12.3
Europe	2	12.5	0	0.0	1	14.3	3	10.0	6	7.4
Latin America	0	0.0	2	7.1	0	0.0	9	30.0	11	13.6
Total	16	100.0	28	100.0	7	100.0	30	100.0	81	100.0

Note. Twenty-four participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Seeking Help for a Language Problem".

When data were examined for the activity "Going to the Movies", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (62.5%). Students from Europe were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region) (85.7%). Students from Europe also reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (14.3%). (See Table 16).

When data were examined for the activity "Going out With the Opposite Sex", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (68.8%). Students from Europe were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world

region) (57.1%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (18.5%). (See Table 17).

Table 16

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity "Going to the Movies

	Going to the Movies									
Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	4	25.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	3.6	5	6.3
America	10	62.5	8	27.6	0	0.0	11	39.3	29	36.3
Asia	0	0.0	15	51.7	1	14.3	0	0.0	16	20.0
Europe	2	12.5	1	3.4	6	85.7	2	7.1	11	13.8
Latin America	0	0.0	5	17.2	0	0.0	14	50.0	19	23.8
Total	16	100.0	29	100.0	7	100.0	28	100.0	80	100.0

Note. Twenty-five participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Going to the Movies".

Table 17

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Going Out With the Opposite Sex

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Going Out With the Opposite Sex									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	2	12.5	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	3.8	3	3.9
America	11	68.8	9	33.3	3	42.9	10	38.5	33	43.4

Asia	1	6.3	12	44.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	13	17.1

(Table 17 - Cont'd)

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Going Out With the Opposite Sex									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Europe	2	12.5	1	3.7	4	57.1	2	7.7	9	11.8
Latin America	0	0.0	5	18.5	0	0.0	13	50.0	18	23.7
Total	16	100.0	27	100.0	7	100.0	26	100.0	76	100.0

Note. Twenty-nine participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Going Out With the Opposite Sex". Africans reported the highest percentage for host nationals for this activity while Asians reported the lowest percentage of preference for the host nationals. Europeans reported the highest percent of preference for co-nationals for the activity of going out with the opposite sex.

When data were examined for the activity "Seeking Help for Personal Problem", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (47%). Students from Europe were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region) (87.5%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (22.2%). (See Table 18).

When data were examined for the activity "Going into a Pub", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (50%). Students from Europe were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region)

(66.7%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (22.7%). (See Table 19).

Table 18

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Seeking Help for Personal Problem

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Seeking Help for Personal Problem									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	8	47.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	8	9.8
America	7	41.2	4	14.8	0	0.0	3	10.0	14	17.1
Asia	1	5.9	16	59.3	1	12.5	0	0.0	18	22.0
Europe	1	5.9	1	3.7	7	87.5	3	10.0	12	14.6
Latin America	0	0.0	6	22.2	0	0.0	24	80.0	30	36.6
Total	17	100.0	27	100.0	8	100.0	30	100.0	82	100.0

Note. Twenty-three participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Seeking Help for Personal Problem".

Table 19

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity "Going into a Pub

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Going into a Pub									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	6	42.9	1	4.5	0	0.0	1	3.8	8	11.8
America	7	50.0	4	18.2	2	33.3	8	30.8	21	30.9

(Table 19 - Cont'd)

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Going to a pub				
	Africa	Asia	Europe	Latin America	Total

	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Asia	0	0.0	11	50.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	11	16.2
Europe	0	0.0	1	4.5	4	66.7	1	3.8	6	8.8
Latin America	1	7.1	5	22.7	0	0.0	16	61.5	22	32.4
Total	14	100.0	22	100.0	6	100.0	26	100.0	68	100.0

Note. Thirty-seven participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Going into a Pub".

When data were examined for the activity "Shopping", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (42.9%). Students from Europe were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region) (71.4%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (17.9%). (See Table 20).

When data were examined for the activity "Sightseeing", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (57.1%). Students from Asia were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region) (52%). Students from Europe reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (16.7%). (See Table 21).

Table 20

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Shopping

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Shopping									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	7	50.0	1	3.6	0	0.0	1	4.0	9	12.2

America	6	42.9	5	17.9	1	14.3	5	20.0	17	23.0
Asia	1	7.1	17	60.7	1	14.3	0	0.0	19	25.7
Europe	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	71.4	2	8.0	7	9.5
Latin America	0	0.0	5	17.9	0	0.0	17	68.0	22	29.7
Total	14	100.0	28	100.0	7	100.0	25	100.0	74	100.0

Note. Thirty-one participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Shopping". For shopping, Africans reported the highest percentage that preferred host nationals, while Europeans reported the lowest percentage that preferred the company of the host nationals. Also, Europeans reported the highest percentage that preferred the company of co-nationals for shopping, while Africans reported the lowest percentage that preferred the company of co-nationals for the activity of shopping. Overall, respondents tended to prefer the company of co-nationals first, followed by the company of the host society.

When data were examined for the activity "Attending a Place of Worship", the group of respondents who were found to have the highest percentageage of preferred companions that were host nationals (from America) were students from Africa (33.3%). Students from Latin America were found to have the highest percentage of preferred companions that were classified as co-nationals (from the same world region) (79.2%). Students from Asia reported the highest percentage of preferred companions as being from other foreign countries (16.7%). (See Table 22).

Table 21

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Sightseeing

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Sightseeing									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	5	35.7	1	4.0	0	0.0	3	11.1	9	12.5
America	8	57.1	5	20.0	2	33.3	8	29.6	23	31.9
Asia	0	0.0	13	52.0	1	16.7	0	0.0	14	19.4
Europe	0	0.0	3	12.0	3	50.0	3	11.1	9	12.5
Latin America	1	7.1	3	12.0	0	0.0	13	48.1	17	23.6

Total	14	100.0	25	100.0	6	100.0	27	100.0	72	100.0

Note: Thirty-three participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Sightseeing".

Table 22

Preferred Companions of Undergraduate Foreign Students for Activity Attending a Place of Worship

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Attending a Place of Worship									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Africa	7	58.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	7	10.6

(Table 22 - Cont'd)

Nationality of Respondents' Preferred Companions	Attending a Place of Worship									
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
America	4	33.3	5	20.8	1	16.7	3	12.5	13	19.7
Asia	1	8.3	15	62.5	1	16.7	0	0.0	17	25.8
Europe	0	0.0	0	0.0	4	66.7	2	8.3	6	9.1
Latin America	0	0.0	4	16.7	0	0.0	19	79.2	23	34.8
Total	12	100.0	24	100.0	6	100.0	24	100.0	66	100.0

Note. Thirty-nine participants did not respond when asked their preferred companion for the activity "Attending a Place of Worship".

Objective Three

Objective three was to compare the social difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States by categories of the following selected demographic characteristics: (a) Gender, (b) Country of origin, (c) Marital status, (d) Field of study, (e) Level of previous work experience in home country, (f) Age, and (g) College classification. This objective was accomplished by running a t-test on gender and ANOVA on the other variables.

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Gender

The first demographic variable examined for its association with overall social difficulty was gender. This was accomplished by comparing the gender groups on their social difficulty scores in two ways. First, the scores for each of the gender groups (males and females) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 23. Differences in the distribution of social difficulty scores by gender seem to indicate that females had more homogeneous response patterns. More than 70% of the females in the study had overall scores in the "Slight difficulty" category, while the mean responses for males were more widely distributed. Specifically, only 45.6% of the males had scores in the "Slight difficulty"category, and 32.4% reported scores in the "No Difficulty" category. In addition, 17.6% had scores in the "Moderate difficulty" category.

In addition to comparing the gender groups on their category distributions, they were also compared on their overall mean scores using the independent t-test procedure. This comparison revealed that the two groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($t_{(86)} = .32$, $p = .75$). (See Table 23).

Table 23

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Gender

	Female		Male		Total	
Social Difficulty	n	%	n	%	n	%

0.0-.49	Never experienced	0	0.00	2	2.9	2	1.9
.50-1.49	No difficulty	7	18.9	22	32.4	29	27.6
1.50-2.49	Slight difficulty	26	70.3	31	45.6	57	54.3
2.50-3.49	Moderate difficulty	3	8.1	12	17.6	15	14.3
3.50-4.49	Great difficulty	1	2.7	1	1.5	2	1.9
4.50-5.00	Extreme difficulty	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total		37	100.0	68	100.0	105	100.0

Table 24

Comparison of Mean Respondent Social Difficulty by Gender

Variable	n	M	SD	t	p	
Female		37	1.84	.60	.324	.75
	Male	68	1.80	.73		

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by World Region

The second demographic variable examined for its association with the overall social difficulty was world region of respondents. This was accomplished by comparing the world regions on their social difficulty scores in two ways. First, the scores for each of the regions (Africa, Asia, Europe, and Latin America) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 25. Differences in the distribution of social difficulty scores by world regions seem to indicate that Europeans and Latin

Americans had more homogeneous response patterns than Africans and Asians. More than 77% of the Europeans, and more than 44% of the Latin Americans in the study had overall scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, while the mean responses for Africans and Asians were more widely distributed. Specifically, only 33% of Africans and 60% of Asians had scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, and 50% of Africans and 16% of Asians reported scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category. In addition, more than 16% of Africans and 5% Asians had scores in the "Great Difficulty" category. Also, more than 16% of Asians had scores in the "No Difficulty" category, and more than 2% in the "Never Experienced" category. Overall, Asians scores were more widely distributed than any other world region.

