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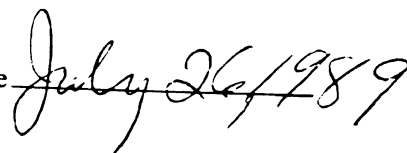
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Ph.D. degree in Education

  
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**STAFF DEVELOPMENT NEEDS AND  
PRACTICES IN SELECTED ISOLATED  
AMERICAN-SPONSORED OVERSEAS SCHOOLS**

By

William F. Russell

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to  
Michigan State University  
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for the degree of

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Department of Teacher Education

1989

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **STAFF DEVELOPMENT NEEDS AND PRACTICES IN SELECTED ISOLATED AMERICAN-SPONSORED OVERSEAS SCHOOLS**

The purpose of the research was to describe the meanings attached to the concept of staff development when considered in the setting of the isolated K-8(9) American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS) and to determine which individuals and what factors effected its conduct and direction. The Heads of the nine isolated A/OS responded to a request by the Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS) to produce a long range plan for staff development. The Heads were the chief participants in this study.

Interviews and informal exchanges with the Heads of the schools and others associated with support agencies provided qualitative data which was supplimented by the examination of budgets, policy statements, and long range plans. From an analysis of this qualitative data, a survey was constructed through which a quantitative assessment was made of the relative importance, attached by the Heads to a number of elements of staff development.

Data indicated that while teachers, members of the governing boards and the Regional Education Officer of the O/OS had the potential to influence staff development in the schools, the Heads of the schools were dominant in this process. With a single administrator, the schools were reliant on the Heads of the school to lead in the conceptualization, design and implementation staff

development plans. The Heads did not, in all cases, exhibit the characteristics of ability, training and/or experience necessary to fulfill this role.

Staff development in the schools was found to be strongly associated with two elements. First, the high turnover of staff members (including Heads and board members) increased the importance of the recruitment and orientation of new staff members. Second, the isolated nature of many of the schools heightened the importance of professional conference attendance. These conferences served differing needs of professional and non-professional staff members of the schools.

★

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## **Chapter I**

### **A Rationale for the Study**

In 1984-85, over 4,500 U.S. teachers and school administrators lived and worked in independent American style schools outside of the United States. In cooperation with nearly an equal number of teachers, administrators, and members of school boards from other countries, these educators were charged with the responsibility for the education of over 91,700 American, host national and third national children. They worked in schools in at least 97 countries of the world, under the auspices of a variety of sponsoring organizations. (American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS), 1984-85)

These schools included those which had become well established and those which had come into existence as the result of recent shifts in the economic and political situation in some parts of the world. They included schools which had very large enrollments, such as in the International School of Manila with 2,048 students, and those of a few children of diplomatic families stationed at a remote mission such as Shanghai, China with 11 students. (A/OS, 1984-85)

These schools existed in addition to and independent of schools which belonged to highly organized systems such as those managed by the U.S. Department of Defense, those



operated by major international corporations and those under the auspices of missionary organizations. Though they received limited assistance from the U.S. government through the Department of State's Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS), they generally existed as individual entities, sponsored by a local association of parents who banded together in answer to a shared need for an American styled school for their children. It was a subset of this group, referred to as American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS or occasionally ASOS), which constituted the population for this study.

Regardless of the size, location, and composition of these schools, they shared the essential feature of schools everywhere: a community charged a group of professionals with the task of "educating" its young. Communities, whether expatriate or in the parent's home country, have always provided sets of expectations within which the schools were to function. Unlike the communities of parents in their home country, the expectations of the generally small expatriate community located in isolated areas have been complicated by a variety of conditions which have placed special demands on the personnel of the schools. These demands have included:

1. The parents desire that their children be able to re-enter the educational system of the country from which the parent originated and that they be prepared for university entrance. The school was expected to maintain "comparable" standards to that found "at home" regardless of physical, geographical, cultural and/or linguistic isolation; (King,

1968; Bale, 1984)

2. The communities charge that educators maintain and promote what were then currently deemed to be the best educational standards and practices. This implied that the staff of the school found it necessary to keep abreast of educational change in terms of methods and materials as well as educational policies of many of the major countries represented in the school community. Further, it was necessary that they be prepared to explain and justify the predominately American methods and materials used in the school to those parents who were unfamiliar with them. (King, 1968; Droppert, 1984)

