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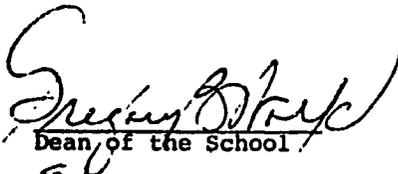
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CULTURAL EXCHANGE: A COMMUNICATION MODEL
FOR RE-ENTRY TRANSITION

By

Philip Williams Moeller

Submitted to the
Faculty of the School of International Service
of the American University
in Partial Fulfillment of
the Requirements for the Degree
of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
International Studies


Dean of the School

May 10, 1977
Date

Signature of Committee:

Chairman 



1977

The American University
Washington, D. C.

"12. . . . Those who step into the same river have different waters flowing over them."

"91. It is not possible to step in the same river. It is impossible to touch the same mortal substance twice, but through the rapidity of change they scatter and again combine and approach and separate."

Heracleitus of Ephesus

c500 B. C.

PREFACE

One of the first and primary factors with which man had to cope in order to survive in this world was change in the state of his environment. Nearly every aspect of his surroundings was subject to linear or cyclic change--the climate and seasons, the food chain, predators--just as was the very passage from birth to death. Man's ability to adjust to change and to profit from such adjustment gave him dominance over those species which could not do such and led to the ambitious task of attempting to affect and effect change in order to control the environment. The search for control led man to manufacture simple tools--the beginning of the long road toward technology--and, in those cases where man felt ineffectual, to turn to magic and ritual.

When man came to think of himself as a creature of reason, he sought to explain the nature of change and to relate it to the "structure" of reality. No issues was more central to the metaphysics of the Greek philosophers, for example, than whether "being" or "becoming" best described the nature of reality. According to Heracleitus permanence and constancy were deceptions, and reality was constantly in a state of change, i.e., "becoming." As an illustration he stated that man could never step into the same river

twice for the constant flow of fresh water made a succession of new rivers (Freeman, 1966: p. 24-28). Heraclitus was challenged by Zeno and other philosophers who stressed the importance of "being" or constancy in reality, and Plato attempted to reconcile the entire issue by distinguishing between individual variation and universal participation (Thilly and Wood, 1961: p. 75). This concern was not unique to Western man and is reflected in the concern of Eastern philosophers with such concepts as Ying and Yang.

Although I would not want to totally commit myself to a conception of history as man's reaction and adjustment to or effort to prevent or affect change, there is a great utility in such a conception. Without the flow of change historical periods would have little to distinguish themselves save the convenience of chronological demarcation. Rather, what makes historical periods significant is the kind of change that brought them to be, occurred during them, and brought them to an end. Change, moreover, provides not just a measure of variation but also of the cultural evolution of man.

Having given such emphasis to change as a constant in human experience would seem to negate the utility of the concept in itself as a distinguishing factor of life in the last half of the twentieth century. What has happened,

however, has been an acceleration in the rate, breadth, and depth of change. While man has had to face change in every century, since the dawn of the Second World War change has geometrically increased in impact.

According to Arnold Toynbee, survival in this new era, clearly the central challenge of our time, is a function of the ability of man to change his old habits. Although for all periods of history "at the social and cultural level of human life time spells change whether deliberate or involuntary," in a state of accelerated history the future of man rests on deliberate innovation (Toynbee, 1966: p. 19).

The discomfort of newness and the unknown brought by change and the uncertainty of where all the change is taking man is increasingly resulting in a distortion of man's mental state. This disorientation is identified by Alvin Toffler as "Future Shock" which he projects as the new psychological affliction of man (Toffler, 1970). Indeed the popularity of Toffler's book comes from the experience men have already had with the phenomenon he describes.

Although one might argue that man living at the time of the fall of the Roman Empire also faced inordinate change in his life; such change was more segmented and accompanied by an erosion of the socio-political system rather than by

a compacting of the socio-political system; both in the end represent a deterioration in the freedoms open to man. The sack of the village and burning of the garrison, however, provided a symbol on which to expect and accept change more easily than does the progressive reliance upon complex computer forms, additional government regulations, and the economic interplay of potential commodity wars.

It must be acknowledged that the intensity of this phenomenon is experienced on a differential basis. As has always been the case there are both epi-centers and peripheral regions of change. Variations exist both within and between countries. Under the new era, however, the centers are expanding and the percentage of the world population affected by change is increasing. All states are concerned with the issue of "development," moreover, which in all cases means change. The issue is complicated by such factors as the human tendency to exploit or profit from inequalities, a multitude of cultural factors, and the difficulties of "planning" change.

My first exposure to the study of international relations was both idealistic and ethically oriented; further exposure to realism and pragmatism have served to adjust my perspectives but have not removed the original foundations on which my involvement was based. My primary

concern is the effect the new era of change will have on the human condition. It is a broad concern, for it ranges from the role of technology in cultural modification--and the associated social costs of modernization--to the reflection of social tension and frustration in various forms of artistic expression.

Development planning has made substantial progress both in what it can achieve and in the way planning is executed. Hundreds of examples, however, document failures in planning. Planning problems represent a particularly serious concern in the new age of change because as societies increase their attempts to affect and effect change errors can carry a society a good distance before the course can be replotted; social resources are too easily wasted on marginal returns.¹

The exposure to development theory I received at the School of Advanced International Studies of Johns Hopkins University convinced me that development planning could not stand on economic theory alone but--as is true for most problem-solving efforts--profited most from an interdisciplinary approach. What seemed most necessary was a conceptual bridge with more than two ends to connect the various perspectives relevant to development.

For me that bridge has been provided by communication theory, or, more precisely, theories of communication.

The appeal of the communication approach for me rests with its interdisciplinary genesis and instance that culture and communication are inseparable. Born in a concern for the practical as well as the theoretical, communications not only is concerned with the role of communication in innovation and change but also introduces the concept of feedback to verify what changes or reactions have taken place and to what degree. As an adjunct to development planning moreover, communications is not only relevant to the dissemination of new information teaching of new skills but also to the mobilization of participation.²

The survival and growth of a country in this new era of change depends on many factors. Particularly important is the understanding by those individuals ultimately responsible for the introduction of innovation in a society of changes in the international system at large, of the dynamics of change within their own society, and of the interrelationships between the external and internal sets of change. Only with such an understanding can they react to and bring about change in their societies. Whether taken as a whole or thought of as individuals these change agents or protagonists of change (Said, 1971) represent an important dimension of a country's social capital.

Since World War II an increasing number of individuals possessing the potential to play roles as change agents

have received portions of their education abroad. Some of these individuals have traveled independently, but many have received institutional or governmental support, often through bilateral cultural exchange programs. These programs range from short training sessions or on-the-site observations to study terminating in an academic degree. It is usually assumed that such experiences are beneficial to both the individuals and their respective societies. It is the central premise of this study, however, that this assumption requires further consideration.

The literature relevant to cultural exchange comes from various disciplines. Although most of these works are more than just descriptive and go beyond the "hypodermic needle" level which (Berlo, 1960: p. 27) ascribes to nonprocess-oriented approaches, as a whole these works suffer from the lack of an integrating, core concept, and their utility and conceptual contributions vary greatly. Certain useful works have been contracted by the United States Government, but they are not listed in most scholarly indexes and in many cases are out of print or difficult to locate even when one does learn of their existence. This study seeks to draw on a balance of these works and, in turn, to provide a more unified perspective which will not only be of immediate theoretical and practical use, but

also serve to stimulate further research in this area.

This study formulates and applies a conceptual framework hereafter referred to, perhaps presumptuously, as a basic model for cultural exchange to both program construction and participant experience. Essentially a communication model, considerable emphasis, therefore, is given to the concept of process as well as to feedback. The study is especially concerned with participant preparation for re-entry into the home society and cultural shock associated with re-entry. Emphasis is given to the importance of participant reintegration into society as a prerequisite for application of what has been experienced abroad. Comparison of participants who have received such preparation and those who have not is offered in support of the thesis that preparation for cultural shock lessens the intensity of re-entry stress and increases participant effectiveness upon return to the home society. The data offered in support of a corollary of the thesis is restricted by several factors, discussed further in the body of the study, but is regarded sufficiently supportive to be of value.

The methodology used in this study reflects the genesis of the research in the post-behavioral period. Although such techniques as quantification usually associated with the behavioral approach were incorporated in the

research model, they were liberally adapted to fit the realities of the subject being studied and the complexities of access to the data. In agreement with Easton (1969) and Sibley (1967) I support the value of the behavioral approach but am not mesmerized by quantification. I am interested in the search for testable generalizations about human behavior and would hope that this study would help integrate relevant research in the social sciences. The schematic inclusions are intended to provide a base for discussion relevant to both theoretists and more practically oriented administrators concerned with cultural relations. Finally, I would disclaim the "pure objectivity" of this study. Various preconceptions and values discussed more fully in the final chapter stimulated the initiation of this study. None of these invalidate the research, but rather provide the base from which it derives meaning.

The application in Chapter 4 of the conceptual framework developed in the first part of this study to macro analysis of the training program offered by the Agency for International Development and micro analysis of one segment of that program clearly does not represent an extensive proof of the validity of the "model" for all program situations; it does, however, demonstrate the overall applicability and utility of the "model," further refinement of

which clearly remains.

With the exception of the research on the Michigan State University Communication Workshop by (Wallace, 1969) mentioned in Chapter 5, (See section "Implications of the Data"), the research design, data collection and analysis offered in the study were performed by myself. The greatest limitation in this data is the small sample size involved in each data set. Although it was never my intention to introduce complex statistical analysis into the study, the small size of the samples was increased by the problems of access discussed further in the body of the study.

The individuals who have offered comments, advice, or in other ways aided this study are too numerous to acknowledge individually. Certain contributors, however, must be recognized. I stand particularly indebted to the members of my dissertation committee: Hamid Mowlana--who not only served as Chairman but also whose introduction to communication theory stimulated this study--, Abdul Said, and Theodore Couloumbis.

Invaluable help was provided by such professional organizations and governmental agencies as the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA), and the Agency for International Development (AID). I am especially appreciative of the access to AID operations and

policy provided by William Elsen, and for the cooperation and coordination of Kathy Skehan Kosar enabling the interviewing of AID participants. Robert Morris of the Michigan State University Communications Workshop was also extremely helpful in providing access to his program. Special appreciation is also extended for the excellent typing of the manuscript by Jill Wissler.

I would like to dedicate this study to my parents whose concern for social justice and international order first exposed me to the dynamics of international relations. Without their encouragement I never would have undertaken and completed a doctoral program. Secondly, I would like to dedicate the study to all such teachers as Armand Gentile, Ruth Van Tuyl, Douglas St. Angelo, Howard Hong, William Johnstone, Paul Linebarger, and the members of my committee who opened my mind to the challenge of intellectual inquiry and to the excitement and rewards of the teaching profession.

REFERENCES

1. For a detailed account of such problems, see (Nair, 1962) and (Farvar and Milton, 1972).
2. In the end the communications approach also gave stimulus to the fields that provided its genesis. See (Lerner and Schramm, 1967), and Section 4 of Part I in (Wells, 1972).

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

DEVELOPMENT AND DIMENSIONS OF CULTURAL EXCHANGE

General Background and Definition

In the broadest sense the concept of cultural exchange can be said to be as old as the existence of man as a social being. When man began to gather in small "communities" he began to structure interaction on the basis of culture. Culture as it is used here is applied in the anthropological sense. The precise meaning of culture is divergently defined by variant schools within the study of anthropology. The definition offered by Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952: p. 181) is utilized for this study.

Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture system may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other as conditioning elements of further action.

Human communities were initially isolated from one another by such physical considerations as distance, topography and climate. Out of such isolation cultural differentiation evolved. Differentiation ranged from communication skills and simple skills and procedures used in dealing with

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the events of everyday life to more sacred and often more complex methods used in dealing with the environment. Differentiation provided the basis of personal identification with a particular community, stimulated group cohesion, and came to reinforce physical sources of isolation.

Broadly speaking, cultural exchange occurred when members of one community came into contact with members from another community and encountered cultural elements which were different from those of their own community, or, more precisely, their own socio-cultural group. Such contact resulted either through observation--a one-sided event--or through interaction. Differences encountered as a result of the contact sometimes resulted in adjustment of the differences and the formation of larger communities. It often, however, became the basis of fear, hatred, and violence.

For the purpose of this study such a definition of "exchange" is too broad. Such "contact" is too randomly structured for the discussion here and the exchange of cultural elements is generally only incidental in those instances when it does occur. It is better to term such contact cultural interchange than cultural exchange. This is not to deny the importance of unintended or indirect contact with culturally divergent elements, which may result from cultural interchange; such is an important source of

cultural modification and assimilation. Cultural interchange, however, lies outside the perspective selected for this study.¹

The more limited definition of cultural exchange utilized in this study is based on the following components:

1. Existence of a transfer situation²
 - A. May be physical or informational transfer
 - B. May concern objects, actions, or concepts
2. Must be intentional
3. Executed on organized basis
4. Must be culturally representational
5. Must be institutionally supported
6. Represents an extension of institutional policy

This definition of cultural exchange implies several things about the organization of the socio-cultural system engaged in cultural exchange. Although the system need not be highly complex, specialization is assumed to have taken place. Specialization, moreover, is assumed to have taken place both on the level of individual roles in the socio-cultural system but also in terms of socio-cultural institutions. Specialization provides the "commodity for exchange" and the institutional authority to provide the context in which the transfer situation takes place.

The interest of a socio-cultural system or one of its institutions in participating in cultural exchange is

usually for one or several of the following reasons:

1. As a communicative act
 - A. Information Gathering
 - B. Information Providing
2. Value associated with cultural exchange
 - A. Exchange is valued as a good.
 - B. The "commodity" transferred is valued as a good
3. Display of prestige, honor, courage, etc.
4. Demonstration of
 - A. Loyalty
 - B. Equality
 - C. Superiority
5. Real or symbolic security role
 - A. Presence
 - B. Hostage
6. Expansionist or "civilisateur" complex

The earliest existing records of man indicate the existence of situations classified under the definition of cultural exchange presented here. One of the most enduring forms of cultural expression would seem to be the presentation of tribute by one socio-cultural system to another. Such tribute often included artifacts or performing groups regarded as reflective of the socio-cultural system of the donor and intended to please the recipient. These gifts

were intended to serve as symbols of allegiance and may have been more lavish in times when a special favor was being sought. The payment of tribute sometimes was met with a reciprocal gift of even greater "value." The Chinese emperors were known to exchange paintings with their favorite vassal kings.

Throughout the classical period of Greek history, delegations of representatives of one city state often traveled to another. Some of these visits were for the worship of the patron deity of the host state. Others came to enter into athletic competitions. These visits provided information, displayed courage and honor, and represented equality or in some cases superiority. They were officially sponsored as well as organized.

It is significant to note that in order for these early efforts at cultural exchange to succeed, participants were required to understand the nature of the recipient socio-cultural system. There was little purpose in presenting a tribute that would be regarded by the recipient as an insult or considered to have little value. Certain elements may be regarded as universal values, but even in those cases style may provide variations in interpretation. The clear implication is that even the earliest examples of cultural exchange represent some degree of sophistication regarding cross-cultural communication.

Commercial interaction is more likely to fall under the category of cultural interchange than cultural exchange. Cross-cultural business operations have traditionally represented the interests of a single individual or firm. The emergence of the multinational corporation in the twentieth century and the operation of corporate training programs in such divergent areas as technical and managerial operations alters the validity of this generalization. Examples can be found, moreover, such as the Kula exchanges in Melanesia, wherein trade between two traditional cultures serves more of a cultural exchange function than an economic function.

Many examples can be cited illustrating the close identification of the political state or condition of a socio-cultural system and activities which can be included under the definition of cultural exchange used in this study. The classic example is provided by France, extending back at least to and perhaps most spectacularly exploited by the court of Louis XIV. During the nineteenth and first half of the twentieth centuries, certain other European colonial powers also used cultural exchange--especially education--to promote assimilation of their colonies into the metropolitan socio-cultural system or, more recently, to prepare for more independent association. The German government at various times since the late nineteenth century has sought to utilize cultural programs to promote its political

interest overseas (Coombs, 1964: p. 84-87). Cultural exchange programs of the United States are perceived throughout the world as motivated primarily by political considerations.

Although certain questions concerning ethical obligations in cultural exchange are raised in the concluding chapter of this study, the major focus of the study concerns the development of a conceptual and operational framework enabling more effective program planning and participant experience. The transfer situation examined in the training experience provided foreign nationals in the United States under the auspices of the Agency of International Development (AID). The role of sponsorship is shared by the government of the United States, the government of the home country, and the institution providing the training.

Portions of this study are also relevant to such cultural exchange programs as tours of the performing arts which do not include training programs but do involve a sojourn in another socio-cultural system. Although primarily concerned with institutionally-supported exchange programs, the study also can be applied, within limits, to even individual travel or study abroad. The study has major significance for programs lasting more than a few weeks. The application of the communication approach and the emphasis on the interaction and adjustment process cannot be

collapsed into a period of time much shorter than the average semester. Cultural exchange programs used as the basis for generalizations and the construction of models included in the study were generally one to four years in length.

The United States and Cultural Exchange

Until the late 1930's cultural relations and associated cultural exchanges on the part of the United States remained almost exclusively in the hands of private institutions and were not a preoccupation of the federal government.³ The nation had been largely a cultural receiver as a result of the steady inflow of immigrants and had not actively assumed the role of cultural transmitter. The nineteenth century's "Grand Tour" of Europe remained a cultural "vogue" for those who could afford it, and academic degrees from Europe were intellectual status symbols. Although never "a-cultural," American diplomacy did not project itself in cultural terms. Culture was largely defined as "art for art's sake" and there was a "separation of art and state." Programs operated by the Smithsonian Institution and limited training provided to Chinese students as a result of the settlement following the Boxer Rebellion did constitute government-supported cultural exchange, but they represented the exception rather than the rule (Shuster, 1963: p. 9).

The emergence of American interest in cultural exchange as an important dimension of foreign policy represented a response to initiatives launched by the German government as part of Adolf Hitler's grand strategy for world conquest. The reaction of the United States lagged behind Great Britain and France, which had launched cultural programs in 1934 and 1936 respectively as integral parts of national security programs (Coombs, 1964: p. 25) and came only when Latin America became a target of the Nazi propaganda machine.

In 1938 President Franklin D. Roosevelt set into operation mechanisms enabling the implementation of his "Good Neighbor Policy." In July the Division of Cultural Relations was established in the Department of State to oversee cultural programs. Initially, the division relied heavily on the use of such existing private institutions as the Institute of International Education and the American Council on Education to implement various programs ranging from exchanges of students, professors, and specialists to translations, broadcasts, and films. An Interdepartmental Committee on Cooperation with the American Republics was subsequently created to facilitate coordination of federal agency operation. Both of these actions were the outcome of agreements reached the previous year through conferences or agreements such as the Convention for the Promotion of

Inter-American Cultural Activities signed in Buenos Aires (Skuster, 1963: p. 9). Congressional support was provided with the passage of Public Law 355 in 1939 (Coombs, 1964: p. 26).

During the Second World War, the operation of cultural exchange was merged with the larger issue of the times of information programs and psychological warfare. Operations in Latin America became the responsibility of the Office of the Coordinator for Inter-American Affairs created in 1940 and headed by Nelson Rockefeller. Outside Latin America operations were carried on by the Office of War Information (OWI) established in 1942 and directed by Elmer Davis. The number of exchanges, however, was small; greatest emphasis was on dominant program concerns. The total students, teachers and specialists from Latin America between 1939 and 1946 who participated in the program numbered only about 1275. More spectacular was the controversy which developed over the inclusion of cultural and propaganda efforts under the same program.⁴ (Coombs, 1964: p. 26-27).

After the war the Office of War Information and the Office of the Coordinator were both dismantled and their remaining operations were shifted to the Division of Cultural Affairs in the State Department. Various organizational problems and the continued controversy over the blending of propaganda and cultural exchange eventually led to the

11.

establishment of a separate information service, the United States Information Agency. Educational and cultural programs were placed under a semi-autonomous, loosely-federated body called the International Education Service (IES) under the Assistant Secretary for Public Affairs of the State Department. There was little central planning or policy direction under the IES, and operations were largely operated independently by the separate institutions belonging to the service (Coombs, 1964: p. 34-35).

The direction of cultural exchange programs received renewed interest during the late 1950's and early 1960's, partially as a result of intensification of competition with the Soviet Union following Russian advanced in scientific and educational development. At the close of the Eisenhower Administration, Secretary of State Christian Herter obtained increasing funding for cultural affairs and replaced IES with the Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs (CU) under the Department of State. After President John Kennedy took office in 1961 the new position of Assistant Secretary of State for Educational and Cultural Affairs was created to oversee the strengthening of C.U. operations (Coombs, 1964: p. 45-48). Included as major objectives were:

1. Structural and functional reorganization of C. U. and increased integration and coordination with USIA and AID.⁵

2. Strengthening relations between the government and the private sector.
3. Strengthening cooperation among various federal agencies engaged in cultural exchange programs.
4. Increased emphasis on development of human or social resources.
5. Increased U. S. leadership and support of international organizations concerned with cultural affairs.

The number of cultural exchange programs continued to expand during the late 1960's and early 1970's as the international configuration moved from bi-polar to multi-polar interaction, and exchange programs became an increasingly important dimension of the American foreign policy process. See (Singer, 1972), and (Schiller, 1976). In 1976 the United States Government was actively engaged in a multiplicity of exchange programs. The coordination of these programs, spread through various agencies, departments and bureaus, remained a complex matter. No current assessment of the total program size existed. In 1969, however, over 159 programs were listed in a survey of educational programs concerned with the promotion of international understanding and cooperation (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1969). The total number of participants at that time was estimated at about 16,000

annually. Inclusive estimates were not available in 1976, but the number of participants being trained by AID was believed to be about 6,200 for the Fiscal Year 1976 (Elsen, 1976).

The Fulbright Program provides a typical example of the complex and diversified organizational structures surrounding programs sponsored directly or indirectly by the United States Government. Initially created in 1946, the program was established to support educational exchange from foreign currency the United States held abroad from sales of surplus materials. Additional legislation expanded the program, and in 1961 the program was reconsolidated under the Mutual Educational and Cultural Exchange Act, commonly referred to as the Fulbright-Hays Act.⁶ The final selection of participants and policy direction is the responsibility of the Board of Foreign Scholarships whose members are appointed by the President. The Department of State, however, is the executive and administrative agency for the program. Such private organizations as the Conference Board of Associated Research Councils and the Institute of International Education assist in the selection process and USIA helps administer the program abroad (Sanders, 1970: p. 136).

PREVIOUS APPROACHES

The body of literature relevant to this study is

diverse and profuse. The selective discussion which follows is intended to serve more as an index of existing development than to provide an encyclopedic enumeration of all existing sources. Cross references are also provided in footnote form through the body of the study, and additional works are included in the bibliography at the end of the study. Most of the works cited contain internal bibliographies with additional sources not sufficiently relevant to this study for their inclusion here or in the bibliography.

Every discussion of cultural exchange contains certain assumptions about the function such exchanges are intended to perform. These assumptions are not always explicitly stated, must less given primary consideration in the presentation. Those studies which do discuss such assumption generally fall into one of two categories; the separation is not always clear and the two approaches may be conceptually assumed:

1. System Supportive: This approach views cultural exchange as an integrative or supportive experience promoting international peace or the stability of the international system. An ethical role may be associated with exchange by this approach. The level of analysis ranges from the assumption that increased interaction promotes understanding which in turn promotes peace to more complex analysis of the

integrative process (Deutsch, 1957), (United States Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, 1974), (Mojaev, 1965); also but less directly see (Deutsch, 1953).

2. Utilitarian: This approach views cultural exchange as a mechanism or tool for obtaining an objective. Cultural exchange is seen in this case as separate from the goal being promoted and discussed in amoral terms and evaluated in terms of effectiveness rather than "rightness." The most common utilitarian approach is the perception of cultural exchange as an element or dimension of foreign policy (Blum, 1963), (Coombs, 1964).

The interest in cultural exchange as an instrument of foreign policy has received considerable interest in the last fifteen years, in part reflecting an ever increasing interest in the role and uses of communications in general in the "new diplomacy" of a multi-polar world. (Markham, 1970), (Mowlana, 1973). (Barghoorn, 1960) presents the classic work on the use of cultural programs by the Soviet Union as a means of obtaining foreign policy objectives. (Schiller, 1969) discusses American cultural influence abroad, first in terms of mass communications and then from the perspective of cultural exchange (Schiller, 1976). (Davison, 1965) contrasts the use of public and private cultural programs to influence other states and discusses

the issues of coordination and focus of such efforts in a free society. (Singer, 1972) presents the importance of cultural exchange programs and their multiple impacts for weak states in time of power struggles and the search for national identity.