In addition to comparing the world region groups on their category distribution, they were also compared on their overall mean scores using the one-way ANOVA procedure. This comparison revealed that the four groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($F_{(94)} = 1.94$, $p = .13$). (See Table 26).

Table 25

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by World Region

Social Difficulty	World Regions								Total	
	Africa		Asia		Europe		Latin America			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0.0 - .49	0	0.0	1	2.7	1	11.1	0	0.0	2	2.0
.50 - 1.49	0	0.0	6	16.2	1	11.1	14	41.2	21	21.4
1.50 - 2.49	6	33.3	22	59.5	7	77.8	15	44.1	50	51.0
2.50 - 3.49	9	50.0	6	16.2	0	0.0	5	14.7	20	20.4
3.50 - 4.49	3	16.7	2	5.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	5	5.2
4.50 - 500	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

Total	18	100.0	37	100.0	9	100.0	34	100.0	98	100.0

Note. Seven participants did not respond to all 40 items that made up the Social Difficulty score.

Although the distributive scale seemed to indicate that Asians and Africans reported scores as high as "Great Difficulty" level, while Latin Americans only reported as high as "Moderate Difficulty" level, and Europeans only reported as high as "Slight Difficulty" level, the ANOVA procedure did not reveal any statistically significant differences in their overall responses.

Table 26

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Variable Social Difficulty by World Region

Source	df	sum of squares	F	p
Between Groups	3	2.67	1.939	.129
Within Groups	94	43.19		
Total	97	45.86		

Note. Group means - Asia (m=2.03, SD=.6929), Africa (m=1.7054, SD=.7331), Europe (m=1.6833, SD=.5890), Latin America (m=1.6819, SD=.6512).

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Marital Status

The third demographic variable examined for its association with overall social difficulty was marital status. This was accomplished by comparing the marital groups on their social difficulty in two ways. First, the scores for each of the marital groups (married and single) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 27. Differences in the distribution of social difficulty scores by marital status seem to indicate that married respondents in the study had more homogeneous response patterns. Eighty percent of the respondents who were living with their spouses in the U.S. had overall scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, while the mean responses for the single respondents had scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, and 28% reported scores in the "No Difficulty" category. In

addition, 15% had scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category. Finally, 2% had scores in the "Great Difficulty" and 2% in the "Never Experienced" category.

In addition to comparing the marital status groups on their category distributions, they were also compared on their overall mean scores using the one-way ANOVA procedure. This comparison revealed that the two groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($F_{(102)} = .52$, $p = .60$). (See Table 28).

Table 27

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Marital Status

Social Difficulty	Marital Status						Total	
	Married		Lives with Spouse		Single			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0.0 - .49	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	2.0	2	1.9
.50 - 1.49	0	0.0	1	20.0	28	28.3	29	27.6
1.50 - 2.49	1	100.0	4	80.0	52	52.5	57	54.3
2.50 - 3.49	0	0.0	0	0.0	15	15.2	15	14.3
3.50 - 4.49	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	2.0	2	1.9
4.50 - 500	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	1	100.0	5	100.0	99	100.0	105	100.0

Note. "Married" respondents refer to students who are married but are currently not living with their spouses in the United States.

Table 28

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Variable Social Difficulty by Marital Status

Source	df	sum of squares	F	p
Between Groups	2	0.49	.515	.599
Within Groups	102	48.33		
Total	104	48.82		

Note. Group means - Married with spouse living in the U.S. (m=1.69, SD=.28), Single (m=1.81, SD=.70).

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Field of Study

The fourth demographic variable examined for its association with overall social difficulty was field of study. This was accomplished by comparing the fields of study on their social difficulty scores in two ways. First, the scores for each of the fields of study groups (math, science, and business) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 29. Differences in the social difficulty scores by field of study seem to indicate that math had more homogeneous response patterns. More than 60% of the respondents who majored in math had overall scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category, while the mean responses for science and business were more widely distributed. Specifically, only 49% of respondents who majored in science and 60% of respondents who majored in business had scores in "Slight Difficulty" category, and 31% of those who majored in science as well as 25% of those who majored in business reported scores in the "No Difficulty" category. In addition, 14% of those who majored in science as well as 12% of those who majored in business had scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category. This comparison revealed that the three groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($F_{(99)} = .58$, $p = .56$). (See Table 30).

Although the scores on the distributive category tended to indicate that the married group of respondents reported scores only in the "No Difficulty" and "Slight Difficulty" categories while the single group of respondents reported a more widely distributive scores, the small number of married respondents make the result suspect. Also, the ANOVA procedure did not reveal any statistical difference between the two groups.

Table 29

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Field of Study

Social Difficulty	Field of Study						Total	
	Math		Science		Business			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0.0 - .49	0	0.0	1	1.8	1	2.5	2	2.0
.50 - 1.49	0	0.0	18	31.6	10	25.0	28	27.5
1.50 - 2.49	0	0.0	28	49.1	24	60.0	52	51.0
2.50 - 3.49	3	60.0	8	14.0	5	12.5	16	15.7
3.50 - 4.49	2	40.0	2	3.5	0	0.0	4	3.9
4.50 - 5.00	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	5	100.0	57	100.0	40	100.0	102	100.0

Note. Three participants did not respond when asked their Field of Study.
Math majors reported the highest percent in the "Moderate Difficulty" category, followed by the science majors. The business majors reported the lowest level of social difficulty with the scores more clustered together while the scores for the science majors were more widely distributed.

Table 30

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Variable Social Difficulty by Field of Study

Source	df	sum of squares	F	p
Between Groups	2	.545	.584	.560
Within Groups	99	46.279		
Total	101	46.724		

Note. Group means - Math (m=2.13, SD=.50), Science (m=1.78, SD=.76), Business (m=1.82, SD=57).

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Previous Work Experience

The fifth demographic variable examined for its association with overall social difficulty was level of previous work experience. This was accomplished by comparing the work experience groups on their social difficulty in two ways. First, the scores for each of the previous work experience groups (0-5 years, 6-9 years, 10-15 years, and over 15 years) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 31. Differences in the distribution of social difficulty scores by previous work experience seem to indicate that the respondents with 6 to 9 years, 10 to 15 years, and over 15 years of previous work experience had more homogeneous response patterns than the respondents with 0 to 5 years of previous work experience. Seventy-five percent of respondents with 6 to 9 years of previous work experience, and 80% of respondents with 10 to 15 of previous work experience in the study had overall scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category. The mean responses for respondents with 0 to 5 years of previous work experience were more widely distributed. Specifically, only 49% of the respondents with 0 to 5 years of previous work experience had scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, 27% reported scores in the "No Difficulty" category, 15% reported scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category, and 12% in each of the "Never Experienced" and "Great Difficulty" categories respectively.

In addition to comparing the previous work experience groups on their category distributions, they were also compared on their overall scores using the one-way ANOVA procedure. This comparison revealed that the four groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($F_{(101)}$ =.50, p=.68). (See Table 32). Respondents in the group who reported 0 to 5 years of

previous work experience had the highest social difficulty score (m = 1.83) while the group of respondents who reported previous work experience of 10 to 15 years had the lowest score (m = 1.49).

Table 31

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Previous Work Experience

Social Difficulty	Previous Work Experience								Total	
	0-5 years		6-9 years		10-15 years		Over 15 years			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0.0-.49	2	2.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.9
.50 - 1.49	27	28.4	1	25.0	1	20.0	0	0.0	29	27.6
1.50-2.49	49	51.6	3	75.0	4	80.0	1	100.0	57	54.3
2.50-3.49	15	15.8	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	15	14.3
3.50-4.49	2	2.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.9
4.50-5.00	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	95	100.0	4	100.0	5	100.0	1	100.0	105	100.0

Note. The respondents with 0 to 5 years of previous work experience in home country reported the most widely distributed scores ranging from "Never Experienced" category to "Great Difficulty" category, with the largest number falling within the "Slight Difficulty" category.

Table 32

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Variable Social Difficulty by Previous Work Experience

Source	df	sum of squares	F	p
Between Groups	3	.713	.499	.684
Within Groups	101	48.11		
Total	104	48.824		

Note. Group means - 0 to 5 years (m=1.83, SD=.71), 6 to 9 years (m=1.74, SD=.29), and 10 to 15 years (m=1.49, SD=.20).

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Age

The sixth demographic variable examined for its association with overall social difficulty was age of respondents. This was accomplished by comparing the age groups on their social difficulty scores in two ways. First, the scores for each of the age groups (17, 18-24, and 25-34 years old) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 33. Differences in the distribution of social difficulty scores by age seem to indicate that the 25 to 34 age group in the study had the most homogeneous response patterns. Nearly 60% of the 25 to 34 age group had overall scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, while the responses for the 18 to 24 year olds were more widely distributed. Specifically, only 43% of the 18 to 24 year olds had scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, 27% of them had scores in the "No Difficulty" category, 12% of them had scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category, and 1% each in the "Never Experienced" and "Great Difficulty" categories. All the 17- year old respondents were spread out from "Never Experienced" to "Moderate Difficulty" categories.