It was not uncommon for a school to have counted more than 30 nationalities in its student body, in varying proportions but not uncommonly with more than 50% host national and third country national students. This suggests that a variety of expectations existed and that disparate factions may have existed within a "community". (A/OS 1984-85)

The communities were in a constant state of flux, having a rapidly changing student body, staff, parent body and therefore, board of directors. This had substantive implications for continuity of program and quality of instruction as well as for intra-staff and school/community interaction and relations. (Bentz, 1972; Mannino, 1970) A high percentage of the school's parent body (both mothers and fathers) were college graduates and had attained relatively

successful levels in their chosen professions. This suggested that the schools to which comparison were made represent among the best in the parent's home countries. It was not unusual therefore to find that the community members set exaggerated educational goals for their children.

(Harvey, 1976)

One might assume that these varied expectations posed formidable tasks for those who worked in and managed these diverse international schools.

### **The Teachers**

At any given time, the educators who made up the professional staff of a given international school may have been teachers from the following groups:

1. first-time expatriate teachers - qualified and certified teachers recruited in the U.S. or elsewhere who were working abroad for the first time;
2. career international teachers - qualified and certified teachers trained in the U.S. or elsewhere who have made a career abroad, often moving from one international school to another;
3. dependent spouses - wives (and occasionally husbands) of individuals who have been stationed in the foreign country, having varied educational training, qualifications and certification;
4. host country nationals - teachers trained in the host country or abroad; in some cases, without training or

qualifications comparable to that in the U.S. or England;

5. untrained teachers - individuals who had varied educational backgrounds and skills, usually possessing some form of university degree, deemed suitable to fill an existing need.

The complexities of maintaining a school program including combinations of the teachers with these characteristics, working in varied settings and conditions, and accountable to the melange of parent expectations previously described, has been a task of considerable proportion. (Bentz, 1972; Droppert, 1984)

The large international schools, having the drawing power of location and/or employment benefits had little difficulty attracting highly qualified teachers. This was in contrast to the smaller, isolated school which may have lacked the location and/or resources associated with a large enrollment with which to be attractive to prospective teachers and administrators. (Domidion, 1964)

King (1968) stressed the need for a well trained and remunerated staff in the improvement of the quality of the A/OS. The budgets of the schools under consideration have been, to a large extent, tuition based and the schools were typically not part of a larger unit or "district". As such, the accountability of the staff of the school was directly to the tuition paying parent body, separated by a relatively thin layer of bureaucracy. This bureaucracy typically consisted of a single or at most several administrators and a

board of directors. It was been the responsibility of the administrator(s) of each school to recruit and develop a staff which would accept the significant challenges of these schools and were able to fulfill the needs of the community.

### **The Administrators**

As with the teaching staff of the small, isolated school, location and resources have affected the level of training and experience which the schools could demand in the recruitment of administrators. (Mannino, 1970) Further, the small school typically had a single administrator who was required to address all areas of administration. In this situation, he/she could not benefit from the shared efforts of several experienced and trained members of an administrative team. (Kelly, 1974)

### **The Boards of Governance**

A/OS schools have typically been governed by boards composed of elected parents of students of the school and/or appointed representatives of governments and agencies having large numbers of employees with children in the school. These board members typically worked and socialized with the general parent body of the school. As has been the case with other members of the international community, board members may have been on relatively short tours of duty. This resulted in the rapid turnover of board members in the A/OS schools. (Bentz, 1972)

### **Staff Development in the A/OS School**

A number of obstacles have existed to the development and maintenance of a quality program in the A/OS school. (Mannino, 1970) Had one accepted the simple and easily forgotten statement of King (1968) that, "The key to the school's success lies in the staff itself." (p. 5), a logical conclusion might have been that few elements of school's administration were of greater importance than the development of the staff. Thus, it might have seemed imperative that staff development be given a significant role in the culture of schools and that schools would have developed plans for this activity.

It has been the responsibility of the administrator(s) and frequently the boards of directors of the schools to overcome the many obstacles in recruiting, developing and maintaining staffs which could cope with the difficulties associated with life in isolated conditions and which were able to satisfy the expressed needs of the varied and complex student and parent populations.

Within this context, staff development may have taken on a considerably different meaning from that familiar to an administrator who may have gained his training in the U.S. and lacked international experience.