Various sources provide historical perspectives of the evolution of cultural exchange programs of the United States. (Coombs, 1964) and (Blum, 1963) give a comprehensive but somewhat dated view. Coombs provides the most detailed coverage and also outlines comparable programs supported by France, Germany, the United Kingdom, and the Soviet Union. Contributors in Blum discuss cultural affairs from the different perspectives of the arts and humanities, education, and the sciences. (Sanders and Ward, 1970) are a useful supplement as is (United States Department of State, Board of Foreign Scholarships, 1971). Descriptive inventories are provided by (United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1969), and (United States Department of State, Bureau of Educational and Cultural Affairs, 1975). Associated information concerning the United National Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and the involvement of the United States in the formation of UNESCO is contained in (UNESCO, 1965) and (Krill de Capello, 1970).

(Elliot, 1962) and (Elliot, 1965) provides useful bibliographic references in his discussions of cultural relations as a field of study but offers only limited analysis of these references. (Jacobson, 1963) contains an equally limited concern with definitional analysis of the field but does provide an outline of basic phases in cultural exchange. Citations of relevant research and limited analysis are also provided by (De Vries, 1961), (Klineberg, 1965), and (UNESCO, 1972).

Certain studies approach cultural exchange from the contest of cross-cultural studies or present general cross-cultural discussion relevant to the exchange experience. The discussion of methodology in several of these studies is especially useful. (Brislin, et. al., 1973) provides an extensive discussion and offers especially useful perspectives concerning survey construction (p. 40+, p. 59+). (McNett and Kirk, 1968) offer suggestions concerning random samples and cross-cultural studies. (Hyman, et. al., 1967) offer insights into the use of expert informants and (Stodtbeck, 1964) develops the use of what he terms the "meta-method." (Merritt, 1966) provides an especially useful demonstration of the use of quantitative data.

Central to all cross-cultural studies is the search for variation and similarity across culture. (Diaz-Guerrero, 1967) analyzes premises about family life and sexual roles and develops an active-passive dichotomy for

cultural analysis. (Sears, 1961) evolves three basic categories of cultural universals or "transcultural determinants":

1. Biological Universals
2. Structural/Functional Universals (includes physical
3. Universals in the Human Environment

Difference in Japanese and American culture is examined by (Kumata and Schramm, 1956) and (Masuda, 1967). Subjectivity in culture is analyzed extensively by (Triandis, et. al., 1967). (Northrup and Livingston, 1964) approach cross-cultural interaction from an anthropological perspective and (Watson, 1968) discusses cross-cultural interaction as it related to learning.

Integral to the cross-cultural approach are presentation of specialized training and techniques useful in the preparation of individuals for cross-cultural interaction. The Human Resources Research Office (HUMRRO) of George Washington University, under contract to the Department of the Army, has produced many useful works: (Hoehn, 1968) gives a basic perspective for innovative approaches in cultural training; (Kraemer, 1974) provides procedures for operating an intercultural workshop. He also suggests methods relevant to the self-awareness approach (Kraemer, 1973). The multiple examples of cross-cultural problems

Americans might encounter while overseas by (Foster, 1965) is an especially useful resource also produced by HUMRRO.

(O'Brien, et. al., 1971) surveys the effectiveness of cross-cultural training on volunteer medical teams in Central America. (Woodcock, 1973) discusses training needs for international service and cross-cultural contact both on an organizational and project basis. Other sources of interest include: (Brislin, 1973c), (Brislin and Pedersen, 1976), (Eachus, 1966), (Haines, 1964), and (Trifonovitch, 1973). The use of simulation is discussed in some of these, but is central to presentation of (Fiedler, 1971), and (Stewart, 1967).

One of the most extensive interests of studies of cultural exchange is the adaptation of foreign students studying in the United States to the American socio-cultural system, clearly reflecting the ease of access. Several of these studies focus on the adjustment of such specific nationalities as Indians (Lambert, 1956), or Scandinavian groups (Lysgaard, 1955), (Scott, 1956), (Sewell and Davidson, 1961). (Morris, 1960) examines the role of national status in student adjustment. (Sellitz, 1963) concentrates on the inter-relationship between social relations and adjustment. (Smith, 1969) examines student activism and adjustment. (Mowlana and McLaughlin, 1969) examine media patterns and related effects on foreign students.

Differences observed in a study of returning and non-returning students is examined by (Valipour, 1967). General studies are offered by (Dubois, 1956), (Kelman, 1964), and (Shattuck, 1965).

The adaptation of Americans abroad is a reciprocal concern of interest. (Goodwin, 1964) provides insights into the adaptation of fifty American professors who went to Asia under the Fulbright program in the early 1960's. (Byrnes, 1965) examines Americans involved in technical assistance programs abroad. (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1956) examine Americans studying in France.

Various studies of the adjustment of Peace Corps volunteers provide a context for both conceptual and operational analysis. (Smith, 1963) develops the use of morale as an indicator of adjustment among Peace Corps teachers in Ghana. Morale is presented as a function of job adjustment and is broken into its components. (Arnold, 1967) provides a useful illustration of adjustment problems from the perspective of mental health.

Studies examining the effects of cultural exchange on participants offer highly divergent conclusions. (De Sola Pool, et. al., 1956) offer one of the earliest studies. In a study of American businessmen who traveled abroad, they found that travel broadened perspectives in that the travelers came to reflect broader interests of their own culture

rather than particularized interests. In a later article (De Sola Pool, 1965: p. 107+) the perspective is enhanced by an examination of different dimensions that can affect experiences encountered in foreign travel.

A number of studies examine the effect of cultural exchange on participant attitudes. Although some early works such as (Riegel, 1953) suggest that in the long run, cultural exchange produces minimal amount of attitude change, this position is not reflected in subsequent studies. See (Cajoleas, 1959), (Sellitz, 1963), (Brislin, 1974a), and (Merritt, 1972). Although disagreement exists over the degree of attitude shift, many early studies projected a positive shift in participant attitude toward the host country. More recent studies disagree (Brislin, 1976), (Sehnert, 1973), (Wedge, 1975). (Singer, 1972: p. 150) accepts a generalized positive shift because even when such students are critical of the host country, their criticism is more specific, focused, and balanced as a result of their overseas experience.

Several studies investigate factors determining the direction and degree of attitude change resulting from cultural exchange. (Pool, 1965) discusses attitude change as a function of the person the traveler was when he left his own country as well as in terms of such variables related to program structure as the purpose of the exchange and the

length of the experience overseas. (Mishler, 1965) expands on social variables and (Becker, 1968) attempts to differentiate attitude change in participants from developed countries and those from developing countries. (Gruen, 1959) contrasts attitudes about the United States held by twenty-five German exchange students before and after a year's stay in the United States. He found little change in most cases, partially, he suggests, because the students were rather well informed about life in the United States before they arrived. (Smart, 1967) also attributes the lack of significant attitude change among faculty members engaged in cultural exchange to the high level of information they possessed about the country visited. See also (Pool, 1965).

Related to attitude change are studies examining changes in national images held by foreign students. (Buchanan and Cantril, 1953) offer a useful introduction as do (Joseph, 1959), (Wedge, 1965), and (Holsti, 1962). (Kelman and Bailyn, 1962) examine modification of national image among Scandinavian students in the United States and (Coelho, 1958) examines attitudes and perceptions of Indian students. (Markham, 1967) offers one of the more extensive examinations of image and behavior in a five-year study of foreign students; the continuity of the study in observing adjustment to cultural shock and corresponding modification of attitudes is particularly useful to those dealing

directly with foreign students. (Pool, 1965) provides an excellent discussion of four sets of images as dependent variables in the outcome of cross-cultural contact. Included are:

1. The traveler's image of the host culture
2. The host culture's image of the traveler
3. The traveler's image of himself
4. The host culture's image of itself

(Kelman and Baily, 1962) examine three aspects of self-image in entry and re-entry adjustment: nationality, profession, and the structure of personal relations. Considerable emphasis is given to the role of motivation and expectation in the analysis offered by this study. See also (Baron, 1975).

Considerable interest in participant satisfaction exists in the literature. In many cases this is based on the assumption that adjustment and satisfaction are inter-functional or reinforcing. (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963). (Deutsch and Won, 1963) demonstrate variance in satisfaction over time and in relation to the length of time before departure from the United States as a means of observing adjustment. Language facility is reported as an important factor in the extent to which participants are satisfied with their overseas experience. Although the correlation between satisfaction and adjustment is frequently accepted

with few reservations, for the purpose of this study, the use of satisfaction as an index of program effectiveness is less acceptable.

Probably the most extensive effort to evaluate program effectiveness is the exit interview developed by the Development Education and Training Research Institute (DETRI) of American University for AID. Evaluation by DETRI evolved over the period of several years into a highly sophisticated and complex procedure. The basic premise of the survey, however, was that satisfaction was an index of program effectiveness (Sperling, 1974). The examination of determinants of participant satisfaction offered by the DETRI study is one of the most useful overviews available. Several annual reports offer both quantitative and analytical presentations (United States Department of State, Agency for International Development, 1970), (____, 1971a), (____, 1971b). Especially useful is the final report (DETRI, 1972). In view of the extensive analysis and access open to the study, it is unfortunate both that the study assumed an equivalence for satisfaction and program effectiveness and that the operation of DETRI extended for such a brief period.

THE THESIS AND ASSOCIATED COROLLARY OF THE STUDY

In an effort to give focus and direction to the contributions of previous approaches, this study presents a model of participant interaction in terms of both program

and experience. Basically an extension of a communications approach, this model gives emphasis to the concepts of process and feedback. The model is used to investigate the thesis that preparation for the anxiety encountered in program entry, training, and re-entry reduces the intensity of such anxiety. This proposition is based on the (Janis, 1958) thesis that anxiety is reduced by expectation training. The theoretical discussion is followed by micro and macro applications of the model.

In the collection of data offered in the second part of the study, the focus is narrowed to preparation for re-entry shock and the proposition that preparation for re-entry results in changed perceptions of potential anxiety-producing situations during re-entry. The corollary that exposure to the fundamentals of innovation diffusion makes more effective innovators is examined in terms of participants who have had and participants who have not had re-entry training.

REFERENCES

1. No two socio-cultural groups are identical any more than are any two sub-groups within a socio-cultural group. Such differences provide obstacles to cultural interchange and communication both across socio-cultural groups and between sub-groups. The concern of this study, however, is restricted to those problems which specifically arise because a participant in an exchange program receives training in a foreign socio-cultural system and then is expected to re-integrate himself in his home socio-cultural system rather than with the larger issue of cross-cultural communication.

2. Exchange here does not equal "trade." Transfer may be in only one direction; reciprocity is not required, although such may occur. Even in the most simple of transfer situations, however, feedback is present, which may be considered reciprocal transfer in a theoretical sense.
3. For a more comprehensive account of the historical background of the United States Government's involvement in cultural affairs before 1946, see (McMurry and Lee, 1947); for extended coverage through 1960, see (Thompson and Laves, 1963).
4. Coombs (1964: p. 23-34) offers a list of major issues relevant to cultural exchange programing. Somewhat modified and expanded to include more current problems, these include:
 1. Relationship between cultural exchange and foreign policy objectives.
 2. Combination or separation of cultural exchange programs and information and propaganda programs.
 3. Relationship between government and private efforts.
 4. Overall role of the government in directing total program planning.
 5. Relationship between educational and cultural exchange and technical assistance. Are they different forms of the same thing?
 6. Reliance on bilateral or multilateral efforts.
 7. How should this component of foreign policy be financed, and what proportion of the budget should be devoted to it?
 8. What is most efficient organizational structure to handle diverse activities?
 9. What profile should be taken in exchange operations by the U. S. Government and its representatives?
 10. To what extent should the institution or government of the host country participate in the organization and operation of exchange programs?

11. What kinds of exchange should be included and which should receive greatest priority?
5. AID was created in 1961 to implement the Act for International Development.
6. For a more detailed discussion of the legislation relevant to the Fulbright Program, see (Johnson and Colligan, 1965).

Chapter 2

CULTURAL EXCHANGE AS PROCESS: THE EXTENSION OF A BASIC COMMUNICATION MODEL

THE NEED FOR AN INTEGRATING THEORY

The diversity of approaches relevant to the study of cultural exchange is both functional and disfunctional to serious consideration of the topic. The breadth of issues that have been raised offers a multiplicity of "footholds" for theoretical and practical consideration. Dissimilarities in levels of analysis and methodology, however, complicate not only linkage between relevant works but also application of the literature to the specific needs of program planning and operation.

The confusion presented by the diversity of the literature and the gap between theory and practice has reduced the interest of certain institutions associated with cultural exchange programming in supporting further research. The specialization of interests of those agencies willing to give their support--as well as such pragmatic concerns as annual budgets--has frequently resulted in the selection of narrow foci for those research projects receiving support. Thus, although the study of cultural exchange has evolved in a period in which interdisciplinary approaches have been the norm, the relevant literature can be characterized not only

as diverse but also as segmented. Overcoming these obstacles through the introduction of an integrating theory is, indeed, a primary goal of this study.

Seemingly the most fruitful groundwork in overcoming these problems would seem to be in the application of communication theory--which itself has been highly concerned with theoretical integration and practical applications--to the study of cultural exchange. The most substantial progress, however, has come from the support of professional associations rather than the strictly academic community. The efforts of the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA) to serve as an information clearing-house during the first half of the 1970's stimulated communication between divergent groups interested in the topic. An especially significant development was the establishment of the Society for Intercultural Education, Training, and Research (SIETAR) in 1974. This group has been particularly interested in the application of theory to practical situations and initiated a survey of "the State-of-the-Arts" of intercultural communication in 1976. Unfortunately, the final draft of this document, considerable portions of which would be pertinent to the discussion here, was not completed in time for inclusion in this study.

It would be both ambitious and presumptuous to suppose that one could present a single unified theory that

could displace the body of existing literature. Should such a development be possible, it would take more than one volume to present it, much less to explain it, and the resulting complexity would probably outweigh its utility. The use of "integrating theory" rather than "integrated theory" in the section heading is, therefore, intentional. The model presented in this study is intended to play an integrating function. The core concepts of process and feedback serve as activating mechanisms, facilitating the linkage of existing research and suggesting the directions for future research. Its basic simplicity is intended to serve as a "multi-pronged intellectual staple" that will join divergent approaches and a "bridge" providing increased communication between these approaches. The point of focus can be either theoretical or practical, providing both conceptual and operational guidance.

PROCESS AS A THEORETICAL CONSTRUCT

The evolution of the concept of process was restricted by Cartesian philosophic and Neutonian physical views of reality set in a fixed mechanical universe. Although reality was composed of objects and processes the existence of each object was independent of the existence of any other object and of the natural activities of the universe; all could be explained on a mechanical basis (Thilly and Wood, 1961: p. 302).

The revolutionary ideas of Albert Einstein and Alfred North Whitehead challenged the mechanical view and introduced the conception of a "relative reality in which no object possessed objective identity but was defined by its relation to other objects and in which process, i.e., changing relationships, was an essential part of the identification of reality. All of reality was viewed through the screen of individual perception (Whitehead, 1929: p. 356, 361). This new conception was greatly influenced by developments in biology as well as philosophy and physics and came to be known as organismic theory (Matson, 1964: p. 161). This new perspective, in which reality recovered purpose, envisioned:

1. Reality as a system which was greater than the sum of its parts;
2. Systemic interaction as dynamic rather than static;
3. The organism, as part of the system, played an activist role rather than reactive.

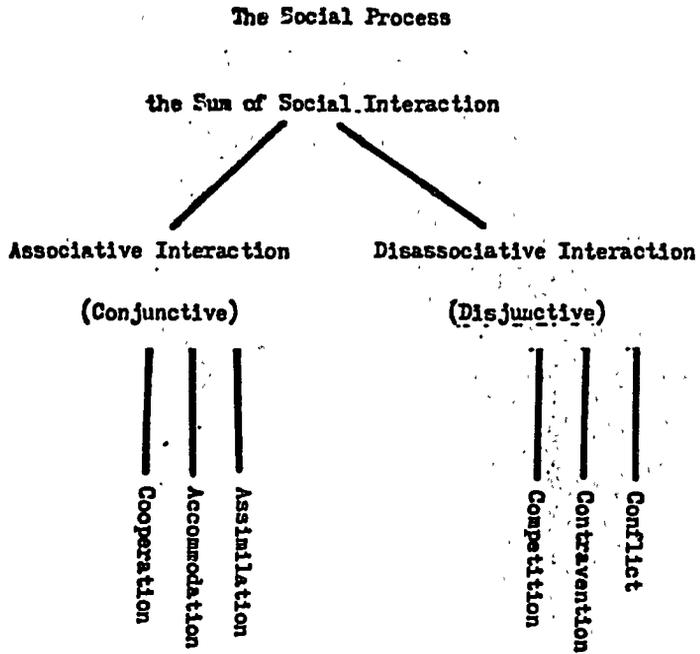
The transfer of the concept of process to the social sciences came largely through the interest of sociology in organismic theory and its application to social interaction. In the transfer, however, the concept came to be used both broadly and narrowly and its meaning became somewhat vague. In the broadest usage social process represented the total of

all social interaction, which in turn was broken down into categories referred to as the "social processes." These were often divided into those processes that aided social solidarity and those that encouraged social disintegration, referred to variously by such classifications as associative and disassociative or conjunctive and disjunctive. (See Figure 1, The Social Process.) The key to the application of process to society was interaction; the level of analysis could be either macro or micro, although usually the former was the rule (Sills, 1964: p. 538). See also (Gould, 1964).

Political science was especially receptive to the conceptual use of process as a balance to the rigidity of structural analysis. As in sociology, however, "political process" came to embrace both broad views of political interaction and flux and more narrow concepts of political procedure such as "the legislative process." Interest in process analysis broadened after World War II, reflecting both an interest in the behavioral approach and the search for a theoretical base. The development of international relations, first as a sub-field and then as a separate field, and its interest in interaction served to vitalize the use of process in political analysis and added the new dimension of development to process theory.

Especially dynamic development of organismic theory and the concept of process occurred with the evolution of communication theory. The communication approach restates

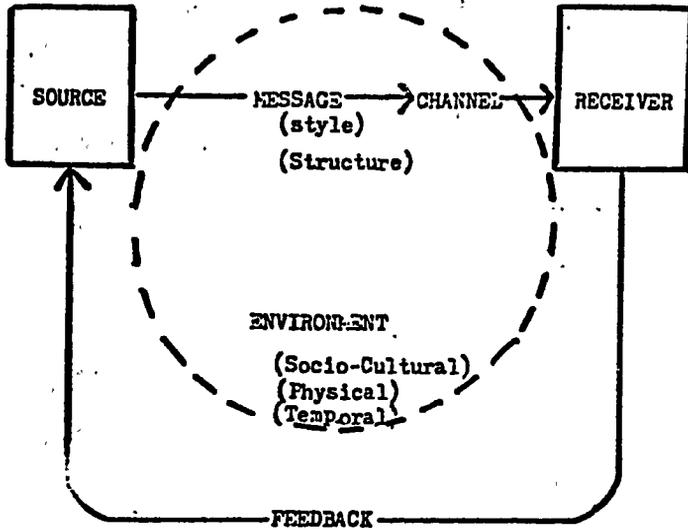
Figure 1. The Social Process



the belief that reality consists of events or objects that are separate from one another. Reality cannot be discovered by man but must be created by him (Berlo, 1960: p. 24). Reality is known to man only as he receives and interprets messages about the external world. The basic communication model demonstrates that if a source wishes to communicate a message to a receiver--be it a person or a group--he must send his message by means of some channel within the context of the environment in which the receiver operates. (See Figure 2, A Basic Communication Model.) The model is not complete, however, without the inclusion of feedback by which the source determines the result of his message upon the receiver (Berlo, 1960: p. 29-33), (Phillips, 1974: p. 179-180). The basic model is derived from the work of (Weiner, 1948), (See also Weiner, 1964) and is most fully expanded by (Deutsch, 1963). Despite variations in construction, see (Singer, 1972: p. 17) for example, all approaches to the model emphasize the importance of feedback.

Although deeply in debt to philosophy for its view of reality and perception and to sociology for the expansion of interaction, it is only with the inclusion of feedback that the concept of process as used in this study becomes unified. If the source is to be seen as dynamically interacting with the receiver, then the source must obtain information about the perception state of the receiver. If such does not occur, he will have incomplete information which in

Figure 2. Basic Communication Model



turn limits the ability of the same to relate to the "reality" of environment and receiver. Interaction takes place on a very random pattern unless there is learning. Learning, again, depends on feedback.

IN SUMMATION

In summation the concept of process as a theoretical construct for this study is based on:

1. Existence of reality only through the interaction of its components;
2. The state of reality dependent upon interaction perceptions of the components;
3. Interaction perceptions are in a constant state of change;
4. Feedback as a mechanism whereby a system obtains information about external interactions. Feedback enables system adjustment.

PROCESS AS AN OPERATIONAL CONSTRUCT

As an operational construct, process has been most fully developed by social psychology. Group interaction analysis--the general heading under which process approaches have been classified--offers a general operational model, the design of which can be varied to fit the particular interests motivating the organization of an interaction session. Such psychotherapy sessions as encounter groups

and sensitivity groups are the most popularly known application of the concept of process to group interaction, but the approach is useful in general studies of group dynamics and as an instructional model as well.¹

Basic to the use of process as an operational construct is the formation of a group for an interaction session under the direction of a group leader. Sometimes this function is shared by more than one person. The instructions given the group by the leader, the structure of the interaction, and the participation of the leader in the interaction varies. The group is almost always small and the leader usually tries to minimize his overt direction of the group. The process experience begins by presenting the group with instructions, a concept, or a situation. Interaction--verbal, non-verbal, or both--follows. Group analysis of what has happened, what has been experienced, and what has been learned is then applied to other situations the group feels relevant.

An application of the process approach to classroom use is illustrated by the EDIT System (Meyers and Meyers, 1976: p. 9-14):

EXPERIENCE: activity shared by group ranging from verbal or non-verbal presentation or observation to structured game. As a result of the experience participants gain information.

DISCUSSION: participants discuss descriptively

1. What happened to them;
2. What they observed happening to others;
3. What happened to associated objects;
4. Interactions as behavior.

INFERENCE: based on the description of the group experience, participants infer general principles or theories that might explain interaction.

TRANSFER: participants transfer general principles to usable level in their own lives.

1. To other situations;
2. To their own behavior.

The appeal of the process approach can easily lead to its use without adequate understanding of, preparation for, or control of group interaction. As a result, process is eroded and becomes a relatively unstructured procedure (Dalenoort, 1973). Although the process approach inevitably results in the modification of participant perceptions and correspondingly associated behavior, the group leader plays a determining role in the extent and direction of such change. When well planned and executed, the approach usually proves satisfying to both the group leader and group participants. The relationship between process and outcome, however, remains open to interpretation. The very nature of the approach complicates the use of statistical research

procedures. Variable control and the use of control groups have often been omitted from evaluation studies (Insel and Moos, 1972: p. 441). Even the effect of feedback on group performance, a major element of the approach, is in need of further clarification (Bowen and Siegel, 1973).