In addition to comparing the age groups on their category distributions, they were also compared on their overall mean scores using the one-way ANOVA procedure. This comparison revealed that the three age groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($F_{(102)}$=.21, SD=.82). (See Table 34).

Respondents in the 17-year age group reported the lowest social difficulty mean scores (m = 1.63, SD = 1.17) while respondents in the 18 to 24-year age group reported the highest mean scores (m = 1.83, SD = .67). Respondents in the 25 to 34 age group reported scores of 1.77 (SD=.66) as shown on Table 34.

Table 33

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by Age

Social Difficulty	Age Group of Foreign Students						Total	
	18-24		25-34		Other (17 Years)			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0.0 - .49	1	1.3	0	0.0	1	25.0	2	1.9
.50 - 1.49	22	27.8	6	27.3	1	25.0	29	27.6
1.50 - 2.49	43	54.4	13	59.1	1	25.0	57	54.3
2.50 - 3.49	12	15.2	2	9.1	1	25.0	15	14.3
3.50 - 4.49	1	1.3	1	4.5	0	0.0	2	1.9
4.50 - 5.00	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	79	100.0	22	100.0	4	100.0	105	100.0

Note. The most widely distributed scores were reported by respondents in the 18 to 24 age group, with scores ranging from "Never Experienced" to "Great Difficulty" category, the largest number (n=43, 54.4%) falling within the "Slight Difficulty" category. The 17-year age group reported the most closely clustered scores evenly distributed from "Never Experienced" category to "Moderate Difficulty" category.

Table 34

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Variable Social Difficulty by Age

Source	df	sum of squares	F	p
Between Groups	2	0.20	.205	.815
Within Groups	102	48.63		
Total	104	48.83		

Note. Group means - 17 years (m=1.63, SD=1.17), 18 to 24 years (m=1.83, SD=.67), and 25 to 34 years (m=1.77, SD=.66).

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by College Classification

The last demographic variable examined for its association with overall social difficulty was college classification. This was accomplished by comparing the class groups on their social difficulty score in two ways. First, the scores for each of the college class groups (Freshman, Sophomore, Junior, Senior) were classified by the categories of the interpretive scale for their overall mean responses to the items on the Social Situation Questionnaire. These data are presented in Table 35. Differences in the distribution of the social difficulty scores by college classification seem to indicate that Juniors had the most homogeneous response patterns. More than 53% of the juniors had scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, while the mean responses for freshmen, sophomores, and seniors were more widely distributed. Specifically, only 64% of the freshmen, 48% of the sophomores, and 46% of the seniors had scores in the "Slight Difficulty" category, and 23% of the freshmen, 32% of the sophomores as well as 17% of the seniors reported scores in the "No Difficulty" category. In addition, 8% of the freshmen, 16% of the sophomores, and 33% of the seniors had scores in the "Moderate Difficulty" category.

In addition to comparing college classes on their category distributions, they were also compared on their overall mean scores using the one-way ANOVA procedure. This comparison revealed that the four groups were not statistically different in their overall mean responses to the items on the scale ($F_{(97)}=1.87$, p=.14). (See Table 36).

Respondents in the senior year of college reported the highest scores (m = 2.08, SD = .76) while the junior class reported the lowest scores (m = 1.58, SD = .47).

Table 35

Social Difficulty of Undergraduate Foreign Students by College Classification

Social Difficulty	College Classification								Total	
	Freshman		Sophomore		Junior		Senior			
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
0.0 - .49	1	2.6	1	4.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	2.0
.50 - 1.49	9	23.1	8	32.0	6	46.2	4	16.7	27	26.7
1.50 - 2.49	25	64.1	12	48.0	7	53.8	11	45.8	55	54.5
2.50 - 3.49	3	7.7	4	16.0	0	0.0	8	33.3	15	14.9
3.50 - 4.49	1	2.6	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	4.2	2	2.0
4.50 - 5.00	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
Total	39	100.0	25	100.0	13	100.0	24	100.0	101	100.0

Note. Four participants did not respond when asked their College Classification.

Freshmen students reported scores that were more widely distributed than any other college class. Specifically, freshmen reported scores ranging from "Never Experienced" to "Great Difficulty" categories, with the largest number (n= 24, 64%) falling in the "Slight Difficulty" category. College juniors had the most closely clustered responses with the larger number (n=7, 53.8%) falling within the "Slight Difficulty" category, and the smaller number (n=6, 42.6%) falling within the "No Difficulty" category.

Table 36

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) of the Variable Social Difficulty by College Classification

Source	df	sum of squares	F	p
Between Groups	3	2.518	1.872	.139
Within Groups	97	43.504		
Total	100	46.022		

Note. Group means - Freshman (m=1.82, SD=.68), Sophomore (m=1.75, SD=.65), Junior (m=1.58, SD=.47) and Senior (m=2.08, SD=.76).

Objective Four

Objective four was to determine if a model existed which explained a significant portion of the variance in foreign students' difficulty experienced in social situations from the following measures: world region, length of stay in the United States, marital status, gender, age, level of previous work experience in home country, and college classification. One married respondent reported that he did not live with his spouse. This individual was not used in the analysis.

Exploratory Model Explaining Social Difficulty

This objective was accomplished using multiple regression analysis with social difficulty of foreign students as the dependent variable. The other variables were treated as the independent variables and stepwise entry of the variables was used because of the exploratory nature of this part of the study. In this regression analysis, variables were added that increased the explained variance by one percent or more as long as the overall regression model remained significant.

In analyzing the data, two variables were constructed from the data collected. For the variable world region, "dummy coding" was used to construct four "yes or no" variables. Variables created were whether respondents were from Africa or not, whether respondents were from Asia or not, whether respondents were from Europe or not, and whether respondents were from Latin America or not. In each instance, yes was coded as "1" and no was coded as "0".

Dummy coding was also used for the variable field of study, with three "yes or no" variables being constructed. The variables created were whether respondents were majoring in math or not, whether respondents were majoring in science or not, and whether or not respondents were majoring in business.

The first step in the multiple regression analysis was to examine the bivariate relationships between the dependent variables and each of the independent variables. The dependent variable was social difficulty and the independent variables were world region, length of stay in the United States, marital status, gender, age, level of previous work experience in home country, and college classification. Pearson's Correlation showed the relationship between the dependent variable and the independent variables in the multiple regression model. The independent variable with the least relationship with the dependent variable was "Business" (r = .007), while "Asia" had the highest relationship (r = .23) as shown on Table 37.

Table 37 presents the results of the multiple regression analysis using social difficulty mean score as the dependent variable. The variable which entered the regression model first was "Asia". Considered alone, this variable explained 5.5% of the variance (F=5.948, p=.016) in the model. The variable which entered second was "Senior" in college explaining 5.7% of variance (F=6.498, p=.012) in the model.

Two additional variables explained an additional 2.3% of the variance in the model. These variables were the following: length of stay in the United States, and age of respondent. Length of stay in the United States contributed 1.4% while age of respondent contributed .09%. These four variables explained a total of 13.5% of the variance in perceived social difficulty experienced by foreign students in the study. Both the variable "Asia" and the model were found to be significant as shown in Table 38. (See Table 38). "Asians" tended to report having experienced more difficulty (Beta = .272) than students from other world regions. "Seniors" in college tended to report experiencing more difficulty than other classes (Beta = .272).

Table 37

Relation between Social Difficulty Score and Selected Demographic Characteristics of Foreign Students

Variable	n	r	p
Asia	105	0.230	0.008
Senior	105	0.200	0.020
Junior	105	_0.141	0.080
Latin America	105	_0.140	0.077
Math	105	0.102	0.149
Length of Stay in the U.S.	105	_0.076	0.221

Africa	105	_0.075	0.223
Sophomore	105	_0.070	0.239
Previous Work Experience	105	_0.064	0.257
Age	105	_0.063	0.261
Europe	105	_0.060	0.270
Science	105	_0.051	0.302
Marital Status	105	_0.032	0.375
Gender	105	_0.030	0.380
Freshman	105	_0.016	0.436
Business	105	0.007	0.473

Table 38

Multiple Regression Analysis of the Social Difficulty of Foreign Students

Model/Source of Variation	df	Ms	F-ratio	p
Regression	4			
Residual	100	1.636		
Total	104	.423	3.869	.006

Variables in the Equation

Variables	R^2 Cum	R^2 Change	F Change	p Change	Beta
Asia	.055	.055	5.948	0.016	0.272
Senior	.111	.057	6.498	0.012	0.272
Length of Stay in U.S.	.125	.014	1.594	0.210	_0.134
Age	.134	.009	1.040	0.310	_0.096

Variables not in the Equation

Model/Variables	t	Sig. t
Africa	_0.051	0.959
Europe	0.711	0.479
Latin America	_0.447	0.656
Gender	_0.370	0.712
Sophomore	_0.159	0.874
Junior	_0.534	0.595
Freshman	0.548	0.585
Math	0.433	0.666
Science	0.008	0.994
Business	_0.182	0.856
Previous Work Experience	_0.124	0.901
Marital Status	_0.642	0.522

Respondents who reported having been in the U. S. longer tended to report experiencing less difficulty than those who reported shorter stay (Beta = -.134). Students who were younger in age tended to report experiencing more difficulty than students who were older in age (Beta = -.096).