### **Background**

In the Fall of 1983, it was suggested that the researcher attend a meeting of the chief administrative

officers (CAO's or Heads) of the nine American style international schools located in Eastern Europe. The schools were located in Prague, Warsaw, Moscow, Budapest, Bucharest, Sofia, Belgrade, Zagreb, and Istanbul. (Istanbul, though not in Eastern Europe, belongs to this group.) These schools received support from O/OS and the Heads met with the O/OS Regional Education Officer (R.E.O.) several times per year.

Casual discussions had taken place within the group concerning the possibility of creating a Regional Staff Support Center outside of Eastern Europe with Vienna, Austria having been considered as a logical location. At that time, the researcher held the position of Computer Coordinator of the American International School of Vienna and since there had been discussion of a need for assistance with the development of educational computing programs in these schools, the researcher was included in the meeting. During the course of this meeting, four distinct areas of common concern were identified. These included computing, text book preview, orientation of new staff, and a joint effort in teacher in-service.

By the Spring of 1984, further meetings of the school Heads had resulted in an agenda for the following year which included limited funding for an in-service weekend, a "boardsmanship" workshop, and support for a "fact finding" trip by the researcher relating to the computing programs of the schools.

In that the tour of the nine schools was to be funded by

O/OS, the researcher participated in discussions with the R.E.O. for Europe to clarify the nature of the mission. Quite apart from the discussion relating to the educational computing needs of the schools, the researcher was informed that the Head and one board member from each of the schools would be asked to participate in a one day seminar, the declared purpose of which was to introduce a document, Long Range Planning with an Emphasis on Staff Development by Featherstone and Hickey (unpublish manual). The Heads would then be asked to complete the long range planning (LRP) process prior to a subsequent meeting to be held in Vienna in March of 1985. These staff development plans would serve as a basis for proposals and decisions requisite to the formation of the Regional Staff Support Center.

It was felt that the opportunity to observe conditions in these far flung, isolated schools and to follow the processes by which staff development plans were adopted might serve as an ideal source for data involving the general topic of staff development and those aspects specifically associated with its implementation in the isolated setting.

### **Statement of the Problem**

It has been documented that there have been a number of ramifications of the isolated condition of many of the A/OS schools which may have had a negative impact on the functioning of the staffs of these schools. (Bentz, 1972; Droppert, 1984; King, 1968; Mannino, 1970) There has been no



documented study of the specific conditions which impact staff development in these schools nor on the staff development practices employed by these schools.

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to describe the conditions impacting staff development; to determine which individuals influence the course of staff development; and to describe the accompanying staff development practices in the K-8(9), isolated A/OS school setting. In doing so, a detailed description of staff development problems and practices found in a select group of extremely isolated schools was formulated. No hypotheses were made. No assessments or judgments of then existing practices were made or reported.

### **Research Questions**

Questions which were explored in the course of the study included the following:

1. What similarities and differences existed regarding the demographics and conditions under which the participating schools operated?
2. What were the significant conditions and factors which impacted staff development activities in isolated schools?
3. What similarities and differences existed in the participating schools regarding staff development needs?

4. What similarities and differences existed in the participating schools regarding staff development practices?
5. Who were the significant individuals and what were their roles in determining the course of staff development in these schools?
6. What was the meaning of staff development in the context of isolated American-sponsored Overseas Schools?

### **Importance of the Study**

As an international school teacher and administrator for 20 years, having worked for six different Heads of schools and a greater number of principals, department chairpersons, etc., the researcher had observed that during few of those years, in few of the schools and with few of the administrators had there been a coherent sense of planning for the development of the school's staff. From this starting point and with little existing literature or research which directly reflected on the subject, it was felt that an examination of one aspect of the topic would be of service to the profession.

A second factor in the design of this study concerned the fact that the researcher was presented with a rare opportunity to examine a specific population which had previously not been studied. The opportunity to examine at

first hand the conditions in the A/OS schools of Eastern Europe had not previously existed. The perceived oppressive environment in the countries of Eastern Europe suggested that the topic of staff development may have taken on a heightened importance in these schools and thus potentially added to the significance of the study.

It was the hope that this examination of existing conditions and practices in these isolated international schools would:

1. provide an identification and understanding of many of the factors involved in staff development planning in the isolated international setting;
2. provide a resource for those currently working in these schools and those who may take positions of leadership in these schools in the coming years;
3. draw attention to the importance of staff development planning in international schools;
4. provide an independent reflection on some aspects of O/OS program assistance which in turn may provide insights for future program development;
5. provide a basis for further research concerning the value of varied approaches to staff development issues.