PROCESS: A BASIC MODEL OF CULTURAL EXCHANGE

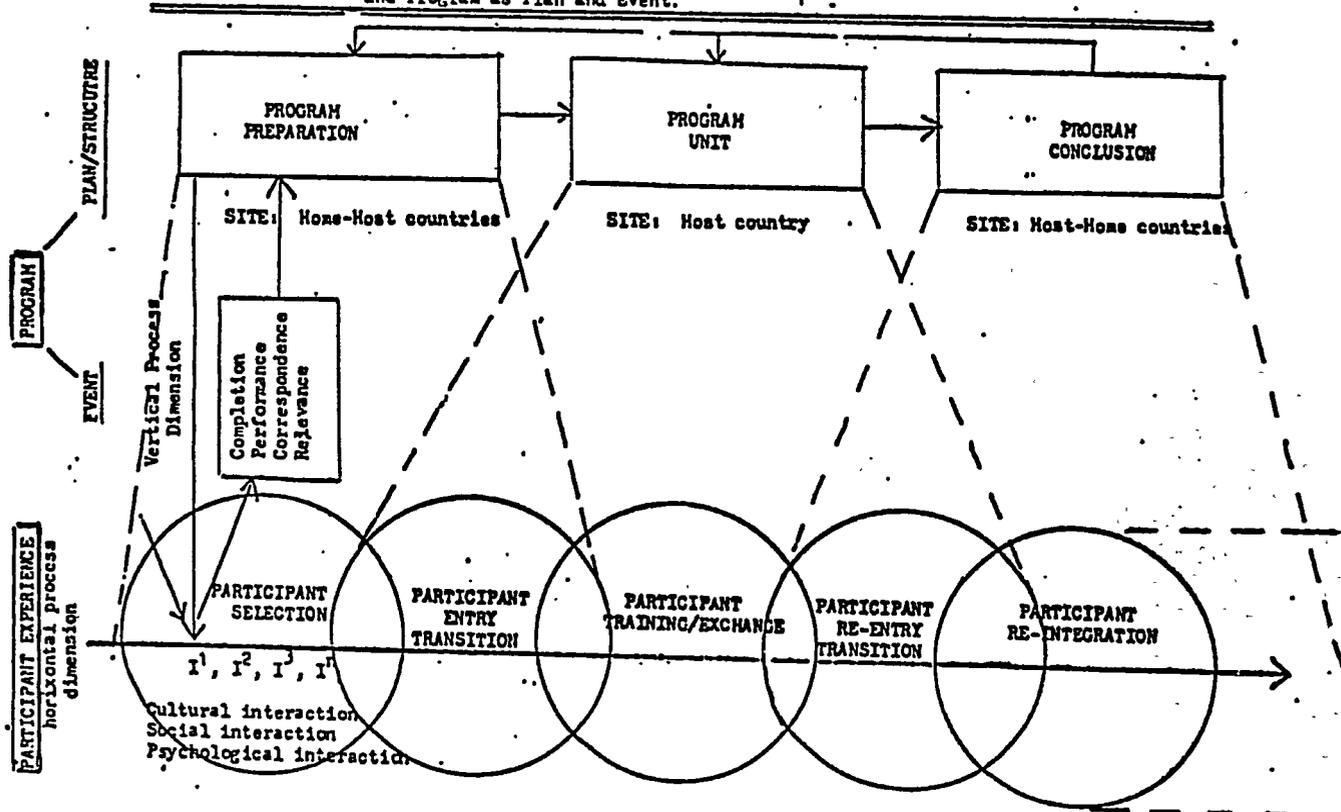
When applied to cultural exchange the communication approach provides the basis for expanded analysis of participant experience and program planning. These two dimensions of cultural exchange are simultaneously presented in the basic process model. (See Figure 3, A Basic Model of Cultural Exchange: Participant Experience and Program as Plan and Event.), the construction of which postulates:

1. The interdependence of program planning and participant experience.
2. The interrelationship of phases of participant experience and the necessity of program integration.
3. Process or interaction associated with analytical feedback as the basis for both program implementation and participant experience.

Phases and Their Interrelationship²

In the model the experience dimension of cultural exchange is presented as a process phenomenon and is labeled

Figure 3. A Basic Model of Cultural Exchange: Participant Experience and Program as Plan and Event.



"horizontal process dimension."

1. The participant is viewed conceptually as an interacting unit:
 - A. First as a member of his home socio-cultural system.
 - B. Secondly as an exchange participant in the host socio-cultural system.
2. The participant experiences change/flux as a result of:
 - A. His removal from his home socio-cultural system.
 - B. His participation in the host socio-cultural system.
3. The degree to which the participant encounters change and the reaction of the participant to the change he encounters will depend upon:
 - A. The nature of (1) his socio-cultural system; (2) the host culture.
 - B. The social context (1) he has known in his own socio-cultural system; (2) he experiences in the host socio-cultural system.
 - C. Psychological factors (1) in his own personality; (2) in the personalities of those with whom he interacts in both the home and host socio-cultural systems.

4. The degree to which the participant can profit from his experience will depend upon his ability:
 - A. To interrelate differentials in 3A, 3B and 3C.
 - B. To apply experience to cultural, social, and psychological states in his home system.
5. Participant experience consists of five phases:
 - Participant Selection
 - Participant Entry Transition
 - Participant Training/exchange
 - Participant Re-entry Transition
 - Participant Re-integration
 - A. There is no clear demarcation point where one phase ends and another begins. The experience is a continuous encounter, i.e., total flow of interaction events viewed from a process perspective.
 - B. The Phases are composed of interaction events. Phases have meaning only in identifying the kinds of concerns predominating interaction events.
 - C. Interactions are interlocking and provide a cumulative effect; the total experience is greater than the "sum" of the interaction.
 - D. The state of participant experience at any point can be identified by the interaction

event in process.

i.e., I^1, I^2, I^3, \dots

- E. Participant state at any interaction is dependent upon past interactions.
- F. The relevance of past interactions will vary from participant to participant depending upon:
 - 1. Factors 3A, 3B, and 3C.
 - 2. Interrelationship of interaction events:
 - a. Frequency
 - b. Time span of interaction
 - c. Expectation
 - d. Salience given by participant to interaction event
- G. An interaction event consists of:
 - 1. Initial participant state composed of perception of reality and associated behavior;
 - 2. Receipt of information or non-verbal stimulus;
 - 3. Interpretation of G2;
 - 4. And/or decision to:
 - a. Communicate a message
 - b. Take an action
 - 5. Feedback concerning G4

6. Fitting of G5 to G1
7. Adjustment or reinforcement of G1
6. Participant experience begins at the time of selection and does not end until reintegration into the home system, including transfer events.
 - A. Transfer of the training/exchange is an integral goal of the cultural exchange process.
 - B. By definition transfer can only take place when the participant has returned to his home setting.
 - C. Transfer will depend upon 3A, 3B, 3C.
 - D. Transfer will depend upon:
 1. Communication skills of the participant.
 2. Relevance of training/exchange to home system.
 3. Increased deviancy or confirmity of participant to levels 3A, 3B and 3C as perceived by home system.

Program: A Context for Interaction

Participant experience and program planning are included in the model because of their interdependence, but their components are not one in the same. Program provides the context in which participant experience takes place.

- I. Participant programing as two components
 - A. Program as a structured plan
 1. Basic elements intended to be part of participant experience
 - a. Orientation, counseling, predeparture training
 - b. Classroom, laboratory or on-the-job training
 - c. Observations and such related activities as conferences
 - d. Associated scheduled social activities and interactions
 2. Can be used repeatedly or adjusted to fit the needs of different situations
 - B. Program as an Operational Event
 1. Participant interactions resulting from elements in the program
 2. Varies:
 - a. For each program run
 - b. For each participant
- II. Program structure is an integrated unit
 - A. Composed of three stages
 1. Program Preparation (Including Selection)
 2. Program Unit
 3. Program Conclusion

- a. Debriefing
 - b. Follow-up
 - c. Evaluation
- B. These stages are interdependent and are not always totally distinct from one another.
- C. Integration implies high level of message flow between stages linked to feedback mechanisms which provide for program adjustment.
- D. Structure is self-generative, i.e., program conclusion provides information for either:
- 1. Continuous program operation
 - 2. Subsequent program operation
- E. Structure is self-operative; i.e., includes methods for its actualization.
- III. Program event is the vertical process dimension through which the structured elements of the program are actualized.
- A. Extension of the structure of the program into the spheres of participant interaction.
- 1. Composite of separate events.
 - 2. Whole event is greater than the sum of its parts
- B. Actualization does not equal program structure.
- C. Actualization does not duplicate program structure.
- 1. Not all elements of structure are actualized

2. Actualized elements may not stimulate participant interaction
 3. Actualized elements may not stimulate participant as expected
- D. Actualization depends upon:
1. Variables internal to program structure
 2. Variables associated with participant/host interaction
 - a. Cultural
 - b. Social
 - c. Psychological
 3. External variables relevant to interaction
- E. Verification of correspondence between structure as intended and event as actualized provided by process dimension.
1. Interaction as operational concept for actualization
 2. Feedback about program event
 - a. Completion
 - b. Performance
 - c. Correspondence of event to structure
 - d. Relevance of event to structure
 3. Feedback about state of participant experience
 4. Relevance of participant state to program goals
 5. Adjustment of program

- a. As structured
- b. As actualized

REFERENCES

1. For a general introduction to group interaction, see (Cartwright and Zandler, 1968), (Shaw, 1971), and (Yalom, 1970). Discussions of effectiveness and interaction runs include (Campbell and Dunette, 1968), (Collins and Guetzkow, 1964), (Deutsch, 1949), (Kohler, et. al., 1973), (Moerk, 1972). Also see (Insel and Moos, 1972). For a comparison of problem-solving processing and sensitivity training, see (Kelman, 1972: p. 170+).
2. The breakdown of cultural exchange into component phases is most certainly not original to this study. The use of a process approach to define and explain the inter-relationships between phases, however, is a departure from the existing literature. One of the earliest and most complete enumerations of phases is provided by (Jacobson, 1963: p. 123-4), an adaptation of which is shown below.

NINE PHASES OF A SOJOURN

1. Predeparture
2. Act of Leaving
3. Enroute
4. Entry
5. Components of Experience
 - Post Arrival Orientation
 - Explorations
 - Tentative Commitment
 - Ultimate Commitment
6. Pre-departure Preparation
7. Act of Leaving
8. Enroute
9. Act of Entry
 - Post Arrival Orientation
 - Tentative Commitment
 - Ultimate Commitment
 - Decisions about Further Travel

CHAPTER 3

RE-INTEGRATION

The communication approach outlined in the preceding chapter emphasizes the interrelationship between all phases in participant experience and cautions against inordinate emphasis of any one phase at the cost of other phases. The remaining portion of this study examines the utility of the basic model and the concept of process for re-entry transition and the ultimate goal of participant re-integration. The selection of this focus--in part the result of methodological considerations discussed in a later section--is not a violation of balanced emphasis and is totally consistent with the model that has been developed.

The final goal of cultural exchange as defined in this study is the re-integration of the participant into the social-cultural system of which he was a member when he was selected for inclusion in the cultural exchange program. The definition of participant experience as sequential interaction implies the cumulative effect of interaction. Just as participant experience during the program is dependent upon interaction prior to participant selection, participant experience during the program affects interaction after re-integration. No matter how successful prior phases of participant experience have been, unless participant

re-integration occurs, participant effectiveness is restricted.

In many respects interactions during entry transition and re-entry transition are similar; both are characterized by discontinuities referred to as cultural shock. Discussion of the one, therefore, has relevance for the other. The definition of phases in this study as the most dominant concern characterizing participant state during a particular interaction implies that the process of entry and re-entry are very often inter-phased. Additionally, the process skills used by program planners in these two phases can be of considerable relevance to participants interested in introducing innovation to their home system in the post-program period.

Re-entry transition is clearly the weakest link in program control. The participant is removed from the immediate influence of the program and is exposed to a wide range of variables outside the context of program operation. Feedback mechanisms are particularly weak. Measurement of participant state during this phase is compounded not only by distance but also by an increase in subjective elements and cross-cultural dimensions; it is easier to determine to what degree a participant has completed an event and at what level he has performed an event in the program unit than it is to determine levels of stress in participants.

APPROACHES TO CULTURAL SHOCK

Pre-requisite to participation in any socio-cultural system is socialization in the values, roles, and behavior prescribed by that system. The socialization process usually occurs when an individual is a child. Adult participants are assumed to have mastered and to conform to these prescriptions. Societies vary greatly in the extent to which social interaction is prescribed and in the extent to which conformity to the prescription is expected. These differences reflect variance in socio-cultural sets and also provide a security system of expectation on which a participant in a system can rely in all interaction; they also provide a perception grid through which reality is seen.

In actuality no socio-cultural system is statically homogeneous but is composed of an integration of dominant and variant values and patterns of interaction which are in a constant state of flux or realignment. Confrontation of these variations produces stress; in a state of stress, individuals have no guidance for their behavior. Adjustment of the variations removes stress. The amount of stress the socio-cultural system defines as acceptable in everyday interaction is background stress. The system usually provides mechanisms for adjustment to stress at this level. System participants do not generally regard background stress as "stressful."¹

When variations within a social system are reinforced by external forces, change in the socio-cultural system results. Systemic change usually requires adjustment of the sets of values, roles, and behavior for which an individual has been socialized. The extent to which such sets must be adjusted, the rate at which adjustment must take place, and the methods for adjustment determine the extent of stress experienced. Stress can also be encountered as the result of physical relocation within the socio-cultural system or by movement to a new sub-group within the socio-cultural system.

When an individual shifts from one socio-cultural system to another, the potential for stress is highest. The degree of congruence between the two systems will be a major determinant of the level of stress the individuals encounter in transfer. Stress usually occurs even with high congruence unless the transfer is made with full information, i.e., one may believe that a participant behavior pattern is appropriate under certain conditions in the new system but not be certain of it until he has acted in accordance with his belief and has received reinforcing feedback.

When social systems are not congruent an individual seeking to participate in the new system must seek to not only learn the sets of values, roles, and behavior expected of participants in the system, but also transfer, i.e.,

translate, them into his own sphere of interaction. This is usually a piece-meal operation based on trial and error. The extent of deviance from the standard sets of the new system and the extent of error in adjustment determine the level of anxiety the individual experiences in the transfer. Integration has been achieved when his sets conform to those of the mainstream system or when he is at least able to effectively operate under the sets of the new system.²

Analysis of stress resulting from cross-cultural encounters is difficult to appraise. Research would indicate that although there are certain universal "stressors" encountered by those who encounter cultural shock, others are culturally relative (Spradley and Phillips, 1972: p. 518-19). Societies differ, moreover, in the levels of stress considered acceptable in social interactions, and personality plays an important role in individual reactions in stress situations. The different levels of stress tolerance are functions of both socio-cultural and personal differentiation.³

Membership in a highly authoritarian society with a restrictive pattern of mobility, for example, might restrict the ability of an individual to adapt to new patterns of interaction. Alfred Opubor offers four postulates contrasting adaptation by an individual from a highly restricted socio-cultural system and an individual from an openly mobile socio-cultural system in defined and ambiguous interactions (Opubor, no date: p. 10).

- I. In clearly defined situations, a person from a highly restricted mobility structure will tend to interact with others according to the norms of his own indigenous structures.
- II. In ambiguous situations, a person from a highly restrictive mobility structure will tend to interact with others according to the definition of relationship provided by his interlocutors.
- III. The person from a highly open mobility structure will, in clearly defined contact situation, adopt the norms prescribed by the situation.
- IV. In ambiguous situations, however, he will employ the norms of his own indigenous structure.

Considerable stress in cross-cultural transfer results from communication problems. Variations in socio-cultural sets can clearly distort the clarity of the message one is sending and the feedback one is receiving. Even if the message itself is understood, confusion frequently results from the misinterpretations of the "warming up" cues or formal courtesies considered appropriate before message transmission--"adumbrations"--as well as at the end of message transmission (Hall, 1964: p. 154-6). Too direct an approach to certain topics or the use of certain parts of speech by certain individuals may create a block to effective communication during the adjustment phase. Such other considerations as style and timing are also culturally relative mechanisms for judging the appropriateness and validity of a message.

Kalervo Oberg is generally credited with having first used the term "cultural shock" to identify stress situations an individual encounters in moving from one socio-cultural system to another (Oberg, 1954). He approaches cultural shock as an anxiety situation based on the loss of symbols and cues essential to efficient social intercourse. Oberg divides the shock period into four stages:

1. Initial enthusiasm with opening encounter
2. Hostility
 - A. Criticism of host culture
 - B. Withdrawal to others of his culture if possible
3. Initial recovery
 - A. Ability to see humor in situation
 - B. Development of sense of superiority
4. Final adjustment

Oberg's typology does not provide for failure. Adjustment is the assumed outcome of cultural shock. Somewhat more satisfactory is the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) which divides individual responses to stress into: (Appley and Trumbull, 1967: p. 3)

1. Alarm Reaction
 - A. Shock Phase--lowering of resistance
 - B. Counter Shock Phase--application of defense mechanism

2. Adaption Phase

----- (completion of reaction is successful)

3. Exhaustion Phase (if 2 is unsuccessful)

Most research is fairly consistent in the use of anxiety as a key stone for explaining cultural shock and adapt an organismic interpretation of the function of anxiety in stress situations. Anxiety results from the perception of incongruity in socio-cultural sets which requires excessive adjustment, i.e., adjustment greater than what the individual regards as acceptable or normal. The consequence and function of anxiety is to allow the individual to reduce the incongruity more quickly and efficiently than would otherwise be the case (Cleveland, 1960), (May, 1950), (Nash, 1962), (Schild, 1962). These views of anxiety are based on an integrative perspective and reflect basic theoretical developments in socio-psychoanalytical literature.⁴

Approaches to cultural shock as anxiety do not always give equal stress to the three socio-cultural sets mentioned here and often vary in describing their interrelationship. This is more a question of focus than reductionism, for most studies would support the interrelationship of values, roles, and behavior. Higbee (1969), for example, presents an interesting disucssion of the frustration encountered in cultural exchange in terms of what he calls "role shock,"

which he basically defines as the result of challenges to the status an individual held in his home system upon his assumption of a role with different status in the host system. Higbee offers a series of tentative suggestions to prepare cultural exchange participants for status change and to reduce status discrepancies (Higbee, 1969: p. 72+). Although this provides a useful dimension for analysis, it is impossible to discuss status without associated values and behavior, which Higbee himself demonstrates in the case studies he uses to illustrate his article.

ENTRY AND RE-ENTRY TRANSITION:

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES

The basic level of stress experience by an individual selected for participation in a cultural exchange program is likely to be higher than was the level of background stress or anxiety to which he was accustomed. The physical arrangements necessary for travel alone would account for stress even when there is a high degree of cultural convergence. Individuals not selected for participation in the program, it should be added, might also have stress levels higher than the accustomed background levels as a result of having experienced rejection. There are two obvious phases in participant experience, however, where the potential for anxiety significantly increases. The first occurs when the participant enters the host socio-cultural system and

encounters cultural shock, referred to in the model as entry-transition. The second occurs when the participant returns to his home country and experiences reverse cultural shock or re-entry shock during the phase referred to in the model as re-entry transition.

In both cases anxiety occurs because the socio-cultural sets of the participants are not congruent with the mainstream socio-cultural sets. Variance with the sets of the host system will depend upon the similarity of the host and home socio-cultural sets. The extent of re-entry shock depends upon two dimensions, however, either or both of which the participant may not fully anticipate prior to his encounter with re-entry shock:

1. Changes in participant socio-cultural sets as a result of his experience;
2. Changes in sets of home system during the absence of the participant.

It may be useful to delineate the differences and similarities characterizing entry and re-entry shock in terms of relative advantages and disadvantages to adjustment.

ENTRY SHOCK

1. Participant has the disadvantage of not having experienced the system before.
2. Participant has the advantage of expecting that things will be different even if he does not know what will be

different

3. Participant has advantage of being able to use program and associated personnel and facilities to help assimilation.
4. Participant has advantage of people in host culture expecting that because participant is foreign he will be different and therefore not expecting total conformance.
5. Advantage of participant desire to learn and willing to conform to certain extent.
6. Time can be a limit on how fast a participant can adjust, but participant knows that the experience will come to an end.

RE-ENTRY SHOCK

1. Advantage of having participated in the home system and knowledge of sets as they were structured.
2. Disadvantage of not expecting things to be different or the extent that he himself has changed.
3. Disadvantage of limited access if any to program and associated personnel and facilities to help re-integration.
4. Disadvantage of members of home system expecting that he will be or should be the same person he was before the experience.
5. Disadvantage of participant wanting to introduce what he has learned and innovate which will not be

universally welcomed.

6. Advantage of greater time to re-integrate, but stay is relatively permanent.

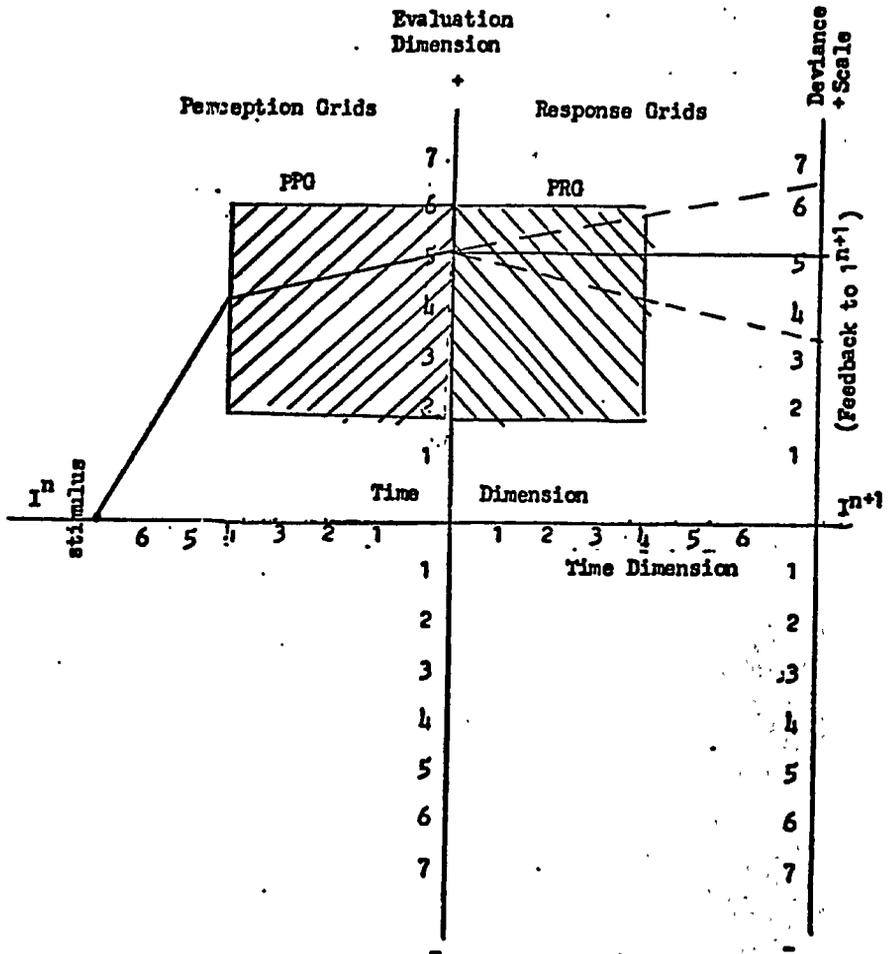
PARTICIPANT PERCEPTION-RESPONSE DEVIANCE

A comprehensive schematic and conceptual approach to the source of anxiety encountered in cultural shock would seem to exist in an analysis of perception-response deviance relevant to a particular interaction. In the model illustrated (See Figure 4A. Participant Deviance Perception-Response Grids), perception and response are shown for an interaction event I^n during re-entry transition in which the socio-cultural sets of the participant diverge from those of the home system. The model is basically an expansion of an interaction event in the basic model illustrated in Figure 3 of Chapter 2 and is structured in terms of the process approach as previously defined. The model assumes that the interaction event in and of itself has no objective reality and is dependent for meaning upon the subjective or relative perception of the participant. As in the main model the interaction event represents but one point in a continuous chain of events in participant experience.

For the purpose of the model:

- I. Perception of the interaction is "graphed"
 - A. Horizontally in terms of time

Figure 4A. Participant Deviance and Perception-Response Grids



1. Time required for internal evaluation of the perception of the stimulus initiating the interaction
 2. Time required for response after evaluation
- B. Vertically in terms of positive and negative value assigned to the perception.
- II. The interaction event (I^n)
- A. Begins with the perception of the activating stimulus
 - B. Ends with the implementation of the response
 - C. Depends upon preceeding and succeeding interaction events
- III. The perception of the stimulus
- A. Determines the reality of the stimulus
 - B. Depends on "screening" provided by socio-cultural perception grid
- IV. Socio-cultural grids
- A. Disassociate input into components for evaluation by socio-cultural sets
 - B. Provide linkage between socio-cultural sets
 1. Cultural dimension--value sets
 2. Social dimension--role sets
 3. Psychological dimension--behavior sets
 - C. Reassociate final evaluation as appropriate

D. Include memory and adjustment units

V. Response

A. Determine reality given to interaction by individual

B. Depends upon

1. Evaluation provided by perception grids

2. Screening provided by socio-cultural response grids

VI. Feedback

1. Clears channels for new interaction event

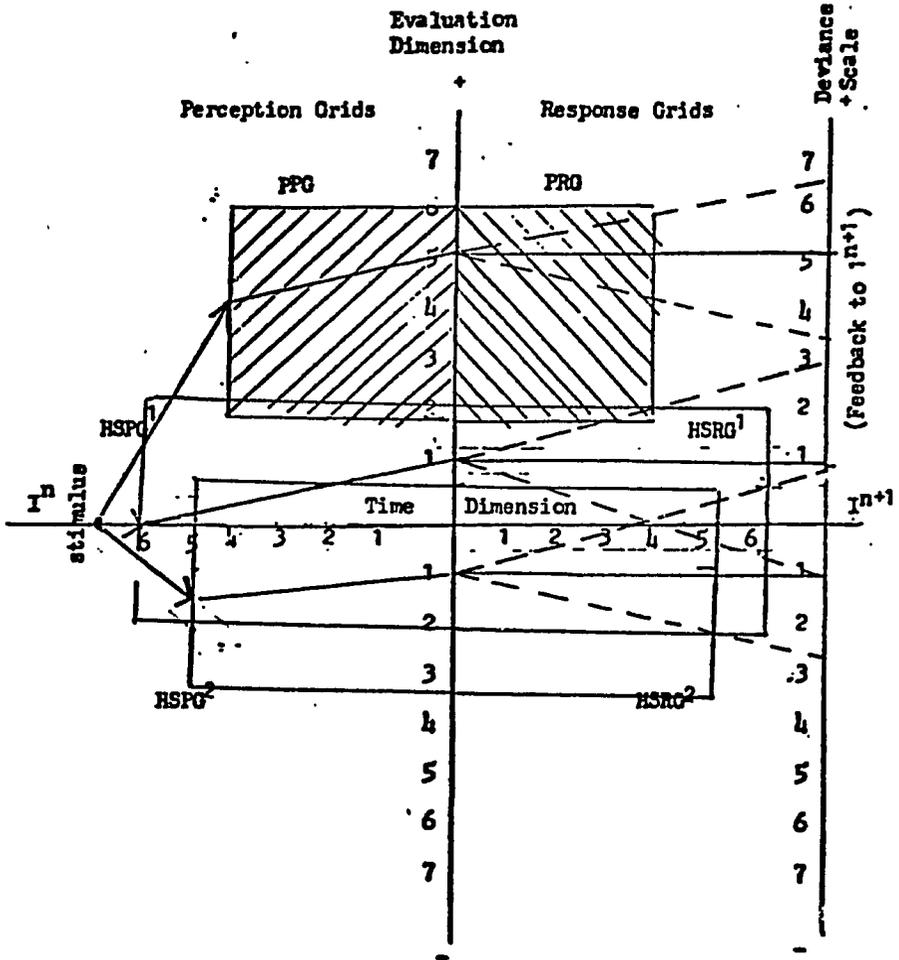
2. May also include elements providing stimulus for new interaction event

In the model the socio-cultural grids of the participants requires four units of time to evaluate the stimulus. The socio-cultural sets of the participant are positively biased toward the stimulus and evaluate the stimulus at a value of five. It takes the participant four additional time units to select the appropriate response. The response the participant selects has a value of five but need not have. The model is an over-simplification in that it demonstrates only one dimension on the vertical scale whereas many dimensions may be relevant to total evaluation of the stimulus for I^n . The time units required for such additional evaluations may not conform to those necessary for the model. They may be either consecutive or sequential operations.