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if significant differences existed in the level of social difficulty experienced by foreign students from different world regions who were enrolled at LSU during the spring 2000 semester. In addition, the study sought to determine if a model existed that would enable the researcher to accurately explain the social difficulty of undergraduate foreign students.

The following specific objectives guided the study:

1. To describe the undergraduate foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States based on the following selected demographic characteristics: country of origin, length of stay in the United States, marital status, gender, age, level of previous work experience in home country, field of study, and college classification.
2. To determine the social difficulty (as measured by the social situation questionnaire) of foreign students enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States.
3. To compare the social difficulty (as measured by the social situation questionnaire) of foreign students currently enrolled in an institution of higher education in the United States based on the following selected demographic characteristics: gender, world region, marital status, field of study, level of previous work experience in home country, and college classification.
4. To determine if a model existed to explain a significant portion of the variance in the extent to which foreign students experience difficulty from the following selected demographics and perceptual measures: country of origin, length of stay in the United States, marital status, gender, age, level of previous work experience in home country, field of study, and college classification.

The target population for this study was defined as all undergraduate foreign students enrolled at LSU in spring 2000 (n=748). The accessible population comprised of spring 2000 undergraduate foreign students enrolled in English as a Second Language (ESL) classes. The sample was defined as all undergraduate foreign students enrolled in English 1004 and 1005 classes. There were 13 sections of

English 1004 and 1005 classes with 178 undergraduate foreign students enrolled. These two classes were selected because "with few exceptions, all entering international students are required to take one or more levels of English in the ESL curriculum, including graduate students" (Grenier, et al., 1986, p.2).

Permission was given to the researcher by the instructors to collect data in 11 of the 13 sections. One-hundred twenty students were present during the week of data collection. Four students refused to participate. One-hundred sixteen questionnaires were distributed to students over the data collection period.

Data were collected using the Social Situation Questionnaire adapted from Bochner (1982). Out of the 116 instruments distributed to participants, 64 completed instruments were returned. Since no changes were made to the instruments and the pilot test data came from the same population, this set of data was merged with the actual study data. The combined responses increased the total number of respondents from 64 to 105. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for data analysis.

Summary of Findings

The following is a summary of the major findings of the study:

1. The demographic data showed that the majority of the students in the study were males (n=68, 65%) while female students were 37 (35%). Also, the largest percentage of the respondents came from Asia (n=37, 38%). The largest percentage of students had lived in the U.S. for 6 to 11 months (43%). Students majoring in the sciences made up more than half the sample (n=57, 56%). Students classified as college freshmen made up the largest number of the sample (n=39, 39%). The majority of the respondents (n=95, 91%) had 0 to 5 years of previous work experience in their home country. The largest number in the sample (n=79, 75%) were in the 18 to 24 age group. The majority of the sample (n=99, 94%) was single.
2. The second major finding involved the social difficulty mean score of respondents based on the 40 social situation items on the scale. These findings are summarized as follows:

   a) The overall social difficulty mean score of respondents was 1.81 (SD=.69).

b) The most difficult social situation identified by respondents was "Making American friends your own age" (m=2.66, SD=1.37).

c) The least difficult social situation was "Going into restaurants or cafes (m=1.13, SD=1.14).

d) Overall, the "Best Friends" of the respondents consisted of co-nationals followed by host nationals (Americans).

e) The largest percentage of preferred companions among respondents for eleven selected activities comprised of Americans.

3. Objective three was to compare the social difficulty of foreign students based on selected demographic characteristics. Findings for this objective showed that although respondents in the overall reported low levels of difficulty, there were a few cases where "Moderate Difficulty" or "Great Difficulty" were reported when compared on the distributive scale. However, a second comparison using analysis of variance procedure did not reveal any statistically significant difference among groups.

4. Objective four was to establish whether a model existed that significantly increased the researcher's ability to accurately explain social difficulty of undergraduate foreign students. This objective was accomplished using multiple regression analysis with stepwise entry of the variables. The variable that entered the model first was Asia (whether or not a student was from Asia), followed by senior (whether or not a student was a senior in college). Asians tended to report higher difficulty than respondents from other countries. Seniors tended to report higher difficulty than other classes of students in college. Respondents with longer periods of stay in the U.S. tended to report lower levels of difficulty than those with shorter length of stay. Other variables in the model were length of stay in the U.S. and age of respondent. Together, the four variables explained a total of 13.5% of the variance in the model. Overall, the variable that tended to have high significance on the social difficulty of the study respondents was "Asia", which entered the regression model first (p=.006).

Conclusions, Implications and Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions, implications and recommendations were derived:

Objective One: Demographics

Objective one was to describe the undergraduate foreign students enrolled in institutions of higher education in the United States (U.S.) based on the following selected demographic characteristics: Country of origin, Length of stay in the United States, Marital status, Gender, Age, Level of previous work experience in home country, Field of study, and College classification.

It is important to know the background of the students in order to design an effective orientation program for them. Different cultures have different patterns of social difficulty associated with everyday situations (Bochner, 1982). Research shows that the experience of female students differs in some respects from male students (Goldsmith & Shawcross, 1985; Rowe & Sjoberg, 1981). Nationality, field of study, academic level, age, marital status and a host of other demographic characteristics have been also found to affect the level of problem and adjustment experienced by foreign students (Zikopoulos, 1993). Except for a few exceptions, overall, the study respondents reported low levels of social difficulty, without any responses in the "Extreme" category. However, no differences were found in social difficulty by these demographics.

Objective One: Conclusions

The demographic data showed that the majority of the students in the study were males. Also, the largest percentage of the respondents came from Asia. The largest percentage of students had lived in the U.S. for 6 to 11 months. Students majoring in the sciences made up more than half the sample. Students classified as college freshmen made up the largest number of the sample. The majority of the respondents had 0 to 5 years of previous work experience in their home countries. The largest number in the sample were in the 18 to 24 age group. The majority of the sample was single.

At the university and national levels, Asia tends to be the leading world region in sending students to the United States. The same trend was observed in this study. At the national level, according to Opendoors (1998/99), Asian students make up about 56% of the foreign students enrolled in the U.S. [Online] available at:http://www.open

doorsweb.org/Lead%20Stories/international_studs.htm. A large majority of the respondents (94%) were single, and had less than five years of previous work experience in their home countries. The married student ratio was found to be below the national average. OpenDoors (1998/99) reported that 14.8% of the foreign students enrolled in the U.S. in 1999 were married as opposed to the low ratio at LSU. [Online]. Available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/econimpact3.html.

Objective One: Recommendations

Since the majority of the respondents in this study had only been in the United States less than one year, further research should be conducted on undergraduate foreign students who had been in the United States for longer periods of time. This recommendation is based on research by William B. Hart (1999) and others. Hart cited the work of several researchers as they examined the effects on intercultural sojourning:

> Oberg (1960) identified slightly different stages of the international sojourn: (1) the honeymoon stage where the sojourner is enthusiastic about being in a new place, (2) the crisis where the cultural difference lead to culture shock, (3) the recovery where the sojourner gradually learns how to better function in the new culture, and (4) the adjustment where the sojourner is comfortable and functioning well in the new culture. Drawing upon the past stage models of intercultural sojourning, Gullahorn & Gullahorn (1963) pictured the international traveler going through a U-curve of adjustment. Upon entering the new culture the sojourner is in good spirits, but gradually faces more and more difficulties eventually leading the lowest level of depression and frustration. In the midst of the crisis (culture shock), there is now no where else to go. The sojourner has hit bottom. The sojourner gradually adjusts and gains back their good spirit.

Additional research could add insights on how to better work with students as they go in and out of their home and host cultures. Since this research did not include graduate foreign students, future research should be conducted using this group. The results may yield additional, valuable findings.

Objective Two: Description of Social Difficulty

Objective two was to determine the Social Difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students enrolled in institutions of higher education in the United States.

Objective Two: Conclusions

The researcher concluded that undergraduate foreign students experienced low levels of social difficulty. Although participants experienced slight difficulty in social situations, "Making friends your own age" and "Appearing in front of an audience (acting, giving a speech)" caused the most distress.

Data from the Best Friend Check List were more encouraging than similar studies conducted in the United States and Australia (Bochner, 1981) where close friendship with the host nationals were reported at only 18%. There is little doubt that the students who participated in the present study were socially linked with the host society, in part due to their interaction with best friends and preferred companions. This could create an opportunity for learning the social skills of the host culture, in turn resulting in even more intimate contact with the American people.

In selecting the first best friend, the most salient network was the co-national, followed by other country foreigners. In selecting the second and third best friend, the most salient network was the co-national one, followed by bonds with host nationals. The relatively high number of intimate contacts with host nationals may reflect a friendly environment of the university where foreign students have opportunities to interact with the host culture, breaking language barriers and easing adjustment problems. These social networks of students may lead to easier adjustment process.

The university environment must be "doing something right" in providing opportunities for undergraduate foreign students to interact with each other, as well as host nationals and other fellow foreigners. For instance, the foreign student orientation programs, the international students' center, and the hospitality foundation among other things may be contributing factors to the friendly environment.