#### **Limitations of the study**

The schools included in this study were chosen because they constituted the entire membership of a group of A/OS schools referred to as the Eastern European Association of

American Schools and were to be included as a group in the development of an LRP. The researcher was provided with one opportunity of visiting each school. As they were located thousands of miles apart, the high cost of travel precluded follow-up visits to each site.

The Heads of these schools met formally once or twice per year. Thus the researcher was assured of four occasions on which he would be able to observe the Heads as a group and interview each Head and was generally limited to written and/or taped correspondence for the remaining data collection. The researcher was therefore at the mercy of the Heads and the international postal agencies for the prompt and complete return of interviews and other data which were requested.

The taped interview format provided two distinct benefits to the design of the research. First, it allowed for several stages of development in the formation of precise data; ie., Phase I - open ended questions, Phase II - generally focused questions, a Survey - which provided specific quantitative data, and the Final Interview - for clean-up and checking for change from initial views. Secondly, the taped interview allowed for a relaxed, intimate atmosphere of "dialogue" with the respondent in which he/she could share his/her ideas at a leisurely pace.

While providing the above benefits, the methodology contained limitations of two types. Since the respondent was in total control of the "interview" in Phases I and II,

he/she could choose to give as much or as little time and effort to the answers as he/she desired. Further, the researcher relinquished control of the time-line for data collection and was required to make follow-up requests and adjust the schedule of the research. A more significant limitation was associated with the fact that respondents could choose which of the questions to respond to and were free to interpret questions in ways which had not been intended. To compensate for the latter failing, follow-up questions were integrated into subsequent tapes and important points were reviewed during the final personal interview.

At the outset, participation by a minimum of five schools had been set. Thus with the ultimate participation of all nine, despite limitations in some elements, a greater than expected amount of data was obtained.

The schools included in the sample for this study exist in extreme conditions. Of the hundreds of international, American curriculum schools located outside the U.S.A., a wide range of local factors existed which may have resulted in some or all of the problems and practices which were explored in this study. Isolation was but one of these factors. The concept of isolation was commonly associated with physical separation. In this study, however, separation was not considered only in relation to physical distance, but also involved the cultural separation of contiguous populations. This combined-form isolation affected the availability of materials and both the physical and

psychological comfort of those working and living in these conditions. The reader is cautioned not to assume that the conditions found in this research were indicative of all physically or culturally isolated schools nor that schools free from physical or cultural isolation were free from the associated problems. Rather, it is suggested that physical and cultural isolation may have increased the potential for certain problems to develop.

### **Delimitations**

The subject of this dissertation related to the effects of isolation on staff development practices. The researcher chose to limit his research to the K-8(9) schools comprising the A/OS Eastern European schools group, although numerous other schools existed in similarly isolated conditions. These schools were chosen because they had defined themselves as a unit through joint activities and it appeared that the researcher might be able to establish an intimate dialogue with a number of the Heads of the schools.

The reader is cautioned against inferring that the results of this study reflect factors associated with the operation of expatriate schools in countries which have communist governments. While eight of the schools were linked in this manner the researcher chose to include the Community School of Istanbul since its geographic location had resulted in the choice of its governing board of joining with the other schools in previous joint school activities.

### **Methodology**

This descriptive research utilized a combination of qualitative and quantitative data collected in a longitudinal manner over a period of 16 months. The study progressed through the following stages:

1. The researcher visited each of the schools as part of a consultancy sponsored by the O/OS. While completing his assigned task, he

- attempted to establish a rapport with the staff and Head of the school necessary for cooperation in the study;
- took notes relative to the significant physical aspects of the school and community;
- became familiar with the interpersonal relations within the staff of the school;
- assessed the potential for completion of the remainder of the study.

2. Interviews (by tape or in person) were made with each Head on at least three occasions over a 16 month period. These included:

- an initial, taped, open ended set of questions,
- a detailed clarifying personal interview,
- a follow-up interview clarifying and bringing closure to the process,

3. A survey relating to staff development concepts and activities suggested in the literature and by individual participants was administered.