In Figure 4B., Participant Deviance and Perception-Response Grids., the perception grid for the participant is again shown as PG. The perception grid for the home system is shown as HSG¹. The HSG¹ grid is more balanced on the positive-negative scale and also takes more time to process an evaluation of the stimulus than the participant took which it determines at a value of one. HSG¹ represents the home system as it was before the participant departed. Change in the socio-cultural sets while the participant was absent, however, is indicated by a third grid, HSG². The result of shift is an increase in negative perception ranking the stimulus with a value of -1.0. For the sake of simplicity the socio-cultural grids have not been schematically provided memory and adjustment mechanisms, i.e., learning, which in actuality do exist. The grids have been black-boxed and do not show the disassociation and reassociation mechanisms.

Also for the sake of simplicity the response grids are given the same time value held by the perception grids. This need not be the case. Total interaction "time" equals the sum of the perception and response grids. Feedback is not time-graphed in the model, but it does represent an additional time factor in the interaction. This would be especially significant in complex interaction. The value of the response selected is given the same value as that of the perception of the stimulus; although there is a high

Figure 4B. Participant Deviance and Perception-Response Grids



correlation between the structure of perception and response grids, variation in valuation, as indicated by the dotted lines, is likely and provides another occasion for variance in participant and system responses. The deviance scale in the model shows a spread of 6 points with the participant at +5, the home system before departure at +1, and the home system after participant returns at -1.

The final step on the model is the feedback process by which a participant learns of the appropriateness of his response as compared to the "normative" response of the home socio-cultural system. Feedback error may also account for anxiety, either because of inaccuracy or because of incomplete information. The schematic representation of system perception and response, moreover, represents nothing more than a composite or average. Interaction with any one individual in the system may be closer or farther away from the response of the participant.

In Figure 4B, the participant is 4 points from the response he might have expected on the basis of previous knowledge and 6 points away from the actual response he encountered. This provides an interesting "measure" of anxiety induced by deviance, i.e., stress, intended here for illustration rather than quantification, but several additional considerations intended here for illustration rather than quantification must be taken into account.

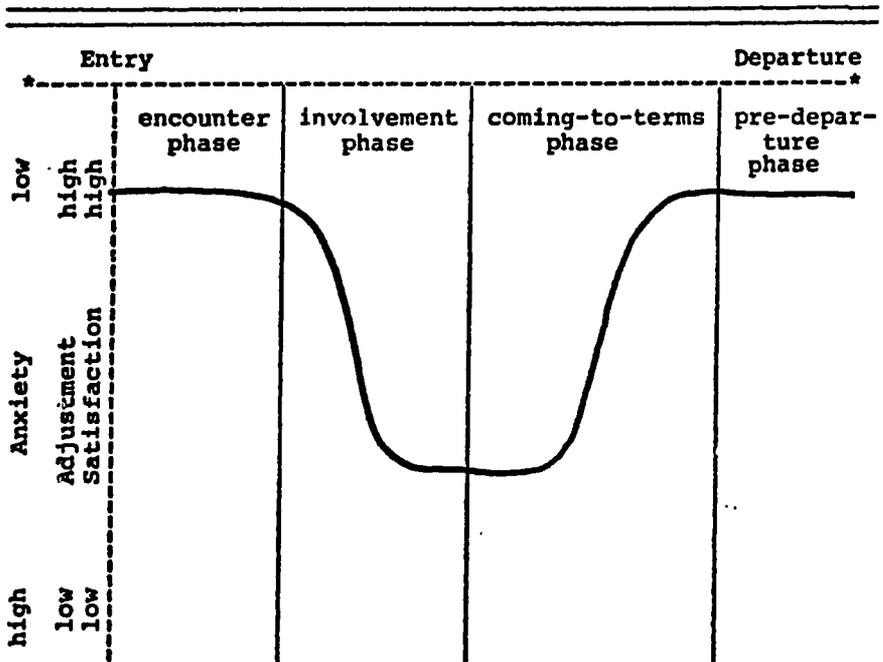
1. The participant may have deviated from the "mainstream" socio-cultural grid before his exposure abroad and his experience may have lessened or reduced the degree of deviance.
2. Deviance in itself is not a source of anxiety
 - A. Until feedback ascertains existence
 - B. Depends upon value participant gives:
 1. To appropriateness of his response
 2. Reaction of system to his response
3. Societies vary greatly in the degree of deviance accepted.
4. Deviance in certain areas will be more "serious" than in others
5. Deviance at certain times will be more "serious" than at others.
 - A. State of Internal Environment
 - B. State of External Environment
 - C. State of Participant

ANXIETY CURVES AND U-CURVE ANALYSIS

The most commonly used models presenting adjustment to cultural shock over time represent modifications of the U-curve hypothesis.⁶ Individual reaction to stress in such models is graphed over time compared to such dimensions as anxiety, satisfaction or adjustment. According to the hypothesis, the initial stimulation of exposure to a new socio-

cultural system is followed by a rapidly increasing sense of anxiety or frustration which then rapidly curves back as adjustment takes place. Initial utilization of the curve was largely confined to entry shock. Some studies broke the curve into segments representing shock phases. A composite of such illustrations is shown below. (See Figure 5. U-Curve Adjustment to Cultural Shock.)

Figure 5.
U-Curve Adjustment to Cultural Shock



Utilization of either the U-curve or W-curve as presented in most studies to move from illustration to analysis, however, is limited by several criticisms. First of all, it must be realized that the curved representation of the experience and adjustment to anxiety is an idealization. Various theories of learning provide ample support for the fact that increases and decreases in anxiety will be in rapid spurts followed by leveling periods or plateaux. The generalized curve reduced the accuracy of the concept and its analytical value.

More significant, however, is the general assumption that adjustment takes place and the individual overcomes the effects of cultural shock. The anxiety level before and after the state of cultural shock are usually presented at the same level, indicating that the individual has returned to the same position in which he stood before the experience. Although such adjustment would be the intended goal of program planning, it need not be the result of participant experience and in many cases is not the result.

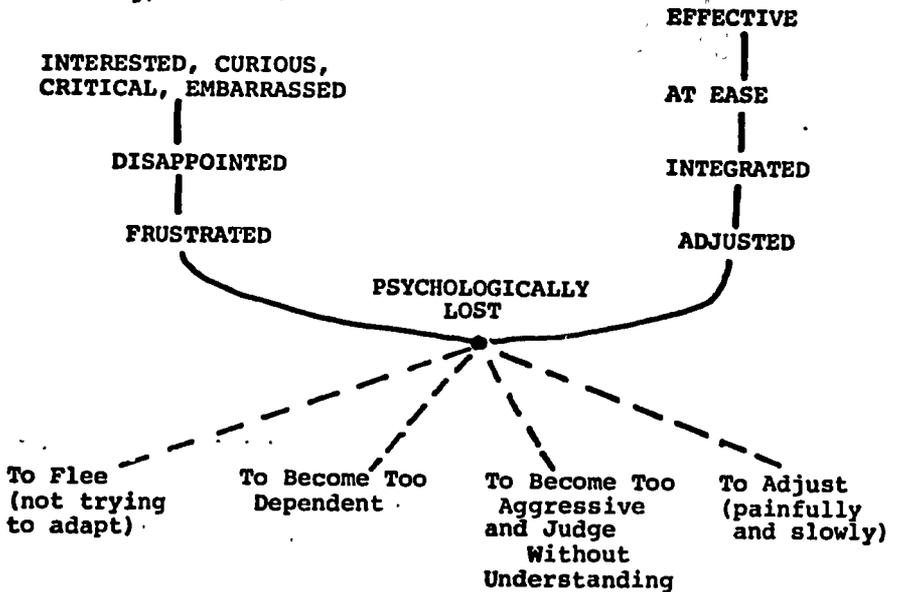
An interesting variation of the U-curve hypothesis provides variant participant choices. (See Figure 7. The Culture Shock Curve.) Here an individual experiencing cultural shock may flee from the situation or may develop excessive dependency rather than ever reach a state of adjustment. Ascent up the curve is indicated by the sequence

FIGURE 7.
THE CULTURE SHOCK CURVE

(The culture shock and its consequences)

P. Casse

Someone placed in an unusual situation (e.g., a new organizational or cultural setting), will be:



of being adjusted, integrated, at ease, and effective (Casse, N. D.). Although it is not clear whether or not the individual making the ascent is assumed to reach the effective stage, the inclusion of options such as flight would indicate that such is not assumed.

Modification of the W-curve should take into account:

- I. Increase and decrease in anxiety level is marked by spurts and plateaux.
- II. Adjustment need not occur during participant experience.
 - A. Anxiety (1) may occur through participant experience
 - (2) may cause participant to leave host country
 - B. Anxiety upon return to home socio-cultural system:
 1. May be less than before participant left
 2. May equal level before participant left
 3. May be greater than before participant left
 4. May be greater or lesser than background level of home socio-cultural system
- III. If adjustment takes place it may be at one of three levels of integration.
 - A. Participation: provides function

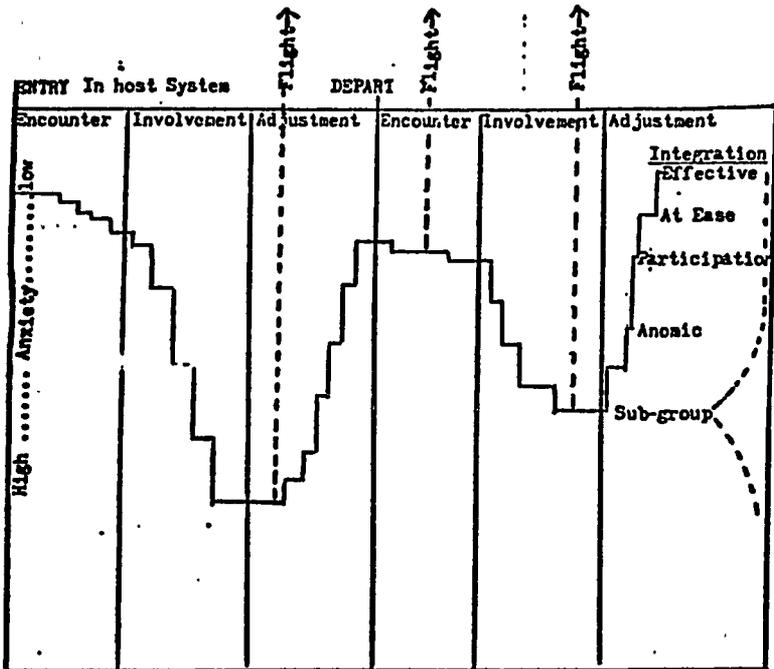
- B. Level of being at ease: provides comfort
 - C. Effective level: provides manipulation
- IV. Anxiety may not be resolved.
- A. Returning participant may leave home country during re-entry
 - B. May join divergent subgroup
 - C. May enter anomic state

Revision of the curve in consideration of these points is shown in Figure 8, Participant Adjustment Plateaux. Each spurt and plateau are given equal value in the illustration, although in actuality both the extent and duration would vary. Anxiety continues throughout the participant experience but at a reduced level over that experienced during the involvement stage. Anxiety during re-entry involvement is somewhat less severe than during participant experience abroad but could be equal to or greater than that experienced while abroad.

Possible selection of flight rather than coping with adjustment to anxiety is shown by dotted vertical lines in the model. Basically these occur at three places:

1. During participant experience in the host country
 - A. Return to home country
 - B. Selection of alternate host country
2. At the time of scheduled departure for home country

Figure 8. Participant Adjustment Plateaux



- A. May remain in host country
 - B. May go to other country besides home country
3. During re-entry transition in home country
- A. May return to host country
 - B. May go to third country

As previously stated this study views the goal of cultural exchange in terms of participant re-integration. Such re-integration should not be seen as total conformance to main stream socio-cultural sets. Hopefully, however, anxiety will have been reduced and deviance narrowed to the point that the participant moves from participation, to being at ease and finally to effectiveness in interaction situations. Flight from the home country or non-return are both seen as program failures. Anomie is not regarded as a positive adjustment. Movement to a subgroup may be either positive or negative depending upon the nature of the group. Fuller discussion of the values associated with adjustment are included in the concluding chapter.

IDENTIFICATION OF ADJUSTMENT AREAS

The models presented here have attributed the experience of cultural shock to deviance in socio-cultural sets of returning participants and their home socio-cultural system. At any one interaction a multiplicity of components or factors relative to these sets are present. Various studies have sought to identify and enumerate adjustment areas

commonly encountered during re-entry transition. Certain of these studies have been based on follow-up surveys or interviews of former participants after their return.

Typical of such studies is a survey of foreign alumni who had received advanced education in the United States, between 1945 and 1955, at Teachers College of Columbia University. Eighty percent of the respondents indicated that they had encountered adjustment problems (Cajoleas, 1959: p. 192). The problems were classified by the study in descending rank on the basis of refrequency.

Included were:

1. Reconstruction of personal values upon return home.
2. Bringing about changes in home-country environment.
3. Meeting criticism of American degrees and training.
4. Accepting the standard of living back home.
5. Meeting anti-American attitudes.
6. Low salaries and lack of public or institutional funds for education.
7. Limited job opportunities and excessive work load.

The use of survey studies to compile an inventory of adjustment areas is complicated by several rather obvious limitations:

1. Problem of access: studies have frequently encountered very low rate of return.
2. Bias of those who do return the questionnaire.
3. Bias built into questionnaire.
4. Classification of adjustment areas.
5. Differentiation
 - A. Participant has not experienced adjustment problems
 - B. Participant has not recognized that problems he had encountered are associated with re-entry
 - C. Participant is unwilling to admit he has had any problems
 - D. Participant desires to satisfy interests of researcher

A more comprehensive inventory of adjustment areas has been compiled by Asuncion-Lande on the basis of the 1973 Janus Project held with a group of foreign graduate students at the University of Texas in preparation for their return home. This inventory is divided into six areas:

1. Cultural Adjustment; 2. Social Adjustment; 3. Linguistic Barriers; 4. National and Political Problems;
5. Educational Problems; 6. Professional Problems (March, 1975: p. 4-5). This inventory is illustrated in Table 1, Asuncion-Lande Adjustment Inventory.

Table 1.

ASUNCION-LANDE ADJUSTMENT INVENTORY

1. Cultural Adjustment

- a. Identity problem
- b. Insecurity
- c. Adjustment to changes in life style
- d. Adjustment to a pervasive quality of envy and distrust in interpersonal relations
- e. Adjustment to the localiteness (sic) of kin and friends
- f. Adjustment to a daily work routine
- g. Family or community pressure to conform

2. Social Adjustment

- a. Adjustments from individualism of U. S. life to familism (conformity and submission to the demands of family) in home country
- b. Colonial mentality
- c. Feelings of superiority due to international experience and travel
- d. Lack of amenities which were a part of U. S. existence
- e. Uncertainties in interpersonal relations
- f. Social alienation as a result of foreign sojourn

TABLE 1. (Continued)

-
- g. Dissatisfaction with ritualized patterns of social interaction
 - h. Frustration as a result of conflicting attitudes
3. Linguistic Barriers
- a. Adoption of verbal/non-verbal codes which are not familiar to countrymen
 - b. Adoption of certain speech mannerisms which may be misinterpreted by countrymen
 - c. Absence of colleagues who speak the same code as returnee
 - d. Unfamiliarity with new forms of communication or styles of expression
4. National and Political Problems
- a. Changes in political conditions
 - b. Shifts in national priorities/policies
 - c. Shift in political views
 - d. Political climate not conducive to professional activity
 - e. Political climate not conducive to professional advancement
 - f. Dissatisfaction with political situation
 - g. Observed lack of national goals
 - h. Politicization of office or colleagues

TABLE 1. (Continued)

-
-
- i. Changes in bureaucratic leadership
5. Educational Problems
 - a. Inability to reconcile aspects of U. S. education to education in home country
 - b. Relevance of education to home situation
 - c. Fulfillment of objectives in coming to U. S.
 - d. Aspects of U. S. education which are least helpful to returnee
 - e. Lack of facilities and resources for research
 - f. Wrong expectations
 - g. Failure to improve skills
 - h. Absence of professional education programs to keep up with new developments of knowledge
 6. Professional Problems
 - a. Inability to work in chosen specialty
 - b. Placement in inappropriate field
 - c. Facing a glutted job market
 - d. Scientific terminology in U. S. studies which are not subject to adequate translation into the native language
 - e. Inability to communicate what was learned
 - f. Resistance to change by co-workers
 - g. Feeling of superiority due to U. S. training
 - h. Non-recognition of U. S. degree

TABLE 1. (Continued)

-
-
- i. Jealousy of colleagues
 - j. Low compensation
 - k. High expectations
 - l. Isolation from academic and scientific developments in U. S. or in own field
 - m. Perceived lack of enthusiasm and/or commitment among co-workers
 - n. Concern with quick material success

IMPLICATIONS FOR PROGRAM PLANNING

If the criteria of participant re-integration as the base for the transfer of participant experience to the socio-cultural system of the home country is maintained as essential to program success, the implications of the process approach and the associated models presented here are manifold. The approach outlined in this study is intended to be no more than a basic guide and serve as an integrating function. It is not envisioned as a definitive diagram, and attempts to make it such would require additional research well beyond the scope of this study.

The merits of the approach rest in the facility with which it can be readily applied by any program planner to the needs and realities of the program he is preparing. The remainder of this study is devoted to an examination of a specific program design to prepare participants for entry-transition. Analysis of the program in the subsequent chapter provides an illustration of how the process approach can be applied conceptually and operationally.

Before proceeding to such application, however, certain general observations concerning the implications of the process approach to re-entry transition are worthy of discussion. Although specific analysis is reserved for subsequent presentation, the following observations provide the basic logic guiding the programing of re-entry training.

The experience of having been a participant in a cultural exchange program ought to have a greater effect than the sum of the academic or technical training session programmed for the participant. The end product is indeed a changed person who, although able to re-integrate himself back into his home socio-cultural system, is not restricted by such integration. As an effective participant in his system he is able to manipulate interaction events rather than be manipulated by them. Being a manipulator does not mean that he uses or profits from either the home system or other members of it, but in turn he is not used either. Equivalent operability is implied. Most directly stated, the returning participant should be equipped to pass through re-entry transition with the minimum anxiety and the maximum effectiveness.

The preparation of training for re-entry transition should be set in the context of program planning in general. In other words, planning for program preparation, the program unit, and program conclusion should always keep in mind the ultimate criteria of program success. In addition to providing the participant with specialized training, the program should endeavor to provide:

1. An increase in participant self-awareness.
2. A strong sense of cultural awareness.
 - A. Of his own culture

- B. Of the host culture
- C. Of general cross-cultural skills
- 3. Contact with and an informed state of information about home system.
- 4. Experience relevant to home system.
- 5. Opportunities for equivalent or counterpart social and professional interaction.
- 6. Training in basic communication skills.
- 7. Training in introduction of innovation.

Specific preparation for re-entry shock should be based on projection or expectation training. Such training is based on the thesis of social psychologists that preparation for anxiety reduced the impact of that anxiety when and if it is encountered (Janis, 1958), (Elms, 1972). Such process training techniques as role-playing, simulation and other forms of projection are the most effective means of providing such preparation. When applied to training for re-entry process projection should:

- 1. Provide the participant with new information and perspectives.
 - A. Sources of re-entry shock
 - B. Adjustment to re-entry
- 2. Stimulate generalizations on basis of new information.
- 3. Increase participant awareness.

- A. New state of participant's socio-cultural sets
 - B. New state of home system's socio-cultural sets
4. Encourage participant to apply the above to situations he is likely to encounter.
- A. Enumeration of possible adjustment situations in specific terms
 - B. Enumeration of possible solutions in specific terms

The interaction context of such techniques significantly increased participant involvement and, consequently, learning in the training sessions. As a result of this approach:

- 1. The degree of recall during encounter is increased.
- 2. The participant is not as "shocked" by re-entry.
 - A. Initial anxiety is reduced
 - B. Reduction of anxiety which is encountered is reduced
 - 1. Over time
 - 2. In degree

An interesting and supportive parallel to the application of projection processing to re-entry transition is provided by research in medical science (Egbert, et. al., 1964). Patients divided into two groups received different

briefings before their operations concerning post-operative pain and other possible complications in their personal lives associated with their operations. The members of the control group were told that everything was "going to be fine." Members of the second group, however, were encouraged to consider their recovery in both positive and negative terms. This encouragement included discussion with members of the hospital staff as well as members of their families.

The reactions and recovery of the two groups after their operations were markedly different. The patients in the two groups were treated by doctors who were unaware of the study. Members of the second group requested and received less pain killers and were released from the hospital an average of three days earlier than those in the control group. The recovery of patients who had experienced projection training appeared to be more rapid and free of complications than that of those not briefed. No intervening variables seemed to discount the validity of the hypothesis of the positive results of briefing in patient recovery.

The mid 1970's have seen a rapidly growing interest in providing re-entry training that would reduce re-entry shock for participants. An inventory of special transition programs in 1974 indicated, however, that there were fewer than twenty established programs in the United States; most of these programs had been established after 1970. (See Table 4. Inventory of Re-Entry Transition Training Programs.

Appendix A.) Most of the programs were terminal activities of less than one week. Only two met periodically over a period of several weeks. Most of the programs were operated in isolation from one another without the benefit of information sharing. Efforts to eliminate such barriers and improve re-entry transition training were primary factors motivating the First National Conference on Transition Programming supported by the National Association for Foreign Student Affairs (NAFSA).

Surveys of these programs and interviews with program directors indicated the following major problem areas encountered in establishing and operating re-entry transition seminars; these are especially vital concerns for program planners interested in initiating their own programs: (Brislin, 1973c), (Sperling, 1974), (Morris, 1976), (Elsen, 1976).

1. Obtaining a correct physical setting where group interaction is high and not broken by distractions.
2. Motivating interest and support.
 - A. Among participants
 - B. Among members of the administration and colleagues of trainers
3. Provision for inclusion in budget in advance of program.

4. Integration of seminar in program unit as a whole.
5. Competition from other activities, interests, and plans of participants and events on the academic calendar.
6. Development of trainers efficient in the use of the communication approach.⁷

Despite the difficulties encountered by program planners and trainers, many were able to report significant results. Brislin reports a typical response of a student who felt little need for re-entry training prior to having received such training (Brislin, 1974: p. 10).

I don't envisage any problems upon returning home as I already have a job waiting for me. There won't be any "cultural shock" either as I'm mature enough to reorient myself into the society from which I came. My only problem is mainly how to get myself acclimated into the weather in my home country which is hot and humid.

After having been exposed to re-entry training, however, the student provided the following list of potential problems he saw ahead of him (Brislin, 1974: p. 11).

1. Adjustment to hot and humid weather.
2. Gifts for friends and relatives.
3. Identification to home's environment and physical surroundings.
4. Psychological preparation against professional jealousy.