Objective Two: Recommendations

Institutions of higher education should continue providing opportunities for student interactions. Programs that encourage public speaking should be designed for undergraduate foreign students. The International Center should provide more opportunities for cross cultural interactions. This recommendation is based on the finding that the activity "Appearing in front of an audience (acting, giving a speech)" was the second most difficult item selected by the respondents.

Objective Three: Comparison of Social Difficulty

Objective three was to compare the social difficulty (as measured by the Social Situation Questionnaire) of foreign students currently enrolled in institutions of higher education in the U. S. based on the following selected demographic characteristics: Gender; Country of origin; Marital status; Field of study, Level of previous work experience in home country, and College classification.

Objective Three: Conclusions

The researcher concluded that specific programs were not necessary for students from different world regions since there were no differences between the participants' social difficulty levels and the independent variable world region or any of the other independent variables (gender, marital status, field of study, previous work experience, age, or college classification). This conclusion is based on the overall low scores reported by the respondents, and by the fact that the ANOVA procedure showed no statistically significant differences among compared groups. Evidently, Louisiana State University's programs for undergraduate foreign students appear to be effective in easing students' adjustment to the host culture.

Since the largest percentage of students had lived in the U.S. for a short period, they may still be in the "happiness stage" as mentioned by Hart (1999). At this stage, the sojourners are enthusiastic about being in a new place and may not be cognizant of any social difficulties. Other factors could also contribute to the low levels of difficulty reported by the study respondents, such as the respondents saying what they thought the researcher wanted to hear, and completing the instrument in a hurry without putting any thought into the activity. Or, it could be that foreign students are actually similar in general except for a few minor differences.

Objective Three: Recommendations

Louisiana State University should continue providing opportunities for student interactions by exposing more foreign students to various social situations that encourage interactions with host nationals. Also, LSU must constantly be aware of the learning the needs of foreign students in order to design appropriate orientation programs which can be evaluated to meet students' needs.

Further research should be conducted that allows open-ended questions that could elicit additional input from respondents. The problem with the social situation difficulty level groupings is that they are too limiting for respondents to make appropriate choices. Future groups should include categories to create more room for respondents to select the most appropriate group that matches their experiences. In addition, adding a qualitative component to the questionnaire may yield valuable information.

Objective Four: Social Adjustment Model

The fourth objective was to determine if a model existed which explained a significant portion of the variance in the extent to which foreign students experience social difficulty based on country of origin, length of stay in the United States, marital status, gender, age, level of previous work experience, field of study, and college classification.

Objective Four: Conclusions

Based on the findings, the researcher concluded that a substantively and statistically model does exist which increases the researcher's ability to correctly explain the social difficulty of undergraduate foreign students enrolled at LSU during the spring 2000 semester. Based on the model, Asians may not have been as well assimilated to the host culture as other undergraduate foreign students.

Objective Four: Recommendations

The researcher recommended a refinement of the model by replicating the study. University international students office, involved with designing the foreign student orientation programs, should engage in further study of the social difficulty of foreign students as a way of improving students' adjustment process. The rapidly changing demographic make-up of the U.S. population is on the increase and therefore, requires more studies of this nature to help in explanation and prediction of undergraduate foreign student social difficulty. The university requires efficient and modern orientation programs that will ensure that students who come to study at LSU feel comfortable to remain enrolled to the completion of their educational program.

The study should be conducted during the fall semester at LSU. Since the fall semester is the beginning of the academic year, more new foreign students are enrolled. The researcher recommends the inclusion of graduate foreign students in the next study to see the influence of another level of students in the study. In addition, the researcher recommends that qualitative format such as face-to-face interview be used in future studies because this probing approach may produce more detail information than the questionnaire. Foreign student management requires rigorous research that will make a positive contribution to the field and ensure effective adjustment of foreign students at LSU.

Since the geographic location of the student is an important factor in foreign student adjustment, the researcher also recommended further studies on Asian student social difficulty. Whether or not the student comes from Asia has an influence on the social difficulty of a student's social difficulty. This is based on the findings that the variable Asia has a positive and statistically significant correlation with social difficulty (r=.23, n=105, p<.006). The findings of the current study show that 38% of the respondents came from Asia. The researcher further recommended a qualitative study that will focus on

the reasons why students from Asia at LSU tend to experience such high levels of difficulty compared to students from other world regions. The findings from that study may provide some solutions to the high levels of their social difficulty.

Overall, the researcher recommended that the instrument be modified to include more continuous data. For example in the age category, the participants should be asked to state their age on their last birthday rather than making categorical selections. The length of stay should also be continuous rather than categorical for better analysis. Also, the researcher recommended in-class data collection to ensure a high response rate from study participants. Further research is needed in order to refine the model and to explain more of the variance in the social difficulty of foreign students.

Implications

There is one big implication of the results of this study for the administration of Louisiana State University. The implication is that it is important for the administration to be aware that the undergraduate foreign students at LSU experience low levels of social difficulty. However, even though the study participants were overall well adjusted, there were a few cases that reported higher levels of social difficulties. This was especially true with the students from Asia and Africa who reported moderate to great difficulty in some social situations. The numbers of individuals may signal to the administration of LSU, that some problems do exist. However, the planning of foreign student orientation programs may not warrant the isolation of students from specific world regions for special attention. Rather, the needs of foreign students should be identified and solutions sought for problem areas in order to ease adjustment pains. The undergraduate foreign student body at LSU seems to be well assimilated into the American culture, and this can be seen from the social networks of students which is expanded to include co-national, host and other foreign networks. The researcher believes that the fine programs at LSU will continue to grow and attract students from around the world, even in times of fierce competition from other countries and distance education.

REFERENCES

Academe: (2000, September-October). Does diversity make a difference? A research report. Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors, 86, 5, 54-57.

Al-Sharideh, K. A., & Goe, W. R. (1998). Ethnic communities within the university: An examination of factors influencing the personal adjustment of international students. Research in Higher Education, 39, 6. pp. 699-725

Alexander, A. A., Workneh, F., Klein, M. H., & Miller, M. H. (1976). Psychotherapy and the foreign student. In Pedersen, P., Conner, W. S., & Draguns, J. G. (eds.), Counseling across Cultures. pp 82 - 97. Honolulu: The University of Hawaii.

Amir, Y. (1983). Contact hypothesis in ethnic relations. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Anderson, N. H. (1968). Likableness ratings of 555 Personality-trait words. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 9, 272-9.

Argyle, M. (1979). New developments in the analysis of social skills, non-verbal behavior. Academic Press, London.

Baker, R. W., & Siryk, B. (1984). Measuring adjustment to college. Journal of Counseling Psychology 31: 179 -189.

Basu, A. K., & Ames, R. G. (1970). Cross-cultural contanct and attitude formation. Sociology and Social Research 55, 5-16.

Bennett, C., & Okinaka, A. M. (1990). Factors related to persistence among Asian, Black, Hispanic, and White undergraduates at a predominantly white university: comparison between first and fourth year cohorts. Urban Review 22: 33 - 60. Press.

Bennett, J. W., Passin, H., & McKnight, R. K. (1958). In search of identity: The Japanese overseas scholar in America and Japan. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

Berry, J. W., & Annis, R. C. (1974). Ecology, culture and psychological differentiation. International Journal of Psychology, 9, 173-93.

Bochner, S. (1982). Cultures in contact. Studies in cross-cultural interaction. Pergamon press. New York.

Bochner, S. (Editor). (1981). The mediating person: bridges between cultures. Schenkman, Cambridge, Mass.

Bochner, S., Lin, A., & McLeod, B. M. (1980). Anticipated role conflict of returning overseas students. Journal of Social Psychology, 110, 265-72.

Bochner, S., & Orr, F. E. (1979). Race and academic status as determinants of friendship formation: A field study. International Journal of Psychology, 14, 37-46.

Bochner, S., McLeod, B. M.,& Lin, A. (1977). Friendship patterns of overseas students: a functional model. International Journal of Psychology, 12, 277-94.

Bochner, S., Buker, E. A., & McLeod, b. M. (1976). Communication patterns in an international student dormitory: a modification of the "Small World" method. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 6, 275-90.

Boldt, E. D. (1978). Structural tightness and cross-cultural research. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 9, 151-65.

Boxer, A. H. (1969). Experts in Asia: An inquiry into Australian technical assistance. Australian National University Press, Canberra.

Brislin, R. (1993). Understanding Cultures Influences on Behavior. San Diego, California: Harcourt Brace.

Brislin, R. W. (1990). Applied cross-cultural psychology. Sage Publications, Newbury Park.

Brislin, R. W. (1975). Cross-cultural perspectives on learning. Sage Publications. Beverly Hills, California.

Brislin, R. W. (1979). Orientation programs for cross-cultural preparation, perspectives on cross-cultural psychology. (Edited by Marsella, A. J, Tharp, R. G. & Cibo-rowski, T. J.). Academic Press, New York.

Brislin, R. W., & Pederson, P. (1976). Cross-cultural orientation programs. Gardner Press, New York.

Bryant, B. M., & Trower, P. E. (1974). Social difficulty in a student sample. British Journal of Education Psychology, 44, 13-21.

Byrnes, F. C. (1965). Americans in technical assistance: A study of attitudes and responses to their role abroad. Praeger, New York.