4. Documents reflecting policies and practices relating to staff development were requested and collected;
5. The researcher observed the Heads in action within their respective schools and at four meetings over the 16 month period;
6. Transcriptions of interviews were made. These interview transcriptions plus notes taken of observations in the schools and meetings of the Heads and documents submitted by the schools formed the data for the study.

The researcher followed the activities of the Heads of the schools for an extended period of time. As research progressed, it was expected that additional opportunities would occur during which supplemental interviews with Heads and others associated with the schools would be made. A range of other sources of relevant data and perceptions relating to the research were expected to surface. Full advantage was made of these opportunities. Potential existed for unanticipated aspects of the research topic to emerge. The researcher followed these "leads" receptive to unanticipated data.

### **Definitions**

**Staff Development** - The global term used to describe those activities through which a school was able to build its professional and regularized lay staffing team.

**In-Service** - The term used for those activities through which the school provided time and/or resources to enable the instructional staff of a school to improve their professional



competence.

**School Personnel** - The term used to describe those members of the professional and support staffs and those members of the lay staff who serve on a regularized basis to realize the goals of the school.

**Professional Staff** - The term used to describe those members of the staff for whom university training is a prerequisite for employment, including teachers, administrators, librarians, nurses, etc.

**Support Staff** - The term used to describe members of the staff for whom no university training is required including secretaries, kitchen staff, custodians, etc.

**Head** - The term used to describe the chief administrative officer of the school. Locally called Headmaster, Principal, or Director.

**Regularized Lay Staff** - The term used to describe members of the community who chose to commit a specified and extended period of time of service to the school yet were not necessarily professional educators and received no salary for their services. For the purposes of this study, the members of the boards of governance were the only individuals included as regularized lay staff.

**American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS)** - The term used to describe those schools qualifying for financial and/or logistical support by the U.S. Department of State. Though there are many A/OS schools which extend through grade 12, the term will be used in this dissertation to denote

schools which end in grades eight or nine.

**The Office of Overseas Schools** (O/OS) - The office within the Department of State through which approximately 180 selected schools receive financial, logistical and other forms of support. World-wide activities are divided into six regions including Europe, South America, Central America, Africa, Southern Europe/Mediterranean, and Asia.

**The Regional Educational Officer** (R.E.O.) - The individual charged with the responsibility for coordinating activities of O/OS with approximately 30 schools of his\* region. (\*To date these positions have been held by men.)

**School-to-School Program** - A program supported by O/OS through which American Schools Overseas have formed links with schools in the United States. Active partnerships have resulted in benefits for student and teacher exchange, staff development and logistical assistance for the overseas school.

**First Culture** - Useem's (1966) term used to describe the culture of the host country.

**Second Culture** - Useem's term for the culture of the home country of the expatriate individual.

**Third Culture** - Useem's term for, "the cultural pattern created, learned and shared by the members of different societies who are personally involved in relating their societies or sections thereof, to each other." (P.131)

**Third Country National** - The term used to describe a citizen of a country other than the U.S. or the host country.

**Anomie** - Nash's (1969) term for anxiety associated with the destructured frame of reference of the stranger to a new environment.

### **Organization of the Dissertation**

In **Chapter I** of this dissertation, an introductory overview has been presented. An explanation of the purpose of the study has been given and the population, limits, and terms to be used have been described. The remainder of the work will be organized into four chapters with the following contents:

**Chapter II** will include a review of relevant literature. Through this review, it is hoped that the reader will gain an understanding of:

- a. the history of A/OS schools;
- b. the role of the Office of Overseas Schools;
- c. the A/OS communities;
- d. the international professional educator;
- e. the conditions impacting A/OS schools;
- f. the history of staff development practices in the U.S.;
- g. and the history of staff development practices in the A/OS schools.

**Chapter III** will describe and offer a rationale for the methodology used in the collection of data for the study. A description of the research activities and the nature of the data collected will be offered.

**Chapter IV** will present an analysis of both qualitative and quantitative data collected during the study. Quantitative data will be presented in summary form dealing with a number of major areas of interest to the study. Qualitative data will be presented in tabular form.

**Chapter V** will present conclusions which may be drawn from the analysis of data of Chapter IV. It will also present observations of the researcher and suggest further research which may be considered beneficial to an understanding of the factors impacting staff development in the isolated school setting.