5. Being prepared to living up to a graduate returning home from a foreign country like the U. S. A. as local people do expect a lot from him.
6. Re-establish relations with all friends at home.
7. Be aware of "too" westernized behavior and attitudes picked up in the U. S. A. which might offend relatives and friends back home.

As previously stated, although a terminal seminar may be highly effective in providing re-entry transition training, preparation for that seminar should be well rooted in the entire program unit. Similarly, it should not end with the conclusion of the seminar and departure of the participant from the host country but should be included in follow-up during program conclusion. Programing for follow-up should provide channels for reducing anxiety and frustration. Both face-to-face and less personal channels should be included to provide:

1. Informal social and professional interaction.
2. Formalized social and professional contact including seminars and lectures.
3. Development of national and regional newsletters and professional publications.
4. Access to communication specialists and technical advisors to help solve specific problems.

5. Access to relevant literature on the multi-cultural basis.

REFERENCES

1. The concept of stress is widely discussed in the literature of biology, psychology, and anthropology. An overview of relevant research is provided by (Spradley, and Phillips, 1972). Useful also is (Appley and Trumbull, 1967), and (Caudill, 1958).
2. Social integration has long been an issue of concern to social scientists. Suggested additional reading includes (Durkheim, 1960), credited with the first investigation of the concept of social integration. (Sorakin, 1962) combines cultural and functional integration. (Landecher, 1952) offers further delineation and approaches to measurement. Deutsch applies the communication model to the concept of community on the national level (1953) and on the international level (1957).
3. For an especially interesting study of transcultural determinants, see (Sears, 1961).
4. For further reading, see (Cofer and Appley, 1964), (Freud, 1936), (Mandler and Seymour, 1952), (Kierkegaard, 1957).
5. A broad range of literature relevant to deviance is offered. Suggested reading includes: (Clinard, 1964), (Cohen, 1965), and (Mills, 1959).
6. U-curve initially emerged as a general conclusion in a study by (Sewall, et. al., 1954) and about the same time in a study by Lysgaard (1955). Although generally supported by most studies the statistic significance of the curve is divergently integrated (Sellitz, et. al., 1963), (Morris, 1960).
7. It is suggested that individuals interested in further information should contact the NAFSA Headquarters in Washington, D. C., which has supported the development of techniques and programs relevant to re-entry transition. The evaluation of the Michigan State University Communication Workshop in the next chapter also provides additional insights on program operation.

CHAPTER 4

METHODOLOGY: APPLICATION OF THE MODEL

It is the intent of this chapter to examine the value of the process approach as it applies to program analysis and participant experience in cultural exchange as defined in Chapter One. The focus of analysis for program analysis is the participant training program of the Agency for International Development (AID). Macro-analysis of the AID program is followed by micro-analysis of one component of the program. The component selected is the Communication Workshop conducted by Michigan State University under contract to AID. This workshop provides re-entry training for AID participants and is usually the last training experience of the program plan before departure.

Although recent federal legislation concerning privacy of personal information contained in government files restricted access to certain data on participant background, staff members of AID made every effort to facilitate the examination of policies and operations of the Agency. Most of the information used for this chapter was obtained through interviews of staff members or of AID participants. Interviews of trainees were conducted during the terminal part of their stay in this country, in many cases only a few days before departure. The Agency also provided internal

documents and external publications relevant to the interests of the study. It was the overall "access" provided by the Agency which made this study possible and, in the end, counterbalanced the initial restriction on the research model represented by ambiguity over what constituted the privacy of participants.

Access to AID files having political or security implications was not essential to the research design of this study. More formidable an obstacle was presented by the volume of materials relevant to participant study and different filing and storage systems for this information. In this case the research model was clearly designed to avoid extensive use of data and reports earlier in time than the late 1960's, especially when they were associated with projects no longer in existence or personnel no longer associated with the program. Bureaucratic influences relevant to decision making were observed during the period of data collection, but such influences were generally not sufficiently relevant to the research design to include them in the analysis.

An especially stimulating experience resulted from direct observation and participation in the M.S.U. Communication Workshop supported by an AID/NAFSA grant. This provided the opportunity for informally interviewing additional AID participants as well as observing the process

approach used by M.S.U. trainers. Supplemental information was provided by access to M.S.U. files and an interview with the director of the workshop. Although participation in the workshop followed construction of the model presented in Chapter Two, minor conceptual modifications resulted from the experience; in general, the model was reinforced.

APPLICATION OF THE MODEL: PROGRAM PLAN

AID: Macro Evaluation

Structure. The AID participant training program consists of required and optional elements divided into six phases. (See Figure 9. AID Participant Training Flow.) Relative correspondence exists between the process model and the AID flow chart with the noted exceptions:

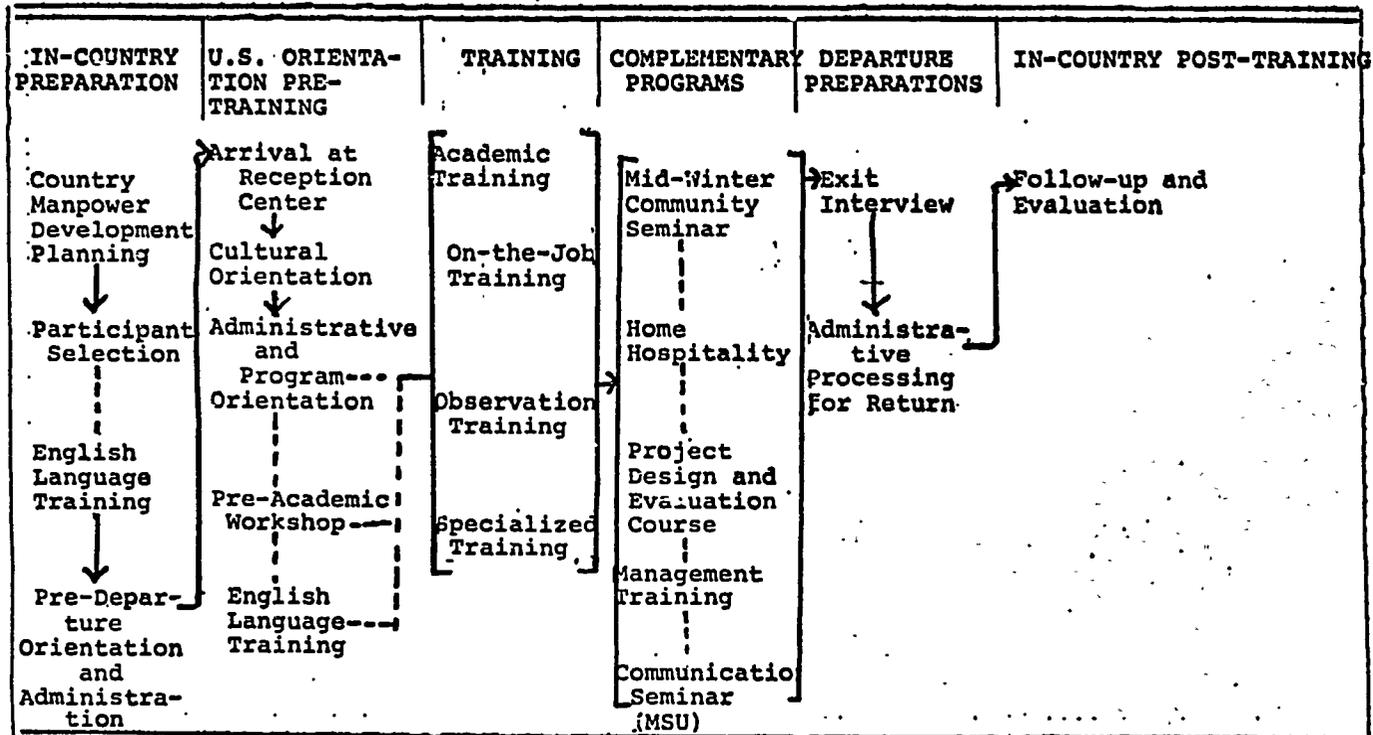
<u>Process Model</u>	<u>AID Flow Chart</u>
Program Preparation	In-Country Preparation U.S. Orientation, Pre- Training
Program Unit	Training Complementary Programs (M. S. U.)
Program Conclusion	Departure Preparation In-Country Post Training

Exceptions:

1. The AID flow chart does not provide for overlapping of phases.

Figure 9. AID Participant Training Flow

Direct flow ———
Optional flow - - - -



Direct flow ———
Optional flow - - - -

Source: Unpublished internal chart of AID with concurrence of William Elsen, 1976.

2. The AID flow chart does not distinguish between experience and program.
3. The AID flow chart does not indicate feedback channels.
4. The AID flow chart does not include full program preparation.¹

To illustrate the flow of a participant through the program, one begins with home country manpower development planning; this is the process by which the home country decides what skills are needed for the fulfillment of plans for national development and then determines deficiencies in the supply of personnel able to supply needed skills. Participants are then selected in terms of the potential they offer in fulfilling these needs upon the receipt of additional training; the methods used by selection officials vary widely. The process usually combined objective and subjective measures, but full details of the process are not always disclosed. Some participants are already English language speakers; non-English speakers and those with marginal skills in English may receive training before departure. English language skills are determined by standardized examinations and included in the file of each participant. Language training may also be provided after arrival in the United States before the initiation of the training sessions.

Participants are met at the point of arrival by an

AID representative. They receive cultural orientation about life in the United States at the Washington International Center operated under an AID contract. They also receive administrative and program orientation that includes meeting the Program Development Officer (PDO) who has been assigned to follow their progress throughout their stay. Participants may also attend a pre-academic workshop that describes the American academic system and, if offered by the training institution, may provide information on campus life and such procedures as library use. Participants then receive training that ranges from academic programs leading to a degree to on-the-job training and observation.

Associated with the training are complimentary programs. These include Mid-Winter Community Seminars, which are designed to provide such relevant professional experiences as conferences and seminars in areas outside the immediate site of the central training program, and social interaction with American families. The M. S. U. Communication Workshop is also a complimentary program under the AID program. All participants return to Washington at the end of their stay for an exit interview designed to determine their reaction to the training experience they have had. Administrative details are also handled at this time. Participants depart and evaluation and follow-up follow their return home.

Evaluation. Efforts to evaluate the AID program from the perspective of the process approach have been considerably complicated by cutbacks in the AID administrative budget. This has resulted in a reduction in staff. Reduction in office space and support facilities associated with the budget cuts, moreover, has resulted in overcrowding as well as understaffing. Efforts to reorganize operations of the agency to compensate for these problems have been initiated or were under consideration. Thus, the Agency in 1976 was characterized by flux. The following evaluation attempts to focus on those issues which were not solely the result of fiscal considerations and which the Agency might be able to rectify within the level of existing resources.

For the economy of space, macro-evaluation of the AID program focuses on negative elements observed in the program when viewed from the perspective of the process model. Such criticism is not intended as destructive but as constructive. The Agency is providing vital training to 6200 participants a year. Few operations on such a scale do not have room for improvement; suggesting such areas is a subsidiary approach of this study.

Evaluation in this section is based on formal interviews of twenty-three departing AID participants--more fully discussed in the subsection of this chapter, Final Methodology,--over ten interviews of AID staff members, and various reports and documents of the Agency.² The

evaluation is divided into general criticisms and specific comments on the phases in the AID flow chart.

Coordination. Training AID participants occurs at a multiplicity of institutions scattered throughout the United States. This approach provides a high degree of flexibility in meeting the divergent interests and needs of participants and avoids high concentrations of participants at a few institutions, which would skew participant interaction. Program coordination is complicated by this feature, however, and about 25 percent of the interviewed participants reported coordination problems. Most of these situations, however, were the result of administrative problems related to the local campus and not AID personnel. To the degree possible, the local campus should be given more comprehensive guidance in planning coordination of such programs as health, academic guidance, and personal counseling for foreign students. The amount of help participants received in solving personal problems varied widely. The significance of interaction flow was not recognized by many institutions. Increased utilization of programs sponsored under the AID/NAFSA Liaison Committee might reduce local coordination problems.

Actualization. About 80 percent of all participants indicated that they had not followed the flow pattern indicated as required on the AID flow chart. The high percentage of reporting this discrepancy between program as

planned and as actualized underlines the emphasis given to the separation of program, event, and interaction in the model. It is impossible to assess the degree to which these discrepancies erode program effectiveness. Certain of the variations were requested by the participants themselves for such personal reasons as the need to return home at an earlier date than scheduled. Some reflected changes requested by the home government as a result in changes in the home system.

Verification. Both actualization and verification is highly dependent upon the PDO. Each participant is required to send an Initial Training Report to their PDO in Washington one week after arriving at the site of their training. This report contains academic data. Subsequent reports concerning progress and difficulties are submitted at three-month intervals. Reports are also submitted at the end of each semester listing courses and grades and at the beginning of each semester listing course registration. The state of participant experience is not readily revealed by this system; reports on participants' problems often do not flow through the local institution. The level of information about a participant varied according to institution and according to the style of the PDO. Verification of participant experience was more likely to result after a problem developed than at a point where it could be readily remedied.

Relevance: When participants questioned during the exit interview were asked to rate their satisfaction with the program an average score of 5.4 on a scale of 1 to 7 was reported; this is equivalent to a score of about 78 on a scale of 1 to 100. About 40 percent of the participants interviewed indicated dissatisfaction with over-all relevance of the program. Of those who were critical, over half expressed the interest in less theory and more practical training or training that was not exclusively based on the socio-cultural system of the United States; about one third felt their training was too advanced for their needs. Most participants sought to balance such criticism with positive comments about their over-all satisfaction with their training and experience in this country and reflected basic discomfort in being critical.

In-Country Preparation: Participants indicated a wide range of experiences relevant to selection and pre-departure orientation. The shift to home country operation of the selection process increased the integration of government developing planning and participant selection in terms of perceived manpower needs, but it also increased deviance from the idealized AID model. The selection process varied, moreover, not only from country to country, but also from participant to participant, even in the same country.

Most countries, often under AID guidance, had developed an inventory of manpower needs and scarcities. The sophistication and accuracy of these inventories varied. On the basis of the inventories each country requested specific training programs for their participants. The extent to which such inventories conformed to the manpower needs encountered by returning participants was a factor determining participant satisfaction or frustration with their entire program experience. Participant involvement in the selection of the study programs to be received was in several cases minimal or nonexistent. Similarly, some participants were selected to receive training in fields in which they were not especially interested but which were regarded essential categories for manpower development by their home governments.

The amount of pre-departure orientation also varied. All participants were subject to certification of their English language skills. In most cases this was provided by standardized examinations for reading and writing. Some students had received additional training before departure as well as orientation about the United States or study abroad. Some participants, however, received notification of less than a month; one participant had received only seventy-two hours notice.

Orientation: Most participants were still in a

state of jet-lag when orientation began. Many participants attended the program offered by the Washington International Center for less than the full schedule of days. Deviation seemed the rule. Credit must be given to the Center for attempting to adjust the program it offered, but there is a limit to flexibility and associated utility in orientation programs. Attention to briefings by AID staff and the first contact with the PDO was often reduced by fatigue and anxiety. Most participants were anxious to depart for the site of their training. Peak periods for arrivals resulting from uniformity in most academic calendars complicated counseling efforts by the PDO. Background packets received by the PDO, moreover, were not always complete.

Training and Complimentary Programs: Institutions varied widely both in the degree to which instruction followed the catalogue of the respective institutions and the type of instruction used for training. Some participants complained that programs were too rigid or that they were not allowed to choose the courses they wanted. Students' interests diverged greatly, however, and certain participants were either happy with a rigid structure, did not find the structure too rigid, or felt the guidance offered by their advisors to be very helpful. Most problems seemed to relate to adjustment to basic shock of a new physical and cultural environment rather than the training itself.

Departure: Some participants were eager to return home and were reluctant to attend the M. S. U. Communication Workshop. Although the PDO's were supposed to encourage participant attendance at the Workshop, certain PDO's seemed to be routing their participants directly to Washington for the exit interview and by-passing the Workshop. In certain cases this reflected personal situations of the participants, but consistent by-passing by certain PDO's indicated their lack of support for the Workshop. Facilities for the exit interview were far from ideal.

In-Country Program: The evaluation interviews and follow-up programs formerly carried out directly by AID personnel or local groups in cooperation with AID upon participant return have been drastically altered or discontinued in the last few years. It was difficult to assess the extent to which what programs were still operating and to what degree they provided feedback for program planning. This entire phase of the program was undergoing modification and new proposals were being drafted in 1976.

The Michigan State University Communication Workshop

Structure. The Michigan State University Communication Workshop (MSUCW) is a five-day seminar designed to introduce participants to the process of communications and the diffusion of innovation in order to facilitate participant re-entry transition. Information used in this section

was largely obtained as a result of my observations as a participant in the Workshop, informal interviews of the participants, and a formal questionnaire completed by the participants at the end of the Workshop.

The site used for the Workshop was a motel complex separated from the main campus. Although other guests were using the facilities, the isolation of the participants from distracting and competitive events created a high degree of group cohesion. Participants ate their meals together and recreational facilities ranging from such active sports as tennis and swimming to table games provided a broad range of opportunities for social interaction during free times in the schedule. Many participants welcomed having an opportunity to meet other participants from geographic regions with which they had not had or had had only limited contact previously.

The Workshop was divided into morning and afternoon sessions plus evening sessions the first night participants arrived, and one other evening for a group simulation. Other evenings were free and provided optional activities, such as visits to the homes of families in or near East Lansing. Each session was broken in half by a coffee break. Sessions usually ended well enough before meals to allow participants to relax or socialize before meals. The number of participants in the Workshop I attended exceeded

Figure 10. MSUCW: Subject Presentation

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
	Communications Model Perception Expectation Receiver Orientation Values	Diffusion of Innovation Prediction Overload Message Flow	Empathy Leadership Organizational Communication	Roles Group Interaction Verbal/non-Verbal Selectivity	Perception Workshop Construction
	Rumor	Playback/ Feedback Organizational Setting	Culture Self-Awareness	Re-entry shock Innovation	Departure
Arrival					

Figure 11. ASUCW Process Flow

S	M	T	W	T	F
	Presentation Interaction Analysis Additional Ex. Application Interaction ^A 1 Film 2 Analysis 3 Application Interaction ^B 1-3	Participant Summation Case study Analysis Presentation ^A 1 interaction 2 analysis 3 application Presentation ^B 1-3 Presentation ^C 1-3	Participant Summation Analysis Presentation Analysis Application	Triad Interaction Application A,B,C.	Interaction Analysis Application Summation Application Evaluation Input
		Campus tour (optional)		Participant case studies	Departure
Arrival Welcome Orientation Warm-up, Cul- ture concept, self concept Input Role of Interaction	Free time	Stimulation	Home visit	Cultural Presentation Self Concept Cultural Concept	

thirty, and the group was, therefore, divided into two groups for most of the sessions.

The structure of the material presented began with an introduction to the process of communications followed by such related topics as perception, expectation, and prediction. (See Figure 10. MSUCW: Subject Presentation.) Once a topic was introduced it often was reintroduced in relation to later discussion. At the opening of every session the participants were asked to present a summary of the previous day. Notes for the previous day were then distributed. (See Appendix B. Sample Summary Notes, MSUCW.) Participants were encouraged to avoid excessive note-taking and rather to participate in interaction. Relevant handouts and a basic communication textbook were given to the participants at the end of the Workshop.

The presentation of material followed the basic operational constructs previously discussed in this study. A presentation (i.e., brief lecture), interaction, or illustrational experience was followed by analysis and then applied to other situations. The flow between these steps was very fluid and shifted according to need. (See Figure 11. MSUCW Process Flow.) Group interaction, participation and feedback were essential to the presentation. Case studies were used heavily. The first sets were presented by the staff, but participants were asked later to present

case studies based upon their own personal experiences.

(See Appendix C. Sample Staff Case Studies, and Appendix D. Sample Participant Case Studies.)

Presentation was made through team teaching. Each of the two groups had three staff members who alternately led or initiated group interaction. Staff members varied from one workshop to another. Most staff members were experienced teachers in university or college programs related to communications, education, or international affairs. Daily coordination and suggested master lesson plans provided coherence to the sessions but still allowed flexibility.

Evaluation: It is difficult to discuss the structure of MSUCW outside the context of subjective evaluation. The high degree of conformance between the Workshop and the process model developed for this study before participation in the seminar seemed to reinforce both the model and inclusion of the Workshop for analysis:

1. Participants were viewed as interacting units.
2. Learning experience based on group interaction and participation
 - A. Use of multiplies effect
 - B. Learning greater than sum of the sessions
3. Participant self-awareness
 - A. Cultural dimension
 - B. Social dimension
 - C. Psychological dimension

4. Feedback between staff and participants was constant, ongoing adjustment mechanism
5. Emphasis on relation of information to socio-cultural sets

The success of the Workshop can easily be demonstrated in regard to the transformation of concept participants had of themselves as change agents. A sample of five participants obtained through informal interviews during the first evening and following morning, as well as participant responses in session interactions, indicated that most participants saw themselves as socio-cultural innovators but lacked an appreciation of the difficulties involved in changing attitudes and values. Three case studies are provided as typical examples:

Interview A. Participant A was anxious to return home and apply "everything" he had learned while studying in the United States. He "knew" of many errors that had been made by his superiors, only a few of whom had been abroad to study. He had saved all of his notes and planned to use them to solve all the problems he encountered when he got home. When asked if he thought the problems he was going to face would require modification of the solutions offered by his notes, he indicated that much would be directly transferable. When it was suggested that some of the solutions might not be acceptable to his superiors, he replied that

in such a case his superiors should be removed from their positions.

Interview B. Participant B was very intelligent and had been raised in a highly sophisticated, urban environment. He was especially interested in French and English literature. He also expressed an interest in introducing change upon his return home. When asked how he proposed to introduce such change, he stated that he would suggest it to his superiors and they would then require regional officials to implement the new policies. When asked if he felt administrators in rural areas would welcome such requirements, he replied that although he had never been outside the major city in his country, he was sure that there would be no problem because everybody faced the same problems, only on a different level. The judgment of the urban leadership should be followed.

Interview C. Participant C was a teacher who had been studying new methods of instruction and curriculum reform. He was pleased to have been selected for study in the United States and was anxious to return home with what he had learned. When asked if he felt that some of the teachers might resist the introduction of new ideas, he replied that such an attitude would be "silly" for educated people like teachers.

As demonstrated by these examples, at the outset of

the seminar, the participants were eager to innovate but showed only marginal understanding of value differentials, personality factors, and socio-cultural dimensions related to the introduction of change. By the end of the seminar, participants were able to conclude that the introduction of certain innovations might not be worth the social dislocation that would result. The concept of social cost had come to outweigh the value of change for change's sake.

Much of the success of the Workshop resulted from the staff and their application of teaching techniques based on variations of the EDIT process model presented earlier in this study. (See Appendix E. Staff Bibliographies, MSUCW.) The importance of participation and interaction was stressed during the opening session. During the subsequent sessions the staff encouraged participation from everyone in the group.

The staff was especially sensitive to individual needs. One participant was very aggressive and also resistant to accepting the relativity of perception, value, and culture. This was a problem that extended over several sessions. The staff consulted one another during coordinating sessions in order to increase the openness of the participant. During subsequent sessions the staff sought to counter the aggressiveness of the participant and his needs to dominate group discussion. Group resentment of the aggressiveness was kept under control and transferred to

understanding of the individual needs of the participant. The effectiveness of staff control of group dynamics required the subtle use of feedback, and was a stimulating experience even for the observer.

APPLICATION OF THE MODEL: PARTICIPANT EXPERIENCE

Preliminary Investigation

The previous sections demonstrate the utility of the process model in the analysis of program plan and event. Analysis of the effect of the AID program on participants, i.e., participant experience, is somewhat more difficult to determine. The primary interest of this study is how effective participants are in socio-cultural interactions upon their return home and their ability to apply what they have learned abroad to their own socio-cultural system.

The most direct evaluation of these associated dimensions of participant re-integration would be provided by observation of the participants during the transitional period. Variable control and cross-cultural considerations during the period presented a major obstacle to the construction of such a design. The logistics of such observation, including physical and financial considerations, and the difficulty of obtaining access and then evaluating participant performance on some meaningful objective basis, moreover, made such an approach inoperable for this study.

I decided to assess potential participant anxiety

during re-entry before it occurred. Based on the Janis thesis (Janis, 1958), that anxiety is reduced by expectation training, participants having received preparation for re-entry anxiety should have less difficulty in adjusting to deviance differentials and, therefore, should encounter less anxiety than participants who have not had such training. As a corollary, I assumed that individuals having experienced exposure to the fundamentals of innovation diffusion should be more effective innovators. The basic methodological interest was to demonstrate differences in the awareness levels of participants who had experienced re-entry training and those who had not.