Cao-Linglan. (1997). Experiences of overseas education in the United States. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Columbia University Teachers College.

Cattell, R. B., Breul, H., & Hartman, H. (1951). An attempt at a more refined definition of the cultural dimensions of syntality in modern nations. American Scolological Review, 17, 54-68.

Cartledge, G., & Milburn, J. F. (1996). Cultural diversity and social skills instruction: understanding ethnic and gender differences. 2612 North Mattis Avenue, Champaign, IL: Research Press.

Cartwright, D., & Zander, A. (1960). Group cohesiveness: Introduction, group dynamics: research and theory, 2nd Edition (Edited by Cartwright, D. and Zander, A.). Harper & Row, New York.

Carey, A. T. (1956). Colonial Students. Secker & Warburg, London.

Chang-Shau-Ju. (1996). Intercultural communication and adaptation: A longitudinal study of Taiwanese graduate students' sojourning experiences in a midwestern American university. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Chartrand, J. M. (1992). An empirical test of a model of nontraditional student adjustment. Journal of Counseling Psychology 39: 193 - 202.

Cleveland, H., Mangone, G. J., & Adams, J. G. (1960). The overseas Americans. McGraw-Hill, New York.

Dalili, F. (1982). Foreign students in institutions of higher education in the U. S. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 225 498).

Drucker. P. (March 1997). Noting the threat of E-education to increasingly costly bricks-and-mortar campuses. [Online]. Available at: http://www.opendoorsweb.org/

Lead%20Stories/onlineIEP.htm

Endler, N. S., & Magnusson, D. (1976). International psychology and personality. Wiley, New York.

Endler, N. S., & Hunt, K. (1968). S-R inventories of hostility and comparisons of the proportions of variance from persons, responses, and situations for hostility and anxiousness. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 9, 309-15.

Foa, U. G., & Chemers, M. M. (1967). The significance of role behavior differentiation for cross-cultural interaction training. International Journal of Psychology, 2, 45-57.

Fayerweather, J. (1959). The executive overseas: Administrative attitudes and relationships in a foreign culture. Syracuse University Press, Syracuse.

Fiedler, F. E., Mitchell, T., & Triandis, H. C. (1971). The culture assimilator: an approach to cross-cultural training. Journal of Applied Psychology, 55, 95-102.

Furnham, A. (1993). Communicating in foreign lands: the cause, consequences and cures of culture shock. Language, Culture and Curriculum, 6, 1, 91-109.

Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1989). Culture shock psychological reactions to unfamiliar environments. Routledge, London.

Furnham, A. (1979). Assertiveness in three cultures: Multidimensionality and cultural differences. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 35, 522-7.

Gambrill, E. (1977). Behavior modification. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.

Ghosh, C. (1997). Foreign students frustrated by visas and high costs. The American observer. [Online]. Available: **Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**

Grenier, C. E., St. Martin G. M., & Schmidt, E. L. (1986). Assessing international student needs and opinions for program and policy development. Paper Presented at the 38th National Association of Foreign Student Advisors (NAFSA) Conference, San Antonio, May 11-14.

Guthrie, G. M. (1975). A behavioral analysis of cultural learning, cross-cultural perspectives on learning. (Edited by Brislin, R. W., Bochner, S. & Lonner, W.J.). Wiley, NewYork.

Guthrie, & Zektick, I. N. (1967). Predicting performance in the Peace Corps. Journal of Social Pschyology, 71, 11-21.

Guthrie, G. M. (1966). Cultural preparation for the Philippines, cultural frontiers of the Peace Corps. (Edited by Textor, R. B.). The M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

Hagemann, J. A. (1984). Teaching creative thinking skills to foreign adults to facilitate their adaptation to the U. S. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 244 520).

Hall, E. T. (1959). The silent language. Doubleday, Garden City, New York.

Hall, J., & Beil-Warner, D. (1978). Assertiveness of male Anglo and Mexican-American college students. Journal of Social Psychology, 105, 175-8.

Harre, R. (1977). The ethogenic approach: Theory and practice. Advances in Experimental Social Psychology, 10. (Edited by Berkowitz, L.). Academic Press, New York.

Harris, J. G. (1973). A science of the South Pacific: Analysis of the character structure of the Peace Corps volunteer. American Psychologist, 28, 232-47.

Harrison, R., & Hopkins, R. (1967). The design of cross-cultural training: An alternative to the university model. The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 3, 431-460.

Hart, W. B. (1999). The intercultural sojourn as the hero's journey. The Edge: The E-Journal of Intercultural Relations, 2, 1, HART-LI.COMmunictions. [Online]. Available: http://www.hart-li.com/biz/theedge/

Hartsell, E. (1999). New expeditions: Charting the future of global education in community colleges. [Online]. Available at: http://www.aacc.nche.edu/initiatives/

newexpeditions/poaciiedixe.htm

Hill, S. T. (1996, August). Non-U.S. citizens are 40 percent of S&E doctorate recipients from U.S. universities in 1995. National Science Foundation. Vol. 1996, No. 9. [Online]. Available at: **Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**

Hodgkin, M. C. (1972). The cultural background of Southeast Asian students in Australia. Overseas Students in Australia. (Edited by Bochner, S. & Wicks, P.). The New South Wales University Press, Sydney.

Hurtado, S. C., & Spuler, A. (1996). Latino student transition to college: Assessing difficulties and factors in successful college adjustment. Research in Higher Education 37: 135-157.

Johnson, D. C. (1971). Problems of foreign students. International Educational and Cultural Exchange 7: 61-68.

Kaneya, R. (1997). Columbia's Foreign Student Enrollment at all-time High. [Online]. Available at http://www5.interaccess.com/chronicle/back/april1497/

article2.html

Kapoor, S. & Smith, R. (1978). The role of communication in acculturation of foreign students. Faculty paper for presentation at AEJ convention. U.S. Department of Health Education & Welfare National Institute of Education. ERIC document no. ED 165183.

Klein, M. H. (1977). Overview: Adaptation to new cultural environments. National Institute of Education. U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 142 650.

Klineberg, O. (1970a). Psychological aspects of student exchange, students as links between cultures. (Edited by Eide, I.). UNESCO, Paris.

Labor, J. G. (1965). The relations of some selected personal orientations and background factors to the adjustment of foreign students in an American university. Master's Thesis, Western Michigan University, Kalamazoo, Michigan.

Lambert, R. D., & Bressler, M. (1956). Indian students on an American campus. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

Leff, J. (1977). The cross-cultural study of emotions. Culture, Medicine and Psychiatry, 1, 317-50.

Leon, T. L., & Kim, H. H. (1991, September/October). Going beyond cultural sensitivity on the road to multiculturalism: Using the intercultural sensitizer as a counselor training tool. Journal of Counseling & Development, 70(1), 112.

Lenzner, R., & Johnson, S. (1997). Seeing things as they really are. [Online] available at: http://www.forbes.com/forbes/97/0310/5905122a.htm

Lester, W. (1998). Foreign students in U. S. up 5.1%. The Associated Press. [Online]. Available at **Error! Hyperlink reference not valid.**

Louis, M. (1998, February). U.S. Schools face competition for incoming foreign students. The Wall Street Journal. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/acc/itm_6.0.html

Magnusson, D., & Stanttin, H. (1978). A cross-cultural comparison of anxiety responses in an international frame of reference. International Journal of Psychology, 13, 317-32.

Malik, A. (2000). Providing academic support to international students. [Online] available at: http://www.indiana.edu/~1506/amalik.html

Marcus, J. (1998). Crisis forces Some Asian Students to Drop out of U.S. Schools. The Associated Press. [Online] available at: http://www.techserver.com/newsroom/ntn/biz/011598/biz15_28402_S3_noframes.html

Meloni, C. F. (1986). Adjustment Problems of Foreign Students in U. S. Colleges and Universities. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 276 296).

Milem, J. F. (2000, September-October). Why Race Matters. Academe: Bulletin of the American Association of University Professors, 86, 5, 27-29.

Milton, T. J. (1997). Understanding culture shock. [Online]. Available at: http://www.faoa.org

Mish, F.C., et al. (1993). Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary. (10th Ed.). Springfield, Massachusetts: Merriam-Webster, Inc.

Mobility International USA. International student exchange program. [Online] available at: http://www.miusa.org/participant/prog19.htm

Morris, R. T. (1960). The two-way mirror. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

NAFSA. (2000). International students in the U.S. [Online] available at: http://www.embark.com/nafsa/International.asp

NAFSA. (2000). International education factsheet. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/facts00.html

NAFSA. (2000). The economic benefits of international education to the United States of America: A statistical analysis. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/econimpact3.html

NAFSA. (2000). The U.S. Presidents on Fulbright and International Exchange Programs. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/advo/presidents.html.

NAFSA. (2000). U.S. Schools face competition for incoming foreign students. [Online] available at: http://www.nafsa.org/acc/itm_6.0.html

National Science Foundation, Washington, DC. (1987). Foreign citizens in U. S. Science and Engineering: History, status, and outlook. Surveys of Science resources series report, revised. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 284 762).

National Science Foundation. Higher education in science and engineering. [Online] available at: http://www.nsf.gov/sbe/srs/seind98/c2/c2s3.htm

Oberg, K. (1960). Cultural shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. Practical Anthropology, 7, 177-82.