## **Chapter II**

### **Introduction**

In the following chapter, a review of the literature which has been deemed relevant to an understanding of the study will be presented. The chapter begins with a brief history of the group of schools from which the population of the study has been drawn. Since the schools of this group were linked by a common relationship with the U.S. Department of State, a history of the development of this relationship and an explanation of the distinctions between these schools and other overseas, American-type schools has been presented.

Though the literature suggested that limited differences related to the daily classroom routine in the schools existed, it appeared that the setting of the expatriate communities has often had meaningful effects on staffing, staff performance, and staff development. Therefore, considerable attention has been given to the development of an understanding of the dynamics in the expatriate community.

As the board of governance of the local school appeared to reflect the dynamics and values of that community and constituted the policy and decision-making body of the school, it was felt that this structural unit warranted close examination. The nature of the boards, their membership, structure and operating policies and procedures have been described. The review of the literature revealed that

individual board members may have served roles of major and varied significance in the schools. It was decided to consider these individuals as members of the global "staff" of the school and the literature pointed to the need for elements of "staff development" for individuals in these positions.

Isolation constituted a major construct in this research and thus its many and varied effects on individuals, the communities, and the schools has been summarized. This has then been related to role of the teacher in the expatriate community.

Since the "problem" of this research was stated as concerning "staff development in the isolated school setting", it was deemed important to develop for the reader a general understanding of the topic of staff development in the American schools. A brief history of the topic has therefore been presented.

The administration of the school served to implement the will of the community and was charged with carrying out the policies and procedures designated by the board of governance. As staff members themselves, and as designers of staff development programs, they were seen as important to an understanding of the overall concept of staff development in the schools. Thus a presentation of the role of administration in the schools and the characteristics of individuals in administrative positions has been made.

The chapter concludes with a joining of the two major

elements of the research with an examination of the history of staff development in the expatriate schools.

### **The American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS)**

A/OS schools can be found in nearly every country in the world. In 1986, one hundred eighty such schools received assistance from the U.S. government through the Department of State's Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS). Initially established to serve the needs of expatriate Americans, they have come to serve a wide ranging international community. A number of researchers have noted that American expatriates, as differing from their British counterparts, chose whenever possible to keep their children with them when on foreign assignment of an extended nature. (Bale, 1984; Cleveland, 1960; Droppert, 1984; King, 1968) Bale noted that since Americans constituted the largest group of citizens working outside their home country, expatriate international schools were most frequently American-sponsored and developed American curricular programs.

Beans (1968) wrote of the "American tradition" of the neighborhood school and its close relationship with the community. He emphasized the importance placed on the communities' role in "determining what that education will be." (p. 27) Stoddard (1980) wrote of these characteristics and of an increased need for highly qualified expatriate American executives which led the U.S. Department of State and major American-based international companies to aid in

the foundation of schools and to continue to provide annual support to these schools. This characteristic was related as having two results: the direct action of the overseas American parent in supporting the school and an awareness on the part of government, private business and international agencies that "it [was] to their advantage to have attractive schools and effective school programs overseas." (Bean, 1968, p. 27)

Cleveland (1960) was among the first to note the importance which the quality of the "local" school had for the expatriate family. In their study of the adjustment of expatriate families to life in India, Useem and Useem (1967) drew attention to the importance of the community in "fulfilling the needs of men and their dependents", (90% of the sample were married men), "needs which were non-work-related but if not satisfactorily resolved [had] negative repercussions on the work role performance." (p. 135) Mannino (1970) expressed a similar point of view in stating that highly talented administrators and technicians were "not easily recruited for assignment to areas overseas in which schools [were] known to be grossly inadequate. Nor [was] that person's job performance likely to remain unaffected if he [was] concerned continually about the quality of educational services for his children." (p. 11) Orr (cited in Droppert, 1984) indicated that "an inadequacy of schooling was identified as the most significant cause for distress for employees and their spouses." (p. 64)



### The Development of A/OS

Orr (1964), Bentz (1972), Stoddard (1980), and others have related the varied factors which led to the formation of American curriculum schools abroad. These included expatriate dissatisfaction with local schools, problems encountered when children moved from one country to another, objections to secular education and non-co-educational schools, a fear of the loss of the children's "American" identity, and concerns regarding local teaching methods and techniques.

As can be seen in Table 1, a small number of A/OS schools existed prior to World War II (WWII),. Most of these were in Latin America. Following the war, the expansion of U.S. government activities and the accompanying growth of American business into international ventures led to establishing numerous schools to serve the needs of the children of expatriate families which were employed by these agencies and companies.