Beyond Cornell. The first step in seeking to evaluate awareness levels was the construction of a survey to be administered to participants just before their departure. Contacts were made with several of the institutions listed in the Sehnert Inventory (See Appendix A. Table 4.), and a preliminary trial survey was scheduled for participants in the "Beyond Cornell Program." (See Appendix F. Cornell Survey.) The Cornell program, supported in part by funds from NAFSA, was designed mainly for students enrolled at Cornell. The program consisted of informal "social workshops" extending over the course of several weeks. This program was selected because of its seeming conformance to the operational concepts previously presented in this study.

I designed a short-answer questionnaire which I sent directly to thirty-two participants, who had just completed the program. I also included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire and the confidentiality of participant responses. The letter also explained that the foreign student office had provided the names and addresses of those sent questionnaires and that the results of the survey would be made available to every respondent who was interested. Return postage was included. The return rate of ten completed forms--several were returned "addressee unknown"--was only about one third of the total mailing. This proportion was about equal to the percentage of returns encountered in follow-up programs by AID (Sperling, 1974). It was lower than the rate expected since the questionnaire was being administered only to students still within the United States. The state of the international configuration at the time of the survey may have reduced the rate of returns. Students among the mailing were nationals of South Vietnam, Cambodia, and Ethiopia; their return home was not certain. The uncertainty about returning home resulted in non-response to portions of the forms returned by two respondents as well.

The results of the questionnaire were far more disappointing than the rate of return. When asked if they had received any preparation for their return home, six of the participants in the Beyond Cornell Seminar replied that

they had not received any preparation. This question had been inserted in the questionnaire as a validity check since all of the addresses had been certified by the foreign student office as having attended the seminar.

The questionnaire asked respondents to indicate if they felt that their stay in the United States would affect:

1. Their relations with their family
2. Their social relations
3. Their professional life
4. Their economic level

This was cross-verified with a slightly different question concerning role expectation. Respondents replied:

Family Relations: None of the respondents felt relations with their family would be influenced by their stay in the United States.

Social Relations: Only half of the respondents felt that their social relations would be influenced. Two respondents felt it would increase their status, one felt his new job would involve more travel and reduce the amount of time he had to socialize, and one felt that his friends were going to have to adjust to him.

Professional Life: Only one respondent felt that his stay in the United States would not affect his professional life. Two respondents felt that they would be more interested in research now rather than office work, but

the remainder of the respondents felt that they were going to have greater opportunities as a result of having studied in the United States.

Economic Level: Five of the respondents felt that they would receive increased income as a result of their study. One felt that he would be overqualified for the professional opportunities that would open up to him upon his return.

Subsequent to the receipt of the responses, contact was made with three of the respondents who had given their names, an option for respondents, and I arranged to interview these students personally before their departure from the United States. The interviews indicated that the students were more aware of re-entry problems than had been indicated by their responses; and when this was pointed out to the students, they replied:

1. That they had been in a hurry (or)
2. That they had not understood the question

During the interview there was a great deal of hesitancy on the part of the students to admit to the interviewer that they anticipated personal problems upon re-entry. They projected themselves as mature. As the interview progressed, the students relaxed and were more open in their comments. This hesitancy to discuss personal problems may well have explained the disappointing responses

as much as the reasons offered by the three interviewed respondents.

Conclusion. The obvious conclusion I reached after interviewing the three Beyond Cornell participants was to question both the validity and utility of the form of the questionnaire and the techniques associated with the questionnaire, and to consider such a more direct means of contact with the participants as that provided by personal interviews. Before shifting to such an approach and abandoning the use of a questionnaire, however, I further experimented with different questionnaire forms in combination with more controlled situations, including lectures and discussions related to cultural exchange.

Southeastern University. The next step was to examine student responses in a more controlled environment. A group of fifteen students enrolled in an orientation seminar I was teaching were selected for study. The focus was shifted to cultural shock during entry transition because of its immediacy to the students. The students were told that their replies would help university planning. Students were encouraged to place their names on the forms but were given the assurance that their identity would not be known to anyone except myself. Identification remained an option. All students were willing to be identified, however, but seemed comforted by having the option.

I structured and worded each survey differently. The primary purpose of this series of surveys was to determine the openness of students to the admission of personal problems. This was a necessary step before the final research design could be structured.

Survey Run #1: In the initial survey I gave the students an open-ended, short-answer questionnaire. (See Appendix G. Questionnaire #1, Southeastern University.) The responses to the questionnaire indicated varying degrees of language skill. Some students were more deficient in writing skill than would have been indicated by their oral skill.

To the question, "What kinds of problems or confusing situations have you encountered since your arrival to the United States?" most students listed language or money, followed by such academic problems as registration. None listed having had any personal problems usually encountered during culture shock.³

Survey Run #2. I administered a second questionnaire two weeks later concerning problems directly related to the university. (See Appendix H. Questionnaire #2, Southeastern University.) The survey again used open-ended, short-answer questions. In this case consultation with the registrar, the librarian, the other staff members in advance clearly indicated the existence of problems of varying

seriousness on the part of at least six of the students in the seminar. Responses from the students on the survey, however, did not coincide with the independently-obtained evaluation by the staff. Students clearly showed a high reluctance to disclose the existence of problems in their interactions.

Survey Run #3: I then gave the students a third questionnaire, two weeks later in the semester, which combined open-ended and boxed-response questions. (See Appendix I. Questionnaire #3, Southeastern University.) For the first time students indicated having had personal adjustment problems, but they gave them little importance.

Survey Run #4: Immediately after Survey Run #3, I presented an extremely detailed discussion of student adjustment in a new environment. Students were then given the last of four surveys. (See Appendix J. Questionnaire #4, Southeastern University.) The survey used boxed-response questions with a participant ranking for each response.

In this case students gave the highest response to having experienced personal problems after their arrival in the United States. Certain questions of a personal nature were placed under other headings besides "social" to provide cross-verification. Some of the students apparently grew tired of the survey after a few responses and simply checked boxes in a straight line. Other students seemed to misunderstand the printed directions and ranked problems they

said they had not encountered. The replies to Survey #3 and Survey #4 corresponded closely in only two cases.

Conclusion. The conclusion reached at this point was that the difficulties in constructing a survey, the operation of variables not under control of the study, and student reluctance to admit having experienced personal problems reinforced earlier limits reflected in the responses of "Beyond Cornell" participants and reduced the desirability of data collection through the survey method.

Final Methodology

In the final data collection design, I used personal interviews to assess participant awareness of the potential problems likely to be encountered in re-entry transition. These interviews were made possible by direct participation in the exit interviews of AID participants on their way home. Interviews were conducted over a period of two months and involved twenty-three participants. The participants were divided into two groups:

1. Those who had attended the Michigan State University Communication Workshop (MSUCW); and
2. Those who had not attended the workshop or received any other special counseling or preparation for re-entry. (The control group)

The selection of the MSUCW was motivated by several factors.

1. Conformance of MSUCW to operational constructs of the process model.
2. Effectiveness of MSUCW
3. More mature age and experience of AID participants compared to students included in the preliminary surveys.
4. Access to MSUCW and control participants through exit interviews in Washington, D. C.
5. Ability to insert the interview into the regular program structure without disrupting the basic flow or being identified as an external or unknown agent.
6. Previous survey of MSUCW participant without a control group.

The participants interviewed included ten MSUCW participants and thirteen control participants. These numbers were lower than the thirty to thirty-five which had been initially projected:

1. The number of participants sent to MSUCW by their PDO's declined.
2. The number of participants leaving the country without appearing for their exit interview at the scheduled time increased.
3. Termination of the exit interview was temporarily scheduled placing the next group of participant

interviews beyond the closing date scheduled for the research design.

I used all twenty-three interviews in the analysis in order to avoid selecting out possible important variables in the control group. The MSUCW participants attended different sessions of the Workshop, and the interviews reflected the overall effect of the program rather than the effectiveness of a single workshop and one set of staff members.

The exit interviews used by AID represented a condensation of the more extensive DETRI participant exit interview discussed in Chapter One. The questionnaire had been shortened to three pages. (See Appendix K. AID Exit Interview.) The shortened form, moreover, was only used as a guide for the interview. The interviewer did not follow the order of questions as they appeared on the form but allowed the participant to move as he saw fit to different topics and then shifted to those questions remaining unanswered which best fit the flow of the interview.

The actual entire interview was very informal and we made every effort to make the participants feel relaxed. The AID interviewer was very skilled in creating this mood; the same AID interviewer was present with me for all interview sessions. I was introduced by name and presented as a co-interviewer. Although my interest in participant experience and re-entry was mentioned, no indication was made

that my presence was an exception to the usual structure of the interview. The questions relevant to this study which were not usually included in the interview were interwoven with the others. (See Appendix L. Question Guide, Exit Interview.) I asked all participants the questions relevant to the study but also asked certain others on a random basis. The syntax used in questioning was carefully selected to avoid giving the impression of being an outside or external presence. Supplemental data was obtained from participant biographies.

Participants received scores in three areas:

1. Program Satisfaction: Participants were asked to rate the overall experience they had had, including all aspects of training and non-training interactions on a scale from one to seven with seven the highest score possible.
2. Change Agent Perception: Participants were graded on a scale of one to eight on the basis of the extent to which they described themselves as change agents when discussing the role they saw for themselves upon their return home. A higher score indicated a broader range of impact described by the participants for themselves.
3. Re-Entry Awareness: Participants were graded on a scale of one to ten on the extent to which

they indicated an awareness of potential problems during re-entry transition. A scoring grid gave points for each problem identified and an additional point:

- A. For elaboration of the problem
- B. Explanation of how the participant would solve the problem
- C. Shifts from interpersonal to mass interaction

The total number of points registered for any participant was cut off at ten.

Results: The scores obtained from the participant interviews and participant data for area of study, age, nationality, and workshop attendance were compared in tabular form. (See Table 2. MSUCW/Control Participant Data.) Participants were identified in the table by a code number based on the order in which they were interviewed. The distribution of each score was then plotted as a function of attendance (MSUCW=0) and non-attendance (control=X). (See Figure 12. Change Agent Score Distribution, MSUCW/Control; Figure 13. Awareness Score Distribution, MSUCW/Control; Figure 14. Satisfaction Score Distribution, MSUCW/Control.) The distribution of age as compared to MSUCW/Control was also plotted (See Figure 15. Age Distribution, MSUCW/Control.) Other data was not structurally predisposed to meaningful distribution analysis.⁴

Table 2

MSUCW/Control Participant Data

No.	Field of Study	Age	Country	Attendance at MSUCW	Change Agent	Awareness	Satisfaction
1.	Pop. Planning	34	Pakistan	X	---	3.0	6
2.	Pop. Planning	54	Pakistan	X	---	1.0	5
3.	Pop. Planning	36	Nepal	X	---	4.0	6
4.	Pop. Planning	38	Jordan	X	---	1.0	6
5.	Pop. Planning	44	Zambia	X	---	2.0	5
6.	Pop. Planning	40	Mauretania	X	---	1.0	5
7.	Legal Admin.	36	Korea	O	MSU	9.0	5
8.	Legal Admin.	40	Korea	O	MSU	8.0	5
9.	Legal Admin.	35	Korea	O	MSU	6.0	5
10.	Pop. Planning	48	Thailand	O	MSU	5.0	5
11.	Pop. Planning	42	Thailand	O	MSU	6.0	6
12.	Pop. Planning	49	Thailand	O	MSU	2.0	5

Table 2
(Continued)

No.	Field of Study	Age	Country	Attendance at MSUCW	Change Agent	Awareness	Satisfaction
13.	Pop. P./Admin.	48	Thailand	X ---	5	1.0	5
14.	Entomology	34	Thailand	0 MSU	6	9.0	5
15.	Entomology	35	Thailand	0 MSU	6	9.0	6
16.	Pop. Planning	30	Colombia	0 MSU	8	7.0	5
17.	Dev. Planning	45	Philippines	X ---	4	1.0	6
18.	Legal Admin.	55	Philippines	X ---	4	1.0	6
19.	Dev. Admin.	52	Philippines	X ---	4	1.0	4
20.	Agriculture	35	Tunisia	X ---	4	4.0	7
21.	Agriculture	32	Tunisia	X ---	8	2.0	6
22.	Ed. Psychol.	43	Thailand	0 MSU	8	10.0	6
23.	Health	32	Korea	X ---	1	2.0	5

FIGURE 12.

CHANGE AGENT SCORE DISTRIBUTION, MSUCW/CONTROL

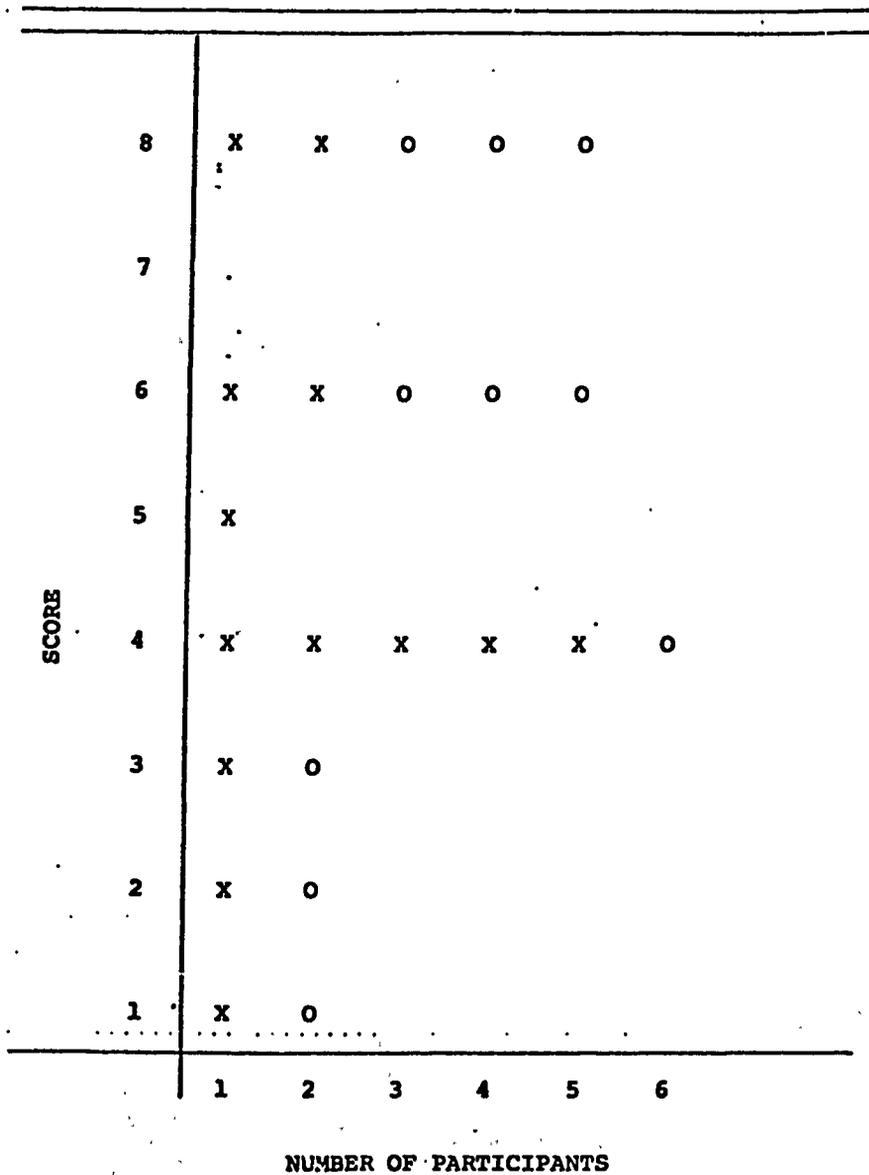
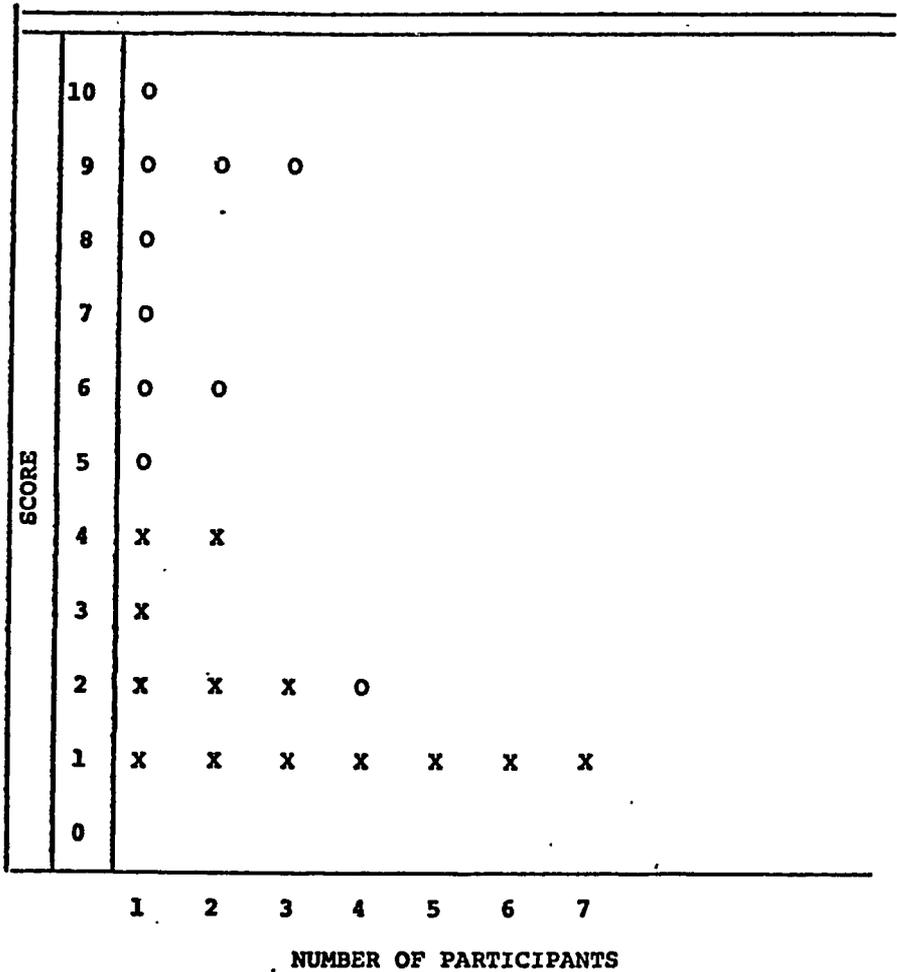


FIGURE 13.

AWARENESS SCORE DISTRIBUTION, ATTENDANCE/NON-ATTENDANCE



O = Attendance at MSU

X = Not having attended MSU

FIGURE 15.

AGE DISTRIBUTION, MSUCW/CONTROL

AGE	1	2	3	4
55	X			
54	X			
53				
52	X			
51				
50				
49	O			
48	O	X		
47				
46				
45	X			
44	X			
43	O			
42	O			
41				
40	X	O		
39				
38	X			
37				
36	X	O		
35	O	O		X
34	X	O		
33				
32	X			X
31				
30	O			
29				

NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS

TABLE 3.

MEAN AND MEDIAN SCORES AND AGE, MSUCW/CONTROL/TOTAL

MEAN SCORES

Code		Aware- ness	Change Agent	Satis- faction	Age
O	MSUCW	7.10	5.2	5.4	39.2
X	Control	1.04	4.53	5.54	41.92
	Total	4.13	4.83	5.48	40.73

MEDIAN SCORES

Code		Aware- ness	Change Agent	Satis- faction	Age
O	MSUCW	7.5	6.0	5	38
X	Control	1.0	4.0	6	40
	Total	3.0	4.0	5.5	40

Calculation of the mean and median scores for the three sets of scores and participant age were made for MSUCW participants, control participants, and all participants as a whole. (See Table 3. Mean and Median Scores and Age, MSUCW/Control/Total.) Analysis of the distribution tables and mean and median scores clearly demonstrated higher awareness scores for MSUCW participants than for the control group. The mean and median scores for change agent perception of MSUCW participants was higher than the control, satisfaction was slightly lower, and age was slightly younger. The correlation between awareness and change agent perception, the two scores most possibly related, however, was only .4899.

REFERENCES

1. The intent of the flow chart provided by AID was not designed to prove a comprehensive development of program operation, but rather to show flow from the perspective of the participants. To our knowledge, however, no comprehensive model exists. The worth of the chart is useful as a point of reference, the aspects of which are described more fully in the subsequent evaluation.
 - A. Home country preparation listed under Manpower Development Planning
 - B. AID program and policy development is blackboxed and excluded from the flow chart.
2. Citation of all these sources would unnecessarily complicate the format of this study. In addition to several interviews with William Elsen, Philip Sperling, and Kathy Skehan Kosar, an especially useful report contract by the Agency provided background on problems existent in the mid 1960's which remained problems in the mid 1970's. (Preston, 1966)

3. Students were given a less detailed lecture at the beginning of the semester which involved discussion of U-curve adjustment. This was intended to help adjustment and also predispose students to greater openness about their problems on the survey.
4. Distribution by professional fields, for example, was too restricted to be of any statistical significance. The use of such personal data as urban/rural identification or father's occupation was considered a violation of the Privacy Act by AID and was, therefore, removed from the research design.

CHAPTER 5**CONCLUSIONS****IMPLICATIONS OF THE DATA**

The structure of the research design warrants little elaboration on the data as reported in Chapter 4. The distribution charts visibly demonstrate higher awareness scores for MSUCW participants over control participants. The proposition that preparation for re-entry shock results in changed perceptions of potential anxiety-producing situations during re-entry is supported by the data. None of the other categories which were scored revealed significant variation between MSUCW and control participants.

In view of the complications encountered in the preliminary attempts to obtain data through the questionnaire method, the validity of the scoring system and the interview process as a context for scoring is a vital issue in the study.¹ The mean awareness score for MSUCW participants was 6.06 points higher on a scale of 10.0 than that of the control group; the median score was 6.5 points higher for the MSUCW participants than for control participants. Such a major differential in the scores would seem to counter any concern over marginal bias in the interview process.

The differential in the scores, moreover, was, if anything, compressed by the structure of the scoring grid.

Although the use of a cut-off point of 10.0 was somewhat arbitrary, only one participant was affected. The use of two interviewers as a validity check on scores restricted the influence of bias. The use of the cut-off level served as a guide in relating higher scores, but in that such can be considered a bias and to the degree that such a bias operated the result was to give lower scores to high performers. The use of 1.0 for all participants regardless of response, similarly, raised bottom scores.

The significance of the satisfaction score distribution is somewhat indeterminate. On the one hand, the closeness of mean and median scores for MSUCW and control participants would indicate the absence of any significance between having attended the Workshop or not, and participant satisfaction with the overall program. The cluster of scores around a mean score of 5.53 and median score of 6 on a scale of 7.0 would indicate a strong level of satisfaction among participants but might also reflect the unwillingness of participants to criticize the program at the point in the program when they were being interviewed. Comments solicited by the interviewers in support of the scores each participant gave, however, generally verified the reflectiveness of the scores initially given by the participants.

The mean and median change agent score for MSUCW participants were .37 and 2 points respectively above those

for the scores of the control participants. The distribution chart indicates that participants from both groups fell in the extremes and received scores of 1 or 8. The correlation of .4899 for change agent and awareness scores indicates a marginal relationship between the two but underlined the difference between the two scores as defined in the study.

The change agent data obtained significance in this study through relatively simple statistical procedures. A somewhat more complex design using multivariate analysis of the change agent perception of MSUCW participants before and after having attended program sessions revealed somewhat disparate conclusions (Wallace, 1969). In the Wallace study the perceived ability to introduce change was more radically affected by MSUCW attendance in terms of extreme ranges. The "over-optimistic" and "over-pessimistic" groups shifted more in line with the perception of the groups as a whole. This conforms with the expectation of this study and was marginally supported by the correlation between awareness and change agent scores. The distribution of scores in this study, however, did not conform with the shift reported by Wallace. The shift in the Wallace study was of questional statistical significance--an issue raised by the study itself--and the limited number of participants examined in this study may have failed to reflect the narrow shift noted. It is unfortunate that Wallace did not have a control group to test his findings more conclusively.

In an effort to determine whether or not the higher awareness score of MSUCW participants was the result of prior exposure to communication and an interest in learning more about communications, several questions were inserted in the evaluation form MSUCW participants were given at the end of the Workshop. (See Appendix M. Participant Evaluation of MSUCW.) With the exception of one participant, none of the participants had been exposed to the concepts introduced in the Workshop; the one participant with prior exposure reported that there was minimal duplication and that he had profited considerably from the Workshop. The majority of the participants indicated that they had little information about the nature of the Workshop before their arrival and that they had come largely because of recommendations by staff members of AID or of their training institution.

Certain specific comments concerning the background of participants included in the interview sample should be discussed further:

1. The Size of the Study: As explained in Chapter 4, the original design for the interviews had included a larger number of participants. Although the smaller number of interviews restricted the application of statistical analysis to the data, the marked variation in the awareness score results counterbalanced the

need for further verification of program effectiveness.