OpenDoors. (2000). [Online] available at: http://www.opendoorsweb.org

OpenDoors. (2000). Global competition for international students, trans-nationalism and technology will shape international enrollment in the U.S. in the next decade. [Online] available at: http://www.opendoorsweb.org/Lead%20Stories/future.htm

OpenDoors. (1998/99). Asian students make up 56% of all U.S. international enrollments. [Online] available at: http://www.opendoorsweb.org/Lead%20Stories/international_studs.htm

Pendleton, D., & Furnham, A. (1980). Skills: A paradigm for applied social psychological research, analysis of social skill. (Edited by Singleton, W., Spurgeon, P. & Stammers, R.). Plenum, New York.

Porter, R. E. (1972). An overview of intercultural communication. Intercultural Communication: A reader. (Edited by Smovar, L. A. & Porter, R. E.). Wadsworth, Belmont, California.

Priestley, P., McGuire, J., Flegg, D., Hemsley, V., & Welham, D. (1978). Social skills and personal problem solving. Tavistock, London.

Quintana, S. M., Vogel, M. C., & Ybarra, V. C. (1991). Meta-analysis of Latino students' adjustment in higher education. Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Science, 13, 155-168.

Reinicke, M. J. (1986). Cultural adjustment of international students in the U. S.: A reevaluation using reformulated learned helplessness. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 274 939).

Richardson, A. (1974). British immigrants and Australia: a Psychosocial inquiry. ANU Press, Canberra.

Rim, Y. (1976). A note on personality, psychosocial disturbance and difficulties in social groups in two cultures. Interpersonal Development, 6, 91-5.

Rood, R. (2000). Reaching the world that has come to us. [Online]. Available at: http://leaderu.com/orgs/probe/docs/missions.html

Salim, S. B. (1984). Adjustment problems of Malaysian students at Western Michigan University. PhD. Dissertation, Western Michigan University.

Scott, F. D. (1956). The American rxperience of Swedish Students: Retrospect and aftermath. University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

Selltiz, C. & Cook, S. W. (1962). Factors influencing attitudes of foreign students toward the host country. Journal of Social issues, 18, (1), 7-23.

Selltiz, C. (1963). Attitudes and social relations of foreign students in the United States. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Selltiz, C., Christ, J. R; Havel, O., & Cook, S. W. (1963). Attitudes and social relations of foreign students in the United States, Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press.

Sewell, W. H., & Davidsen, O. M. (1961). Scandinavian students on an American Campus. Univeristy of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis.

Sewell, W. H., & Davidson, O. M. (1956). The adjustment of Scandinavian students. Journal of Social Issues, 12, 9-19.

Shattuck, G. M. (1965). Between two cultures: A study of the social adaptation of foreign students to an American academic community. Department of Rural Sociology, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York.

Sharma, S. (1973, May). "A study to identify and analyze adjustment problems experienced by foreign non-european graduate students enrolled in selected universities in the state of North Carolina." California Journal of Educational Research.

Siegel, S. (1956). Nonparametric statistics for the behavioral sciences. New York: McGraw Hill.

Singh, A. K. (1963). Indian students in Britain. Asia Publishing House, Bombay.

Skinner, A. K. (1968). American industry in developing economies: The management of international manufacturing. Wiley, New York.

Smalley, W. (1963). Culture shock, language shock, and the shock of self-discovery. Practical Anthropology, 10, 49-56.

Smeldley, B. D., Myers, H. F., & Harrell, S. P. (1993). Minority-status stresses and the college adjustment of ethnic minority freshmen. Journal of Higher Education 64: 434 -452.

Smith, P. Z. (1989). International student depression during cultural adjustment: Two counseling approaches and strategies. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service NO. ED 312 527).

Smith, M. B. (1966). Explorations in competence: A study of Peace Corps teachers in Ghana. American Psychologist, 21, 555-66.

Stafford, T. H., Marion, P. B., & Salter, M. L. (1980). Adjustment of international students. National Association of Personnel Administration 18: 40 - 45.

Stecklein, J. E., Liu, H. C., Anderson, J. F., & Gunaratne, S. A. (1971, July). "Attitudes of foreign students toward educational experience at the University of Minnesota." University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota: Bureau of Institutional Research.

Stewart, E. C. (1966). The simulation of cultural differences. Journal of Communication, 16, 291-304.

Stonequist, E. V. (1937). The Marginal Man. Scribner, New York.

Sue, D., & Kirk B. (1975). "Asian Americans: Use of counseling and psychiatric services on a college campus." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 22, No.1, 84-86.

Sue, S. and Sue, D. (1974). "MMPI Ccmparisons between Asian-American and non-Asian students utilizing a student sealth psychiatric clinic." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 21, No. 5.

Sundberg, N., Snowden, L., & Reynolds, W. (1978). Toward assessment of personal competence and incompetence in life situations. Annual Review of Psychology, 29, 179-221.

Taft, R. (1977). Coping with unfamiliar culture. In Neil Warren (ed.), Studies in Cross-Culture Psychology l: 121 - 153. London: Academic Press.

Tayash, A. F. (1988). Ethnic media in the United States: A descriptive study of Arab-American media. Ph.D. Dissertation, Wayne State University.

Textor, R. B. (Editor). (1966). Cultural frontiers of the Peace Corps. The M.I.T. Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

The World Book Encyclopedia. (1986). Culture. Ci-Cz, volume 4. Chicago.

Torrey, E. F., Van Rheenan, F., & Katchadourian, H. (1970). "Problems of Foreign Students: An Overview." Journal of the American College Health Association, 19, 83-86.

Triandis, H. C. (1967). Interpersonal relations in international organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 2, 26-55.

Triandis, H. C. (1975). Culture training, cognitive complexity and interpersonal attitudes, cross-cultural perspectives on learning (Edited by Brislin, R. W., Bochner, S. & Lonner, W. J.). Wiley, New York.

Trower, P., Bryant, B. & Argyle, M. (1978). Social skills and mental health. Methuen, London.

Van Der Kolk, C. (1978). Physiological reaction of Black, Puerto-Rican and White students in suggested ethnic encounters. Journal of Social Psychology, 104, 107-14.

Vaz, P. (1984). Stress, adjustment and social relations of foreign students. Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Nebraska - Lincoln.

Webster's NewWorld Dictionary of the American Language. (1984). Second Edition. New York.

Wilson, A. T. (1961). Recruitment and selection for work in foreign cultures. Human Relations, 14(1), 3-21.

Zikopoulos, M. and others (1993). Open Doors 1991/92: Report on international education exchange. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 351 988).

APPENDIX A: THEORETICAL CLASSIFICATION OF COUNTRIES

Regional Classification of Countries Represented in the Study

Africa	Asia	Europe	Latin America
Ethiopia	Bangladesh	Bosnia	Brazil
Gabon	China	Bulgaria	Costa Rica
Kenya	India	Cyprus	Ecuador
Mauritius	Japan		El Salvador
Tanzania	Korea		Honduras
Zimbabwe	Malaysia		Mexico
	Pakistan		Nicaragua
	Syria		Quatamala
	Singapore		Suriname
	Thailand		Venezuela
	Vietnam		

Note: Although "Cyprus is geographically a part of Asia, its people live much like southern Europeans and have a relatively high standard of living" (World Book Encyclopedia, 1986, p.963), therefore the researcher chose to include Cyprus under Europe for the purpose of this study.

APPENDIX B: THE SOCIAL SITUATION ITEMS

1. Making friends of your own age.
2. Shopping in a large supermarket.
3. Going on public transport (train, buses).
4. Going to discotheques or dances

5. Making United States friends of your own age
6. Making close friends from other countries of your own age
7. Going to a small private party with American people.
8. Going out with somebody who you are sexually attracted to
9. Being with a group of people of your age, but of the opposite sex
10. Going into restaurants or cafes
11. Going into a room full of people
12. Being with older American people
13. Meeting strangers and being introduced to new people
14. Being with people that you don't know very well
15. Approaching others - making the first move in starting up a friendship
16. Making ordinary decisions (plans) affecting others (what to do in the evenings).
17. Getting to know people in depth (well, intimately).
18. Taking the initiative in keeping the conversation going
19. People standing or sitting very close to you.
20. Talking about yourself and your feelings in a conversation.
21. Dealing with people staring at you.
22. Attending a formal dinner
23. Complaining in public - dealing with unsatisfactory services
24. See a doctor.
25. Appearing in front of an audience (acting, giving a speech).
26. Being interviewed for something.
27. Being the leader (chairman) of a small group.
28. Dealing with people of higher status than you.
29. Reprimanding a subordinate - telling off someone below you for something that they have done wrong.

30. Going to a social occasion where there are many people of another national or cultural group to yourself.
31. Apologizing to a superior if you have done wrong.
32. Understanding jokes, humor and sarcasm.
33. Dealing with somebody who is cross and aggressive (abusive).
34. Buying special goods (medicines, books, electrical goods, etc.).
35. Using public and private toilet facilities.
36. Waiting in Q [queue].
37. Getting very intimate with a person of opposite sex.
38. Going into pubs.
39. Going to worship (church, temple, mosque).
40. Talking about serious matters (politics, religion) to people of your own age.