**Table 1**  
**Changes in the Number of A/OS Schools, by Region**

Region	Number of Schools	Date of establishment							
		Pre- 1900	1900- 1919	1920- 1929	1940- 1949	1950- 1959	1960- 1969	1970- 1979	1980- 1985
Amer. Rep.	52	1	1	8	13	18	6	0	5
Europe	37	1	1	-	5	9	19	6	-4
Africa	41	-	-	-	1	3	14	10	13
NE/SE	17	-	2	-	-	9	5	9	-8
East Asia	22	-	1	2	1	7	4	1	6
All Regions	169	2	5	10	20	46	48	26	12

(Extrapolated from Luebke (1976) with  
1979-80 and 1984-85 A/OS Data)

In many cases local community action resulted in the formation of the needed schools. Many of these schools began as "kitchen table ... garage or bungalow" schools. (Bentz, 1972, p. 27) Winfield (1962) indicated that in countries where foreign schools were prohibited from existing, parents sidestepped such laws by calling them "children's centers." (p. 169)

As the numbers of dependent children grew, the schools began to take on more formal structures and a cooperative management. This in turn led to the employment of teachers and administrators, the formation of school boards, and the formalization of school charters. In his study of 23 schools of Latin America, Bentz traced the development of what he termed the "first generation" of American schools overseas. These schools were among the earliest, having developed prior to WWII.

In other cases, the U.S. Department of State, at times in association with corresponding agencies of other English speaking governments, formed or assisted in the formation of schools carrying names such as the American or Anglo-American School of the ... (respective city). Many of the characteristics which later distinguished the schools could be related to the formal structure and the resulting charter within which the school emerged. Since the end of WWII, 152 of the 169 schools which received support through O/OS in 1984-85 had come into existence. (A/OS, 1984-85)

### **U.S. Government Involvement in International Schools**

The U.S. government formally became involved in support for the education of overseas expatriate children in 1943 by contracting the "Inter-American Council on Education to aid in the establishing and maintaining of a handful of privately run American schools in the Western Hemisphere". (Bentz, 1972, p. 3) These schools became the roots of the Department of Defense dependent schools (DODDS) and have developed into the worlds largest school system, complete with an extensive bureaucracy. Contrasting sharply with this group of schools was the A/OS group which had generally existed as discrete self-governing entities.

Beans (1968), Mannino (1970), and McGugan (1970) traced the stages and authority through which the U.S. government provided financial support for A/OS schools from 1943 to 1966. Winfield (1962), writing of the then 92 "parent-sponsored" schools, reported that the receipt of government assistance related "primarily to the usefulness of the schools as demonstrations of American education and secondarily as a means of assisting in the education of the children of government personnel assigned overseas." (p.129)

### **The Office of Overseas Schools**

Of significance to the type of schools involved in this study was the formation in 1964 of the Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS) within the Department of Defense. This agency was charged with coordinating assistance to a number of

existing independent schools and the formation of new schools where they were needed. Having consolidated the activities of several other funding agencies and authorities, O/OS gave assistance to 121 schools in 75 countries during its first year in existence. (Engleman & Luebke, 1966, p.7) For a discussion of the origin of O/OS and a detailed analysis of the congressional genesis, see ( Engleman & Luebke,1966), Mannino (1970) and McGugan (1970)

King (1968) noted that "nearly half of the funds expended in fiscal year 1966 were for the purpose of staff development." (p. 47) This included salaries or salary supplements, recruitment expenses, conferences, workshops, and other in-service activities. Bale (1984) related a note of significance to the understanding of the role of O/OS in stating that the office "aided but did not control" (p. 6) the A/OS schools.

A number of researchers have commented on the quality of the A/OS schools. Mannino (1970) stated that many of the schools were "underdeveloped and in need of support." (p. 2) Their services often did not meet the standards of the better schools in the U.S. Inadequacies existed in the areas of materials, curriculum and the teaching staff. While writing of the A/OS schools in India, Useem (1966) stated that "none offers an educational experience comparable to that found in the average suburban Stateside public school." (p. 145)

Harvey (1976) summarized the views of Bentz (1972), McGugan (1970), Orr (1964), and others in relating the goals

of the A/OS schools. In addition to the prime functions related to the education of expatriate and local children, he drew attention to Orr's statement which included secondary objectives of interest to the U.S. Government as justification for support of the schools. Orr (cited in Harvey, 1976) indicated that the schools:

1. served as a demonstration of U.S. education abroad;
2. served as living example of American community democracy;
3. had an affect on the recruitment programs for personnel to serve in overseas positions for U.S. government, international agencies, business and industrial concerns, and cultural, religious, and research organizations.