2. Geographic Area: The participants interviewed in this study were not reflective of balanced geographic backgrounds. With the exception of six participants, all those interviewed came from Asia. The mean and median awareness scores for non-Asian MSUCW participants were 4 and 3 respectively compared to mean and median scores for all participants of 4.13 and 3.0 respectively and for MSUCW participants of 7.1 and 7.5 respectively. The limited number of interviews, however, restricted the validity of generalizations based on these comparisons.
3. Linguistic Ability: The interview did not include scoring for language facility. Participant background files did not have sufficiently comparable scores to indicate proficiency in English before their arrival in the United States, but several participants had been placed in English language training after they arrived. Differential language ability clearly was a potential variable in program satisfaction and might have influenced responses during the interview.

Most were fairly proficient in oral skills, and the one participant with the most restricted oral proficiency, No. 15, received an awareness score of 9.0 and a change agent score of 6.0.

4. Personality Factors: No index of personality variables was included in the interview. It is conceivable that participants with more aggressive personalities could score higher than other participants with equal or higher awareness levels. The informal nature of the interview relaxed most participants, however, and most participants volunteered comments and opinions in addition to direct responses to interview questions. The only noticeable exception was No. 12 who was very shy. He received an awareness score of 1.0 even though he had attended MSUCW. His score possibly reflected marginal participation in MSUCW seminars resulting from his shyness or inability to communicate because of his shyness in the interview.
5. Sex and Separation from Spouse: All but one of the participants were male. All but two of the males had left their wives at home.

The exceptions were No. 12, which might explain his lower anticipation of problems upon his return home, and No. 20, who was married to No. 21. She had an awareness score of 8 compared to her husband who scored 4. Her score reflected her concern with re-establishing her home and social contacts upon her return; much of her concern was based on her role as a female in a Tunisian socio-cultural system..

6. Professional Field: The majority of the participants interviewed came from technical backgrounds in science and health. Exceptions were four participants who had backgrounds in legal administration. Their scores followed the basic pattern of attendance and non-attendance. The overall significance would be more transferable if participant backgrounds had been more diverse professionally.

SUGGESTED ADDITIONAL RESEARCH

The model developed in this study could be examined only in terms of participant experience in this country and to the extent that information was available on program planning before and after the program unit in this country. Utilization of the model for analysis of follow-up programs, restricted by the reorganization of this phase by

AID, would be supplemental conceptual and operational test of the utility of the model and the concept of process.

The logistics of obtaining access to interaction between returning participants and their home socio-cultural systems are very complicated and costly. The influence of "observational presence" in such an approach could present a serious bias in the observations so obtained.

Clearly, however, additional research on the effects of re-entry projection training is necessary. The most likely point for gathering such information would be through follow-up programs. The context might be an in-home country communication seminar similar to MSUCW specifically focused on the diffusion of innovation and value adjustment. The resources for such a project on a geographic basis sufficiently broad to be meaningful simply do not exist in private hands. It would be hoped, therefore, that a more integrated research program be incorporated in the AID program under the coordination of the Office of International Training; this office is a crucial link in AID program planning but suffers from an inadequately integrated approach to evaluation. The bureaucratic and budgetary considerations of such a proposal limit institution of such an overview in the immediate future.

Both entry orientation and exit interviews represent valuable research resources which along with

supplemental mid-training programs are underutilized. A major step necessitating only minor program adjustment would be to expand the program offered by MSUCW and division of the program into an initial seminar on the basic principles of communication offered early in the program unit--some point before the participants have completed half of the total program--and a second seminar near the completion of the program unit which would offer expanded specialized training in re-entry and the diffusion of innovation. The comparison over time offered by this modification would provide a high useful research opportunity to AID, and would result in improved participant experience during interaction associated with both program events and re-entry.

A general view of areas where research would be suggested includes:

1. Problem Inventory. The Asunsion-Lande inventory gives a general overview of re-entry problems. The inventory would profit, however, from a readjustment of categories and possibly an upgrading of the individual psychological dimension of participant adjustment.
2. Relationship Between Entry and Re-Entry. (Kelman, 1962) suggests relevance between problems encountered during the two peaks of anxiety experienced by a participant.

This was also a point stressed in this study and additional research would seem of high priority.

3. Personality. The role of personality in cross-cultural adjustment has been given only minimal attention. Extensions of what is known about personality in general adjustment situations would suggest that personality could prove the essential trans-cultural determinant in adjustment to stress.
4. Age, Professional Field, Geographic Region. The influence of such factors would be prime considerations in participant selection and re-entry training based on expanded programs supplementing the existing MSUCW program.
5. Reference Group. The importance of social interaction and reference groups in adjustment would seem an obvious area for additional research. Much of the focus in existing literature approaches reference groups in terms of satisfaction. Using (Smith, 1969) as a point of reference considerable expansion of this dimension could be facilitated. A particularly interesting issue is the extent to which reference groups facilitate integration or serve an isolating or insulating function which

restricts adjustment.

An area of especially relevant research is offered by the study of adjustment mechanism in cross-cultural situations. The identification of such adjustment mechanism would also be useful as a means of reflecting the state of adjustment in process. An interesting example is the use of dreams as reflective of and as an adaption to identify crisis and anxiety. (Anderson, 1971) offered an account in which she logged the dreams of fifteen American scholars during a summer of research in India. The dreams reported by the group passed through three stages:

1. Dreams of family, friends, colleagues, and past experiences rooted in the home culture and not found in the new experience.
2. Dreams in which the distance between friends, family, and colleagues is stressed. The view of self and new contacts doing things not culturally consistent reflects peak of identity crisis.
3. Separation of the identity of new and old. Both are now mingled in dreams, but such occurs in ways which do not seem inconsistent.

An interesting personal encounter with an adjustment mechanism might be of value for further research. During an exchange conference of American and Yugoslavia

college professors on comparative trends in education seating patterns were observed at meals on both short and long bus trips. Recurrent patterns correlated on the basis of age, professional background, and personal background (Moeller, 1970). These patterns seemed to reflect the attempt of participant to student interaction patterns in a new environment--and to restructure the environment--on the basis of the most fundamentally familiar level of communality.² This example would demonstrate the bid for a sub-group which would isolate participants rather than integrate them into the socio-cultural system. In the case of a short-term, conference-type cross-cultural experience, such pattern might provide the most effective means of adjustment and communication.

Similar areas for adjustment study might include speech variations on "normal" patterns and syntax or such linguistic errors as vowel anticipation and substitution. An analysis of humor as a release mechanism would seem valuable. Lapses in memory or intensified recall would reflect adjustment as well as the state of participant experience. Shifts in such personal habits as dress or diet, membership in new social organizations, subscription to new journals and periodicals, and the furnishing of residence represent very observable adjustment mechanisms.

It should be pointed out that although the United States plays a major role in cultural exchanges in the international system, other nations and various international agencies are also engaged in similar activities. The feasibility of cooperation with the Soviet Union in sharing experiences and information relevant to cultural exchange may well be questioned. Programs by Japan, West Germany, and other European countries and such organizations as the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development and the specialized agencies of the United Nations would seem sources of useful information.

THE CONCEPT OF PROCESS: PROFESSIONAL AND
ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF SYSTEM DYNAMICS

In the preface of this study reference was made to the existence of certain preconceptions and values which stimulated the initiation of and provided the basis from which this study derives its meaning. Certain of these values and preconceptions have been directly stated in the presentation of the model developed in the study. Further elaboration of these "motivating imperatives" provides not only the context for the conclusion of the study but also a perspective for subsequent research and program planning.

In a short discussion of ethics and international relations Ernest Lefever writes:

For centuries theologians have distinguished between just and unjust wars, jurists have pronounced rules for international conduct, and moralists have worried whether their own nation's course in foreign affairs was right or wrong. Yet the problem of relationship between morality and international politics remains perennially unsettled (1971, p. 21).

Faced by an international situation, the complexity of which was rapidly increasing, decision makers during the second half of the twentieth century have pressed the policy sciences for objective sets of predictive theory to guide the formulation of policy and the selection of appropriate associated action. The pressure, first encountered with the development of strategy during the Second World War, received renewed interest during the early years of the cold war. Following the model of psychology and sociology the search for prediction in international relations assumed the major premises of behavioralism. Objective analysis without the "limits of moral judgments" became the new norm.

The debacles of amoral politics faced both by the American public and the academic community seriously eroded the foundations of behavioralism and by the 1970's had brought the post-behavioral period in which "science" again became responsible for its creations. Translated into the terms of the model developed in this study, individuals participating in the interaction situation became responsible for the effect of their action upon

other participants or any associated socio-cultural units in interaction situations. This responsibility follows, then, from the personal level to the level of the socio-cultural system and ultimately to the international configuration of interactions: the distinction between these levels is not always clear.

The ethical obligation or responsibility for interaction on the basis of the international configuration implies that:

1. The international configuration is in a state of flux;
2. The international configuration is composed of national socio-cultural systems, not always corresponding to boundaries of a state;
3. The international configuration is greater than the sum of its parts;
4. Survival of the international configuration is facilitated by flexibility when faced by change;
5. Survival of the socio-cultural systems which participate in international configuration is based on flexibility to change;
6. Change by evolutionary rather than revolutionary stages is most conducive to minimization of stress;

7. System change is a release mechanism designed to reduce tension;
8. The ability of a system to accept change depends on various factors including:
 - A. Socio-cultural;
 - B. Associated institutions;
 - C. Ability of system participants to:
 - (1) Adjust to change;
 - (2) Introduce change.

It is within this context that the program planner holds both an ethical and professional trust. Implied is:

1. Professional responsibility for the development of an effective program, i.e., the program provides the kind of training it is intended to provide in the best way possible.
2. Ethical responsibility for the effect of the program provided on:
 - A. The participant;
 - B. The socio-cultural system;
 - C. The international configuration.

Being charged with responsibility for one's actions is distinct from the maintenance of some set of moral proscriptions. This is a distinction which many supporters of cultural exchange fail to make when they call for the use of cultural programs to promote some cause or create a new basis for "moral climate" in international relations

(UNESCO, 1971: p. 13). The very relativistic connotations of "morality" led to its exclusion as a concept from this discussion. The meaningfulness of moral system is not denigrated by this exclusion but they simply are not relevant to the integrating effort defined for this study and the model herein developed.

Cultural exchange is not advanced in this study as a mechanism for the creation of a new international order or the promotion of world peace. It is commonly assumed that international transfer situations reinforce international understanding and consequently world peace. Cultural exchange may indeed result in the furtherance of such goals, but it need not do such. The interpersonal interaction involved in transfer situations does not require complete understanding of the mutual systems of the interacting participants; rather it is often based on incomplete information. Admittedly a participant need not have complete information in order to adjust his attitudes, but the assumption that a participant who is satisfied with training in such a field as population control which he received in the United States will also either comprehend or admire the "American Way" is erroneous. Even when an individual does come to understand another system, there is no reason to assume that he will like that system any more than he did before with less information about the system, and, in

fact, he may find the system less pleasing upon the receipt of new information. Similarly, it must be added that history is filled with wars between nations that understood one another or were even members of the same socio-cultural "family," just as brothers have been known to serve opposing sides in a civil war.

Implicit in the support many individuals offer cultural exchanges is the leveling of cultural differences and cultural homogenization eventually leading to a unified "world culture." By definition such a leveling is not possible. Even if it were it would not be consistent with the insistence of the process approach that training should include the promotion of self-awareness rooted in the home socio-cultural system. Man is perceived within the context of this study as in need of roots.

Related to the search for homogeneity is the more subtle issue of cultural imperialism. Few individuals today would openly subscribe to a "civilisateur" function for cultural exchange. As a result of training abroad, however, the influence of the training system may erode the socio-cultural system of the recipient system. One cannot be certain, for example, of the extent to which the simple use of English in international media relevant to scientific and technical discussions affects the socio-cultural system of developing nation-states (Hopper, 1971: p. 224), (Carnoy, 1974).

The very transfer of technology from one socio-cultural system to another results in modification of the system that receives the technical innovation. Technology cannot be disassociated from its socio-cultural base. This is not to say that as a result of the introduction of technology the recipient socio-cultural system will come to be a replication of the source system. What is implied is that new technology opens new choices to a system which may be resolved in a way unique to each system but which in-itself represents system change.

Clearly the chances are great that the socio-cultural elements of a system will be eroded if the system cannot or does not evolve indigenous ways to support newly-introduced technology. Reliance upon external socio-cultural solutions to technology is often appealing, especially when those possessing new technical skills have received their training abroad. One must keep in mind, however, that no socio-cultural system is static and that all systems are undergoing change; the key is the extent to which one allows an external socio-cultural system to influence one's own system and the extent to which such influence results in system instability.

Rosenau discusses this problem in levels of linkage, i.e., "any recurrent sequence of behavior that originates in one system and is reacted to in another." (1969, p. 45).

Rosenau speaks of three basic levels of linkage; when applied to cultural exchange, these categories reflect:

1. Penetration: shift in loyalty or identification of participant which continues after the return to his home society;
2. Reactive: system reacts to participant;
3. Emulative: participant influences other to follow different patterns and accept different values which he in turn has done.

When considered within the context of linkage, the dangers of indirect cultural imperialism become more apparent and the responsibility of program planners for participant experience and associated consequences on the socio-cultural system of the participant becomes more extended.⁴

The responsibility program planners assume when they select a participant or accept a participant for inclusion in a cultural exchange program includes the re-integration of the participant in the home socio-cultural system upon the completion of training. It has already been suggested that as a result of anxiety encountered in re-entry a participant may not achieve an effective level of re-integration and may either enter an anomic state--clearly indicating program failure and the loss of a vital resource for the socio-cultural system--or seek membership in a sub-group. This may be socially functional if membership

in the sub-group is not at the cost of withdrawal from the mainstream socio-cultural system. When such is the cost, the participant assumes new sets of loyalties which may include activities destructive to the socio-cultural system.⁵

Membership in a sub-group which does not require exclusion from the mainstream socio-cultural system may not only facilitate adjustment but may also provide society with such a functional group it previously lacked as cultural innovators (Said, 1971). There is always the danger that a subculture will assume elitist identification and become truncated from its socio-cultural roots. This becomes a particular concern with the exclusive sub-group which can:

1. Transfer its loyalty;
2. See the international arena as a new point of loyalty or threat;
3. See other groups with the socio-cultural system as allies or enemies;
4. Be courted by other groups;
5. Be infiltrated or subverted by other groups;
6. Be eliminated.

The disruptive potential of such development underlines the importance of participant re-entry as an effective member of the socio-cultural system rather than entrance into an exclusive sub-group.

As the international political configuration has moved from bi-polar to a multi-polar system, the importance

of such issues as cultural erosion, system linkage, and potential subversion from truncated subgroups has become a more conscious concern of policy makers in developing countries. The increased number of actors, international transactions, and flows of information offer the developing state increased options, flexibility, and power (Singer, 1972: See Section I and Chapter 4). The policy maker in these states, however, faced a very complex decision-making matrix, confrontation with which can prove inhibiting to even the most experienced of policy makers.

The fragmentation of the political configuration into multiple spheres has given new emphasis, moreover, to nationalism, and one of the primary responses of the developing states to the flexibility of the multi-polar political configuration has been to safeguard their cultural integrity as well as their political survival. The great powers have sought to adjust to the new configuration by shedding imperialistic images in all areas of foreign relations.

The model presented in this study is intended to serve the interests of both the host and home socio-cultural systems. The model can be viewed as a means of compensating for the dangers of cultural erosion, system linkage, and subgroup subversion. Similarly, it helps host countries avoid the problems of backlash from frustrated participants and disrupted socio-cultural systems they have sought to aid.

Utilization of the model does not guarantee elimination of these threats, but should enable their reduction.

Under the definition of cultural exchange provided in Chapter 1, the utilization of the model presented in this study is restricted to organized, intentional, and institutionally supported exchanges. The selection of training programs operated by AID for micro and macro application of the model was intended to illustrate the utility of the model. Although such training was provided largely within the framework of university facilities, the model should not be restricted in application to purely academic training. The model is usually relevant to programs--the content of which may be academic or non-academic--operated by military establishments, international organizations or agencies, and national and multi-national corporations. In each case, the training provided by these groups to foreign nationals can lead to cultural erosion, system linkage or subgroup subversion. The danger of such threats from members of the security and economic sectors of a social system that have been trained abroad may well exceed the threat posed by members of the bureaucracy or academic community who have received such training. The exclusion of such institutions from the discussion in this study was in part the result of the need for focus but was also the result of the limited access such institutions provided for analysis of their training programs. The relevance of the model

to training provided by these groups to foreign nationals should not be minimized.

In summation, the concepts of process and feedback used in this study suggest several policy recommendations for program planning:

1. Cultural exchange, viewed in terms of process interactions, should be carefully planned and integrated.
 - A. Included under the program plan should be all phases of participant experience, beginning with participant selection and ending with participant re-entry into the home socio-cultural system.
 - B. Program development and implementation should be a joint responsibility of the host and home institutional sponsors.
 - C. Orientation, interim guidance, and re-entry orientation are essential aspects of participant experience and should be fully supported in program planning.
 - D. Verification of participant experience and performance as well as program evaluation should receive special concern in program planning.
2. The specialized training offered a participant

should be supplemented with appropriate social and professional interactions.

A. Should include counterpart exposure.

B. Should be based on multinational rather than bilateral contacts.

3. Participant training abroad is best restricted to:

A. Specialized programs not available at home rather than general educational programs.

B. Those who have been well exposed to the cultural elements of their own socio-cultural system.

4. Even when sent to a socio-cultural system similar to the home socio-cultural system, participants face adjustment problems. Cultural similarity should not take precedence over program quality.

5. The goal of participant experience is not just the receipt of a skill or mastery of information but includes the ability of the participant to use such upon re-entry in a way beneficial to the home socio-cultural system. This goal should be kept firmly in mind in all decision-making relevant to participant experience.

The key to these policy recommendations is the importance of the participant and the experience he has as a result of his training abroad. In its most extended form the ideal result of participant experience would be the creation of a person somewhat similar to Tewksbury's description of a "Mature International Person," i.e., someone who although deeply active and rooted in his own socio-cultural system can move to and function effectively in another socio-cultural system (Marsh, 1974: p. 9). Stephen Bochner speaks of a "Mediating Man" who is multi-cultural rather than mono-cultural (Bochner, 1973). That participants in cultural exchange programs would be so transformed is overly idealistic. What would seem to be a more realistic implication, however, would be that re-entry training associated with participant experience should provide him with ability to face socio-cultural deviance in specific terms relevant to his own system and in general terms relevant to any system which he might participate as an interacting agent.

To paraphrase Heraclitus:

No man can step into the same river twice.

As a result of re-entry training:

No man should expect to step into the same river twice, and stepping into rivers should be easier.

REFERENCES

1. It is ironic that as a study based on an interest in cross-cultural communication this study should be "confined" by the western bias of data collection and quantification. Throughout the study the problem of obtaining information from participants whose cultures were not predisposed to revealing personal information was a constant obstacle. The social significance of statistical information may seem distant to the socio-cultural perspective of participant adjustment and the diffusion of innovation. Some cultures may regard the introduction of quantification into this study as a focus for criticism. Removal of the "bias" would, however, not be consistent with the integrating function defined by the study. The setting in which the participants were observed was as neutral as possible and quantification was not an end in itself. Observation in the context of the participants own socio-cultural system would have required an understanding of the socio-cultural system of each participant and controls for intervening variables well beyond the resources of this study.
2. The interaction situation represented a new environment for all participants. Although the cultural situation was more familiar to the Yugoslav participants, the setting was removed from their own home and professional sites and included trips to areas in which most of the Yugoslav participants had never traveled before.
3. Cultural exchange may be regarded as a means of increasing communication within the international configuration. This differs from the perspective of increased "understanding" in the sense that it does not imply increased empathy or comprehension but simply more accuracy in the transmission and reception of messages. In that this represents increased system effectiveness such an interpretation is consistent with this study if and when cultural exchange does promote such. Again, such need not result.
4. A detailed application of linkage politics to relations between the United States and Brazil resulting from the training of Brazilian military personnel in the United States is provided in (Black, 1976).
5. Such activity may also be undertaken without the support of a sub-group. When such occurs it usually reflects the high level of anxiety and disturbed

psychic state of a returned participant. The flight of such a non-integrated individual from his home system may release tension in the socio-cultural system but it represents:

- (1) personal dislocation for the participant,
- (2) loss of a potential resource for the system,
- (3) and potential disruption for other socio-cultural systems and/or the international configuration at large.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A. TABLE 4. INVENTORY OF RE-ENTRY
TRANSITION TRAINING PROGRAM

Appendix A

Table 4 .Inventory of Re-Entry Transition Training Programs

	NSU/AID Communications Seminar	Mohok Consultations for Intern. Students	University of Minn. Seminar on Economic Development & Social Change	Cincinnati Rotary Club's Going Home Sem.	Beyond Cornell Program	Agricultural Development Council's Bangkok Conference on Re-Entry	SIX-Buffalo - International Affairs Board Conferences	SIU/Nohonk Follow-Up Pilot Project Workshops on Re-Entry	East-West Center's 'Can You Go Home Again?' Program	IIE Summer Crossroads - Colorado	MIT Seminar on Foreign Students & Participation in Development	University of Texas Janus Experiment	Iowa State University's Extended Civic Participation in Development	SUC-Plattsburgh Sunday Afternoon Seminar	Catholic University Pre-Departure Seminar	SUNY-Buffalo Language Institute Career Guidance Seminar for Foreign Students	Beyond Stanford Program
HISTORY																	
Year Organized	1959	1963	1966	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1972	1973	1973	1973	1973	1973	1973	1973	1973
Number of Years Conducted	15	10	1	6	5	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	2	1
FUNDING																	
Outside	AID	Mohonk Trust	AID IIE	Rotary	BCA NFSA	A/C/D	---	BCA IIE	AID	BCA IIE	---	IIE	AID NAFSA	---	---	---	---
Institutional	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	Yes	---	---	Yes	---	---	---	---	Yes	---
PERSONS INVOLVED																	
Foreign Students per Program	20-50	30	40	35	30	35	35	25	12-30	50	15	75	25	12	4	---	15
American Students	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	No
Others	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS																	
Volunteer	Yes	No	E R	Yes	E R	E R	Yes	Yes	E R	Yes	No	E R	E R	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Committee	No	Yes	H	No	H	H	No	No	H	No	No	H	H	No	No	No	No
Application	No	Yes	O	No	O	O	No	No	O	No	Yes	O	O	No	No	No	No

Appendix A . Table 4 (Continued)

PRELIMINARY PROCEDURES Planning Committee	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
Participant Participa- tion	NSU/AID Communications Seminar	Yohonk Consultations for Intern. Students	University of Minn. Seminar on Economic Development & Social Change	Cincinnati Rotary Club's Going Home Sem.	Beyond Cornell Program	Agricultural Development Council's Bangkok Conference on Re-Entry	SUC-Buffalo - International Affairs Board Conferences	SUU/Yohonk Follow-Up Pilot Project Workshops on Re-Entry	East-West Center's "Can You Go Home Again" Program	TIE Summer Crossroads - Colorado	MIT Seminar on Foreign Students & Participation in Development	University of Texas Janus Experiment	Iowa State University's Extended Civic Participation in Development	SUC-Plattsburgh Sunday Afternoon Seminar	Catholic University Pre-Departure Seminar	SUNY-Buffalo Language Institute Career Guidance Seminar for Foreign Students	Beyond Stanford Program
RECREATIONAL ACTIVITIES																	
Outdoor Rec.	No	No	No	No	---	---	---	Yes	---	Yes	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Tours	Yes	No	Yes	No	---	---	---	No	---	Yes	---	---	Yes	---	---	---	---
Intl. Entertainment	Yes	Yes	No	No	---	---	---	No	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Special Hospitality	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	---	---	---	No	---	Yes	---	Yes	Yes	---	---	---	---
ORGANIZATION OF DISCUSSION GROUPS																	
Major Field of Study	---	Yes	---	No	---	---	---	Yes	---	Yes	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Major Geographic Reg.	---	---	---	No	---	---	---	Yes	Yes	Yes	---	---	---	---	---	---	---

Appendix A. Table 4 (Continued)

	NSU/AID Communications Seminar	Nohok Consultations for Intern. Students	Univ. of Minn. Seminar on Economic Development & Social Change	Cincinnati Rotary Club's Going Home Sem.	Beyond Cornell Program	Agricultural Development Council's Bangkok Conference on Re-Entry	SUC-Buffalo - International Affairs Board Conferences	SIU/Nohok Follow-Up Pilot Project Workshops on Re-Entry	East-West Center's 'Can You Go Home Again' Program	IIE Summer Crossroads - Colorado	MIT Seminar on Foreign Students & Participation in Development	University of Texas Janus Experiment	Iowa State University's Extended Civic Participation Program	SUC-Plattsburgh Sunday Afternoon Seminar	Catholic University Pre-Departure Seminar	SUNY-Buffalo Language Institute Career Guidance Seminar for Foreign Students	Beyond Stanford Program
WORKSHOP PROCEDURE																	
Number of Days	5	4	7	2	?	?	4	4	2	7	Once a Week	3.5	Special Days	?	1	1	Once a Week
Formal Lectures	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	---	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	---	Yes	---	Yes
Symposium/Panel	No	No	No	No	Yes	---	---	Yes	---	No	---	---	---	---	---	---	---
Discussion Groups	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	---	---
Simulations/Case Study Role Playing	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	---	---	Yes	Yes	---	Yes	Yes	Yes	---	---	---	---
Written Evaluations	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	---	Yes	Yes	---	---	Yes	Yes	---	---	---	---
Printed Report	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	---	Yes	Yes	---	---	---	---
Follow-Up (Planned)	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	---	---	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	---	---	---	---

SOURCE: Adapted from Sehnert, Frank H. An Inventory of Transition Programs, A Pre-Conference Paper, First National Conference on Transition Programming, October 15-17, 1974, Racine Wisconsin.