APPENDIX C: THE SOCIAL SITUATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

Please read each item carefully, and then indicate how much difficulty, if any, you experienced in the following situations since arriving in the United States (U.S.). Please note:

- Your answers must relate to your experience in the U.S., and NOT your home country.
- This questionnaire has four distinct parts, each having a different set of instructions.

In the context of this instrument, "experiencing difficulty" is defined as feeling anxious, uncomfortable, frightened, embarrassed or uneasy. Please give your response on a six-point scale with **0 being the lowest and 5 being the highest** level of difficulty: never experienced = 0, no difficulty = 1, slight difficulty = 2, moderate difficulty = 3, great difficulty = 4, and extreme difficulty = 5.

Part 1: The Social Situation Items

Please circle the number that corresponds with your answer

1.	Making friends of your own age	0	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Shopping in a large supermarket	0	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Going on public transport (train, buses).	0	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Going to discotheques or dances	0	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Making United States friends of your own age	0	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Making close friends from other countries of your own age	0	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Going to a small private party with American people.	0	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Going out with somebody who you are sexually attracted to.	0	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Being with a group of people of your age, but of the opposite sex	0	1	2	3	4	
10.	Going into restaurants or cafes	0	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Going into a room full of people	0	1				

12. Being with older American people 0 1

13. Meeting strangers and being introduced to new people 0 1

14. Being with people that you don't know very well 0 1

15. Approaching others - making the first move in starting up a friendship 0 1 2 3 4

16. Making ordinary decisions (plans) affecting others (what to do in the evenings) 0 1

17. Getting to know people in depth (well, intimately) 0 1

18. Taking the initiative in keeping the conversation going 0 1

19. People standing or sitting v

er y cl os e to y o u 0 1

20. Talking about yourself a n d y o ur fe el in gs in a c o n v er sa ti o n 0 1

21. Dealing with people st ar in g at y o u 0 1

22. Attending a formal di n n er 0 1

23. Complaining in public - d ea li n g

with unsatisfactory services					0	1
24. See a doctor	0	1	2	3		4
25. Appearing in front of an audience (acting, giving a speech)					0	1
26. Being interviewed for something					0	1
27. Being the leader (chairman)						

of a small group p 0 1

28. Dealing with people of higher status than you 0 1

29. Reprimanding a subordinate - telling off someone below you for something that they have done wrong 0 1

30. Going to a social occasion where there are many people of another national or cultural group

to yourself 0 1

31. Apologizing to a superior if you have done wrong 0 1

32. Understanding jokes, humor and sarcasm 0 1

33. Dealing with somebody who is cross and a

g gr es si v e (a b us iv e) 0 1

34. Buying special goods (m e di ci n es , b o o ks , el ec tri ca l g o o ds , et c.) 0 1

35. Using public and private to il et fa ci lit ie s 0 1

36. Waiting in line 0 1 2 3

37. Getting very intimate w it

		h a p er so n of o p p os it e se x	0		1
38. Going into pubs	0	1	2		3
39. Going to worship (c h ur c h, te m pl e, m os q u e)	0				1
40. Talking about serious matters (politics, religion) to people of your own age	0	1	2		3

Part 2: The Best Friends Check List

Instructions

Please think of ACTUAL people presently residing in the U.S. and answer the following questions. Who are your best friends in the United States? Could you please think of all the people whom you know in the U. S., and from this group select the **three persons** who are your best friends.

Note: To preserve the anonymity of your friends, please do not give their names - just describe them using the categories provided in the table below. Remember that we would like you to think of three ACTUAL persons who are your best friends.

MY BEST FRIENDS

Characteristics of my best friends	1	2	3
Age			
Sex			
Nationality			
Occupation			
Lives where? (College, Apartment, Host Family)			

Part 3: The Companion Check List

Individuals seem to prefer the company of different sorts of people for different kinds of activities. Below is a list of some everyday activities. What kind of person do you prefer to do these things with in the United States? Think of an actual person who would be most appropriate as a companion for each activity, and then describe that person using the categories in the table. The list of activities has been arranged in alphabetical order.

Descriptive characteristics of

preferred companion

Activity/situation	AGE	SEX	NATIONALITY	OCCUPATION
1. Seek help for an academic problem				
2. Go to a disco or party				
3. Visit a doctor				
4. Seek help for a language problem				
5. Go to the movies				
6. Go out with a person of the opposite sex				
7. Seek help for a personal problem				
8. Go into a pub				
9. Shopping				
10. Sightseeing				
11. Attend a place of worship				

Part 4: Demographics

Instructions

The following questions are designed to provide some personal information about you. Please answer the questions as best you can:

7. What is your world region? My home country is ----------

8. How long have you lived in the United States?

   a. Less than one month - 5 months

   b. 6 - 11 months

   c. 1 - 2 years

   d. Other ----. Please indicate — years

9. Marital status

   a. Married. If married, does spouse live in the U. S.? (Yes), (No)

   b. Single

10. Gender

   a. Male

   b. Female

11. Age

   a. 18 - 24

   b. 25 - 34

   c. 35 - 45

   d. Other. Please indicate —— years

12. Level of previous work experience in **home country**

   a. 0 - 5 years

   b. 6 - 9 years

   c. 10 - 15 years

   d. Other. Please indicate —— years

13. Field of study (college major)

a. Math

b. Science

c. Other. Please specify major ----------

14. College classification

a. Freshman

b. Sophomore

c. Junior

d. Senior

Thank you for choosing to participate in the study!

APPENDIX D: PERMISSION TO USE SCALE

VITA

Bridget Oscar Udoh obtained a Bachelor of Science degree in Animal Science in 1984 and a Master of Education degree in Agricultural Education in1985, both from Southern University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana. She will receive her Doctor of Philosophy degree in Vocational Education in December, 2000, with a special emphasis in the field of Training and Development/Human Resource Development, from Louisiana State University.

Bridget was appointed to a Research Assistant position by Southern University in 1992. Her work as a Research Assistant involved experiential laboratory instruction in Animal Science, student recruitment, and assessing students for internships and scholarships. Before joining Southern University, she worked as a Higher Agricultural Superintendent Officer in the Cross River State Ministry of Agriculture, Nigeria for ten years.

Bridget has published one article related to Agricultural Extension in the *Journal of International Agricultural and Extension Education*. She has presented a paper at an international conference. She won a Huel Perkins Fellowship in August 1997 that enabled her to enroll in a doctoral program at L.S.U. She hopes to pursue a career in teaching, research and consultancy.

Bridget is married to Oscar Udoh, and they reside in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. They are members of the St. Jude Catholic Church, where Oscar is actively involved with St. Vincent de Paul Society, and Bridget serves in the St. Martha's Sewing Ministry. They have three children, Idorenyin, Eme, and Iboro-Umoh.

GEORGIA

TM034875

ACTE

U.S. Department of Education
Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI)
National Library of Education (NLE)
Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC)

REPRODUCTION RELEASE

(Specific Document)

I. DOCUMENT IDENTIFICATION:

Title: Cultural Adjustment of Foreign Students in an Institution of Higher Education

Author(s): Bridget Oscar Udoh

Corporate Source: Louisiana State University

Publication Date: 12/15/2000

II. REPRODUCTION RELEASE:

In order to disseminate as widely as possible timely and significant materials of interest to the educational community, documents announced in the monthly abstract journal of the ERIC system, *Resources in Education* (RIE), are usually made available to users in microfiche, reproduced paper copy, and electronic media, and sold through the ERIC Document Reproduction Service (EDRS). Credit is given to the source of each document, and, if reproduction release is granted, one of the following notices is affixed to the document.

If permission is granted to reproduce and disseminate the identified document, please CHECK ONE of the following three options and sign at the bottom of the page.

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 1 documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sample

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

1

Level 1

X

Check here for Level 1 release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche or other ERIC archival media (e.g., electronic) and paper copy.

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 2A documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE, AND IN ELECTRONIC MEDIA FOR ERIC COLLECTION SUBSCRIBERS ONLY, HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sample

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2A

Level 2A

☐

Check here for Level 2A release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche and in electronic media for ERIC archival collection subscribers only

The sample sticker shown below will be affixed to all Level 2B documents

PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE AND DISSEMINATE THIS MATERIAL IN MICROFICHE ONLY HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

Sample

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

2B

Level 2B

☐

Check here for Level 2B release, permitting reproduction and dissemination in microfiche only

Documents will be processed as indicated provided reproduction quality permits.
If permission to reproduce is granted, but no box is checked, documents will be processed at Level 1.

I hereby grant to the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) nonexclusive permission to reproduce and disseminate this document as indicated above. Reproduction from the ERIC microfiche or electronic media by persons other than ERIC employees and its system contractors requires permission from the copyright holder. Exception is made for non-profit reproduction by libraries and other service agencies to satisfy information needs of educators in response to discrete inquiries.

Sign here, → please

Signature:	Printed Name/Position/Title: Bridget Udoh, Comm. Specialist, PhD
Organization/Address: P.O. Box 10677, Southern University Baton Rouge, LA 70813	Telephone: 225-771-2262.210 FAX: 225-771-4464
	E-Mail Address: boudoh@subr.edu Date: 3/19/2002

(over)