APPENDIX B. SAMPLE SUMMARY NOTES, MICHIGAN STATE
UNIVERSITY COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP

Appendix B
Sample Summary Notes, MSUCW

MSU/AID Communication Workshop / 530 - Room 230

NOTES for Thursday, August 26, 1976

1. **Facilitation Exercise:** Participants were grouped so as to have a presenter, a consultant and an observer. Each presenter identified a communication problem (or potential problem) that he/she will have upon returning home. The consultant aided the presenter by asking questions and attempting to help the presenter focus on the central factors of the problem. The third participant then reported what he/she observed in terms of dyad interaction.

Each group of three participants then picked one problem that was discussed and developed a case study for presentation before the whole group.

Observations About Solving Case Study Problems

- For some problems, no immediate solution (set long term goals)
- Break the problem into smaller parts
- Identify the main elements of the problem
- Find out what causes the problem
- With reference to the problem, establish where there are points of agreement vs. points of disagreement.
- Before attempting change, make sure that others involved also see a problem
- Change (supplementary vs. total)

2. Change agent simulation with paper cutting devices as innovations. Failure in diffusion of an innovation affects future attempts to change problems. Not all change, not all innovations are desirable. People with limited resources often cannot afford to adopt an innovation, especially if the innovation is not well tested.

Characteristics of Innovations that Influence Adoption

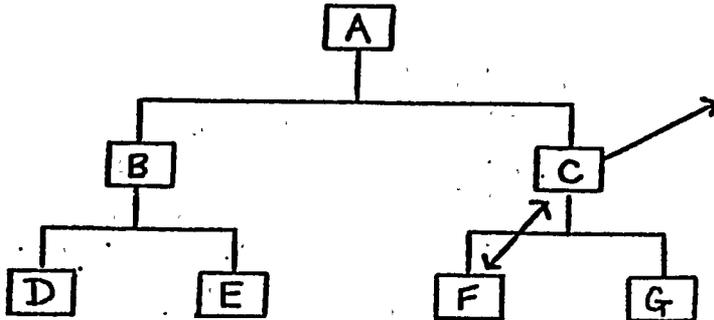
- Comparative advantage---the new innovation must have great advantage over present conditions.
- Complexity-----the more complex the innovation, the slower the rate of adoption. Advanced, complex innovations are often inappropriate.
- Compatibility-----the innovation should be culturally and physically compatible.
- Observability-----innovations and changes with results that can be seen are more likely to be adopted.
- Triability-----if the innovation can be adopted slowly, or in part (tried, tested, compared) then the innovation has a greater chance of being adopted.

3. In proposing change, it becomes important to consider:
 - Traditional practices
 - Values, Norms, Mores
 - Beliefs
 - Religion
 - Taboos

APPENDIX C. SAMPLE STAFF CASE STUDIES

Appendix C
Sample Staff Case Study

Group Structure
Problem Number 2



Assume that before coming to the U.S.A., you were in position C. You expect to return to the same position. While you have been away, the man in position F has been doing your work.

1. What communication relationships are likely to have developed while you have been away?
2. What factors might you consider in analyzing the pattern of communication relationships which will exist when you return?
3. What factors or criteria should you have to govern your own behavior in returning to this position?

Appendix C
Sample Staff Case Study

MISS BLANK

Miss Blank works for the Ministry of Agriculture in her country. Her responsibility is to organize and promote clubs for rural area girls, as a means of community development.

Her co-worker, Mr. X, has successfully organized clubs for boys throughout the country. Mr. X and Miss Blank work under the supervision of the Director of Agricultural Extension who happens to be Miss Blank's brother. Miss Blank recently spent six months in the U.S. studying the organization of girls' clubs there.

Upon her return to her home country, Miss Blank began plans to organize her girls' clubs. Against the advice of Mr. X, she insisted upon organizing her clubs exactly after the pattern which she learned in the U.S. Miss Blank went directly to the girls, organizing her clubs through the schools, instead of seeking the participation of parents as Mr. X had done. As a result, Mr. X refused to have anything to do with Miss Blank's program.

Miss Blank had her meetings opened with singing by the girls as girls' clubs did in the U.S. Also, she advised the girls at the first meeting that they should get their families to use more modern methods of homemaking and that they should be leaders in introducing modern methods of home and family management.

Responses to the first meetings of the girls' clubs varied. The girls were enthusiastic. The fathers, however, objected to the clubs because they thought their daughters were becoming too hard to manage. The religious leaders of the village stated that they considered singing at the club meetings to be irreligious. The clubs' membership also included girls from families representing several social and political divisions in the community resulting in some suspicions and rumors about the clubs' nature.

The opposition soon became sufficient to force the girls' clubs to stop their meetings.

Questions:

1. What went wrong?
2. What might Miss Blank have done differently to improve her chances of success?
3. Were her efforts a total failure?

APPENDIX D. SAMPLE PARTICIPANT CASE STUDIES

Appendix
Sample Participant Case Study

PARTICIPANT EVOLVED CASE STUDY
DIFFUSION OF INNOVATION
MSU WORKSHOP

An engineer in a rural area of my country is in charge of road maintenance in an isolated valley served by one major road and trunk roads. Each year there are floods which wash out the road, and the engineer must rebuild the central section of the road. The engineer reads in a professional journal about a new technique which would use culverts to permit the water to drain away. This technique has never been used in this section of the country.

The engineer must obtain approval for any changes from his section head. This man is not an engineer but has worked with the section office for many years. He is rumored to have influential friends in the central administration. Everyone knows that he is very stubborn and proud of his authority. He is also anxious over the outcome of the application for promotion he has submitted.

The engineer sincerely believes that the new technique is a workable idea and would save money in the long-run. He has failed in the past to obtain permission from his boss the change minor items. How can he obtain the support of his boss ?

APPENDIX E. STAFF BIBLIOGRAPHIES, MICHIGAN STATE

UNIVERSITY COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP

Appendix E

MSU/AID COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP # 530

AUGUST 22 - 27, 1976

STAFF BIOGRAPHIES

CATHERINE AXINN is assistant to the director at the MSU/AID Communication Workshop. She holds a B.A. degree in Multidisciplinary Social Sciences from Michigan State University. She is currently studying for a masters degree in business administration at Michigan State. Catho has done research in the area of social services delivery systems in England and Scotland and in the area of mental health services in England and the United States. Prior to joining the communication workshop four years ago Catho worked as a research assistant. She also had an opportunity to live for a year in Algeria.

CASSANDRA BOOK is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. She received her B.A. from Michigan State, M.A. from Northwestern, and Ph.D. from Purdue, all in Communication Education. She is the co-author of four books including Speech Communication: An Interpersonal Approach for Teachers, Person-to-Person: An Introduction to Speech Communication, Growing Together: Classroom Communication, and Instruction in and About Small Group Discussion. She is a member of the Speech Communication Association, International Communication Association, Central States Speech Association, and Michigan Speech Association. She was the recipient of the 1976 CSSA Outstanding Young Teacher Award.

GARY HEALD received a Ph.D. in Communication at Michigan State University. From 1970 to 1972 he was a Peace Corps Volunteer, working with a communication division of the Ministry of Agriculture in Colombia, South America. Gary is an Assistant Professor of Mass Communication at Florida State University. He is primarily interested in mass communication and organizational communication, with emphasis on research in these areas.

MARY L. HINES is a doctoral student in the Department of Communication at Michigan State University. Her areas of academic interest are: interpersonal communication, mass communication and research methodologies. She received her M.A. from the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee in Communication, and her B.A. from the University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee in Mass Communication-Journalism.

ROBERT MORRIS, director of the Communication Workshops for the past two years, received his B.S. and M.S. in agriculture from the University of California at Davis. He taught for two years at the Agricultural University at Lyallpur, Pakistan. The next seven years he was an administrator and consultant to various volunteer and training organizations in Asia, Latin America and Europe. Bob came to the workshop program from two years as a Ford Fellow at the International Center for Tropical Agriculture (CIAT) located in Cali, Colombia where he worked in the training and communication section evaluating previous training programs and developing new ones. He has published one book, Overseas Volunteer Programs: Their Evolution and the Role of Government in Their Support, and contributed a chapter on domestic volunteer programs in Latin America to another. He is also presently guest editor of the Journal Rural Africana and completing a doctoral program in continuing education and communication.

 Appendix E (Continued)

TULSI SARAL is a registered Psychologist and Assistant Dean of the College of Human Learning and Development at Governors State University, Park Forest South, Illinois. He received his M.A. in Communication from the University of Pennsylvania and his Ph.D. in Communication from the University of Illinois. He has a strong background in Intercultural communication research and training and has carried out cross-cultural studies in social perception, interpersonal relations and changing mores. He has published articles on Facial Expressions, Role Conflicts and Intercultural Communication Expectations. At Governors State University he teaches courses in basic human relations, human values, interpersonal and intercultural communication and therapeutic communication.

FEMI SUNDAY SONAIKE is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Communication, Michigan State University. Femi had his earlier education in his country, Nigeria. He was a newspaper reporter and later, state editor, for many years on the Daily Times, one of Africa's largest group of newspapers. He is interested in the areas of mass and interpersonal communication.

JAMES LEO WALSH is Associate Professor of Sociology and Anthropology at Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio. Jim received his undergraduate education at Carroll College in Helena, Montana. His graduate work was centered in Pittsburgh, Pa. where he received a Ph.D. in 1966. He has spent most of his professional career in the study of social organizations. He has published several articles dealing with organizational and professional variables affecting the delivery of health care by physicians and public health nurses. He has also conducted international research testing theories of police behavior.

APPENDIX F. CORNELL SURVEY

**Appendix P
Cornell Participant Survey**

Institution: _____

Dear Respondent:

Date: _____

All the information you provide will be kept confidential for research purposes only. You need not give your name, but if you would be willing to reply to an additional questionnaire after your return to your home country, please fill in your name and home country address. Your help in gathering this data is greatly appreciated. Check here _____ if you would be interested in the findings of the survey.

Name: _____

Address: _____

National Origin: _____

Ethnic Origin: _____

Age: _____

Sex: male _____ female _____

1. Describe the role you expect to play in your home country upon your return.

2. Are you satisfied with the educational experience you have received in the United States? yes _____ no _____

rating	poor	Average					excellent			
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

reasons:

3. Would you like to remain in the United States permanently? no _____ yes _____
if yes, why?

4. Have your expectations concerning your role in your home country been modified as a result of your educational experience in this country? no _____ yes _____ if so how?

Appendix F (Continued)

5. Do you feel your anticipated role will effect

A. Relations with your family? No ___ Yes, ___ if so how?

B. Your social relations? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

C. Your political life? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

D. Your professional life? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

E. Your economic level? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

F. Other aspects of your life?

6. Why did you come to the United States for study?

7. Why did you pick the particular institution in which you enrolled?

8. Have you changed as a result of your educational experience in the United States?

Appendix F (Continued)

9. Do you feel the educational experience you have received in the United States will affect

A. Relations with your family? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

B. Your social relationships? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

C. Your political life? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

D. Your professional life? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

E. Your economic level? No ___ Yes ___, if so how?

F. Other Aspects of your life upon your return home?

10. What other factors do you feel may effect your life on your return home?

11. What primary role or activity do you see yourself playing upon returning home Political, economic, or social?

- A. Primarily _____
 B. Both _____ and _____
 C. All three _____
 D. None _____
 E. Other _____ (please specify)

Appendix F (Continued)

12. Additional Background Information:

Occupation of Father: _____ Mother: _____

Highest Education of Father: _____ Mother: _____

Number of brothers and sisters: _____

Marital Status: Single: _____ Married: _____ Divorced: _____

If married did you marry while you were in the United States? No _____ Yes _____

If married did you remain at home? _____ come with you to the U.S. _____

If divorced, did divorce happen while you were in the U.S.? No _____ Yes _____

Highest educational level of spouse: _____ : Occupation: _____

Your work experience before coming to the United States: _____

_____ none: _____ full-time _____ part-time: _____

Your Occupational goal: _____

Your Highest educational level before coming to the United States to study? _____

Country in which you obtained majority of your education? _____

Language of instruction used in that educational system? _____

Had you been abroad before coming to study in the United States? No _____

Yes, I had traveled abroad _____ Number of times _____ longest trip lasted _____

Yes, I had studied abroad _____ Number of times _____ longest study _____

Number of years included in educational program enrolled in in U.S.A? _____

Number of years you have completed in that program? _____

Field of study: _____ Undergraduate: _____ graduate: _____

Did the program include orientation sessions when you first arrived? no _____ yes _____

If yes, how many hours _____ per week _____ per month _____ per semester _____

Has the program included preparation for your return home? No _____ Yes _____

if so, how many hours _____ per week _____ per month _____ per semester _____

Will the program lead to a degree? Yes _____ No _____

If yes, B.A. _____ M.A. _____ Ph.D. _____ other, (specifications)

Years of English language study prior to coming to the U.S.? _____

APPENDIX G. QUESTIONNAIRE #1: SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

APPENDIX G

QUESTIONNAIRE #1, SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

Orientation Survey

Institution _____

Date _____

Name _____

Home Country _____

Age ____ Sex ____ Married ____ Single ____ Divorced ____

Studied English ____ years.

1. How long have you been in the United States?
2. Is this the first time you have studied abroad?
3. What kinds of problems or confusing situations have you encountered since you arrived in the United States?
4. What group or person has been most helpful in helping solve these problems?
5. Could the university have been more helpful in solving these problems?
6. Why did you come to the United States to study?
7. What do you hope to gain from this class?
8. How will this educational experience affect your life on your return to your home country?

APPENDIX H. QUESTIONNAIRE #2: SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

Appendix H
Questionnaire #2, Southeastern University

name _____

In what areas have you had problems at the University?	none	once	several	frequently
registration process				
dealing with people in admissions				
library personnel				
library facilities				
professors				
other students				
book store				
other				

Please Explain carefully the nature of the problems you have had as checked above.

APPENDIX I. QUESTIONNAIRE #3: SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

Appendix I
Questionnaire # 3, Southeastern University

Name _____

Date _____

Responses to this will be kept confidential and used for research purposes and program development only.

1. What kinds of problems or confusing situations have you encountered since you arrived in the United States? Give specific type and example

2. What group or person has been most helpful in solving these problems?

3. Could the university have been more helpful in solving these problems?

Appendix 7 (Continued)

name _____

4. Check which of the below areas have been problems for you at one time or another since you arrived in the United States.

	Problem at first	problem which developed later	continues to be a problem.	never a problem.
Housing				
Social				
Travel				
Diet				
Religion				
Politics				
Language				
Economics				
Education				

5. Rank above areas according to which was most serious (if any, but only three)

1.

2.

3.

APPENDIX J. QUESTIONNAIRE #4: SOUTHEASTERN UNIVERSITY

Appendix J
Questionnaire #4, Southeastern University

Check the following problem areas you have encountered and give a numerical ranking of 1 to 5

1= slight 2= very moderate 3= moderate 4= more than moderate 5=ser

	at first	later	continues	never	rar.
Housing					
finding suitable					
paying for					
understanding mechanical aspects					
laundry and cleaning					
Social					
Considered a stranger and left alone					
racial prejudice					
just meeting people					
knowing how to act in American culture					
getting dates					
getting invited to parties					
things to do on week-ends					
missing family and friends					
Travel					
cost					
best route					
where to buy tickets, arrangements					
Diet					
finding foods I like					
preparing foods I like					
cost of food					
ill from new foods					
Religion					
no local groups of my faith					
local groups unfriendly					
keeping customs of my faith					
Politics					
confused by American system					
involved in issues at home					
keeping up with developments at home					
activities of American groups					
Language					
not understanding all I read					
not expressing myself well orally					
not expressing myself in writing					
not understanding all I hear					
Economics					
not having enough money					
dividing up what money I have					
being sure I am not being cheated					
Educational					
insufficient preparation before coming to USA					
understanding goals of professor and course					
registration process					
transcripts/visas					
getting kind of education I want					
understanding the educational system					

APPENDIX K. AID EXIT INTERVIEW

Appendix K
KIB Exit Interview

EXIT INTERVIEW PROBE QUESTIONS FOR PARTICIPANTS			
INTV	INTERVIEWER	PARTICIPANT	DATE
COUNTRY	<input type="checkbox"/> DEGREE <input type="checkbox"/> NONDEGREE	FIELD	PROF
ACADEMIC TRAINING	1. To what extent did _____ University fulfill your expectations?		
	<input type="checkbox"/> Totally <input type="checkbox"/> A lot <input type="checkbox"/> A little <input type="checkbox"/> Not at all, explain		
	2. What degree did you earn? <input type="checkbox"/> BA/BS <input type="checkbox"/> MA/MS <input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D. <input type="checkbox"/> Other _____		
	3. Did your university advisor assist you adequately? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No, explain		
NONACADEMIC TRAINING	4. Did you have any difficulty adjusting to the American academic system? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes, a little <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Yes, a lot		
	5. To what extent did the training facility fulfill your expectations?		
	a. <input type="checkbox"/> Totally <input type="checkbox"/> A lot <input type="checkbox"/> A little <input type="checkbox"/> Not at all, explain		
	Location: _____		
	b. <input type="checkbox"/> Totally <input type="checkbox"/> A lot <input type="checkbox"/> A little <input type="checkbox"/> Not at all, explain		
	Location: _____		
	c. <input type="checkbox"/> Totally <input type="checkbox"/> A lot <input type="checkbox"/> A little <input type="checkbox"/> Not at all, explain		
	Location: _____		
COMPLIMENTARY PROGRAMS	6. <input type="checkbox"/> Totally <input type="checkbox"/> A lot <input type="checkbox"/> A little <input type="checkbox"/> Not at all, explain		
	7. Did the contact person(s) assist you adequately? <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No, explain		
	8. Did you find the WIC Program helpful? Explain <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Did not attend		
	9. Did you find the Midwinter Seminar helpful? Explain <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Did not attend		
	10. Did you find the CSC Executive Management Training Course helpful? Explain <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Did not attend		
	11. Did you find the KSU Communication Seminar helpful? Explain <input type="checkbox"/> Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/> Did not attend		

Appendix K (Continued)

ALLOWANCES	12. Was the per diem allowance adequate for program needs?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No, explain _____															
	Amt. Given: _____ Amt. Needed: _____																	
	13. Was the book allowance enough for required books?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No, explain _____															
	Amt. Given: _____ Amt. Needed: _____																	
GENERAL INFORMATION	14. Was the thesis allowance enough for your thesis?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No, explain _____															
	Amt. Given: _____ Amt. Needed: _____																	
	15. Did the AID/W (DTS) Office assist you adequately?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No, explain _____															
	16. After arrival, did you have any trouble speaking/understanding English?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> Some	<input type="checkbox"/> A great deal													
	<table border="1"> <thead> <tr> <th colspan="3">*YDOK ENGLISH TRAINING AFTER ARRIVAL</th> </tr> <tr> <th>Hours taken</th> <th>No. of classes a week</th> <th>For</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td><input type="checkbox"/> Quarter of University</td> </tr> <tr> <td></td> <td></td> <td><input type="checkbox"/> Semester of University</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>				*YDOK ENGLISH TRAINING AFTER ARRIVAL			Hours taken	No. of classes a week	For			<input type="checkbox"/> Quarter of University			<input type="checkbox"/> Semester of University		
*YDOK ENGLISH TRAINING AFTER ARRIVAL																		
Hours taken	No. of classes a week	For																
		<input type="checkbox"/> Quarter of University																
		<input type="checkbox"/> Semester of University																
	17. Did your program allow you enough time for cultural, personal & recreational activities?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No, because the program was prepared for me.															
		<input type="checkbox"/> Yes, too much time	<input type="checkbox"/> No, because I increased my own program.															
	18. Did you have planned hospitality or opportunities to meet American families?	<input type="checkbox"/> Yes	<input type="checkbox"/> No	<input type="checkbox"/> Not enough														
	19. How satisfied are you with the whole program? Measuring from one to seven, how would you rate it? Place an "X" in the appropriate area.	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>1</td> <td>2</td> <td>3</td> <td>4</td> <td>5</td> <td>6</td> <td>7</td> </tr> <tr> <td colspan="3">Not satisfied</td> <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>Very Satisfied</td> </tr> </table>			1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not satisfied						Very Satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7												
Not satisfied						Very Satisfied												

Appendix K. (Continued)

SUMMARY DATA

20. Do you believe that your program objectives, as stated in your FID/P have been met?

Yes

No, explain

21. How relevant is your training to your future position?

22. What position are you returning to?

23. What ideas/plans would you like to put into use in your country? (Immediate, long-range, etc.)

24. What were the highlights of your program?

25. Do you have any comments on how we may improve the training program? If so, what are they?

Yes

No

26. Before coming to the U.S., did you have an opportunity to make some suggestions for the planning of your program? If so, what were they?

Yes

No

27. Other comments

APPENDIX L. QUESTION GUIDE, EXIT INTERVIEW

Appendix L
Question Guide, Exit Interview

Name _____ Age _____
 Nationality _____ Sex _____
 Profession _____
 Student _____ Field _____ Length of Stay _____
 Residence _____ Married _____
 Birth Place _____ Orientation _____
 Language of Instruction _____

Had you been in the United States Before this trip?

Had you Traveled abroad before this trip

Topic/subject of program

Satisfaction with Program

Applicability of Program to Work

What role do you expect to play upon your return home?

Role Perception

General Specific Task Contributory Change Agent

Functional Identification

Political economic social educational medical other

 Appendix L (Continued)

Returning to same position?

How do you feel your experience in the United States will effect you life when you return home

if no clear response
 Will your having been away affect your life on your return home in terms of your relations with

1. family
2. friends
3. professionally
4. economically
5. socially
6. politically
7. other ways

Have you had any counseling to prepare you for your return home?

How do you feel this will help your return home

Scaling for Transition adjustment recognition

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

situation
 adjustment
 complication
 trial
 problems
 conflict
 uncertainty

difficult
 upsetting
 trying

APPENDIX M. PARTICIPANT EVALUATION OF MSUCW

Appendix M
Participant Evaluation of MSUCW

5-76

Participant Evaluation of
MSU/AID COMMUNICATION WORKSHOP # _____

We would like to make these communication workshops as meaningful and effective as possible. To do this we need your help. Would you tell us some of the things you saw as important to you this week? Do not feel you must comment on each item or be limited to these topics.

(Use back of page if necessary)

I. a. Overall Impressions (Circle) Excellent Very Good Good Fair Poor
 Comment: 5 4 3 2 1

b. Relevant and useful to your work? Very Fairly Not
 How? 5 4 3 2 1

II. a. Have you ever had any formal training in communication before?

b. Did you find the division of time suitable for: Too Little About Right Too Much
 1. Formal presentation (lectures) of theoretical principles _____
 2. Opportunity for small group discussion _____
 3. Free time _____
 Comment? _____

c. Did you feel there should be: More Same Amount Less
 1. Films _____
 2. Case studies _____
 3. Role playing _____
 4. Communication games _____

d. Which exercises, films, or case studies do you remember as being particularly

1. Good, WHY?

2. Poor, WHY?

Appendix M (Continued)

- e. Do you have any comments on the handouts (green sheets and others) or the communication booklet (yellow) you received?
- f. Which, if any, particular areas or problems in communication do you think should have been given more attention? (e.g. diffusion, interpersonal, organizational, etc.)
- g. Was the tour a useful part of the program? Comment?
- h. What do you think of the policy of mixing several nationalities together in the same workshop?
- III. What comments do you have about the staff? (i.e. presentation, out-of-class contact, etc.)

IV. Facilities:

- a. Food: quality: Excellent _____ Adequate (good) _____ Poor _____
 quantity: Excellent _____ Adequate (good) _____ Poor _____
 Comments and suggestions:

b. Housing: Comment?

c. Recreation: Comment?

V. Additional Comment?

(If you wish), Name _____ Country _____

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