Mannino (1970) wrote of national pride linked to the quality of the A/OS since the schools were "in the vanguard of American institutions" in many countries. He stated, "when they are inadequate, as many are, they mislead the host national with respect to the nature and importance of education in United States society and culture." (p. 11)

While a large number of American program international schools came into existence as the result of community or governmental actions, a smaller number of schools were developed as the result of private enterprise. These were of three types: secular schools established by a variety of religious organizations, proprietary schools which run as

"for-profit" businesses, and corporate schools which were established and managed by a company or group of companies providing education exclusively for children of their employees.

### **Commonalities in A/OS schools**

Differing from these, the A/OS schools generally shared two distinct features which had an impact on many aspects of the schools' development. These involved the funding and the governance of the schools.

A/OS schools have generally been highly reliant on student tuition, have rarely been endowed and generally have not received substantial support from the host country. (Mannino, 1970) Existing as independent, single school entities it has been necessary to build and maintain substantial reserves to sustain the school through unforeseeable events. Beans (1968) cited the Conference Report on International Schools (1961) as commenting on the difficulties for tuition based schools to offer "even a minimally adequate program." (p. 12) Stress has been placed on the importance of adequate funding if the A/OS schools were to attain greater quality. (Domidion, 1964; Mannino, 1970) As a supplement to local funding, qualifying A/OS schools have had the possibility of receiving small amounts of financial aid from the O/OS. In 1984-85, 176 schools received direct assistance from an O/OS budget totalling nearly \$6,000,000.

Requests for financial aid from O/OS were filed each year by qualifying schools. Grant requests were generally made for specific projects proposed by the school and were not usually considered valid to supplement the general operating budget. Among favored request areas have been those which support the staff development plans of the school.

Mannino (1970) reminded us of a basic tenant of the American culture concerning equality of educational opportunity and freedom of choice in education. These principles were seen as having no value if suitable schools were not available and affordable to the expatriate American family. One of the basic objectives he set for those institutions assisting with the financing of A/OS schools concerned the "renewing of the educational capacity of the overseas school." (p. 24) This in turn implied the funding of staff development programs and the acquisitions of suitable equipment to support the school's program.

A second category of grant request having staff development ramifications has involved funding in support of School-to-School partnerships. This program, designed to encourage A/OS schools to form affiliations with schools in the U.S. for the principle purpose of lending assistance to A/OS schools, began in 1965 with 25 overseas schools paired with selected school systems in the U.S. (Luebke, 1976) The value of a School-to-School partner was pointed out by King (1968) in connection with his statement, "Smaller schools

encounter more difficulty and most sometimes settle for less, simply because of lack of funds, time or know-how." (p. 53) He indicated that the affiliation with a larger school in the U.S. might ameliorate these problems. The potential for School-to-School partnerships to provide continuity to the A/OS school through administrators and staff members serving in partner schools abroad without loss of tenure and through the exchange of materials was described by Kelly (1974).

Beans (1968) reported a rapid development and an extensive flow of curriculum materials to the overseas schools in the first year of the school-to-school program when more than 60 administrators, curriculum specialists and teachers travelled from the U.S. to these schools. During this same period, thirty educators from overseas made parallel visits to school districts in the U.S. These extended visits and sabbaticals included 14 local hire teachers. By 1970, the program had expanded to the extent that 61 A/OS schools had formed affiliations with 57 public schools in the U.S. (Luebke, 1976)

Michigan State University pioneered a University-to-School program of in-service training in the A/OS schools. This was the forerunner of 12 programs of Universities which had provided aid to 50 A/OS schools by 1970. According to Mannino, individual teacher and administrator competence had been markedly improved in many schools as a result of University-to-School activities. Orr (1968) reported on the Columbia Project of the University of



Alabama through which 144 student teachers were placed in 8 A/OS schools in Latin America. Another valuable activity of this university concerned the stimulation of graduate work by a number of administrators from the A/OS schools of the regions with the goal of up-grading their skills as change agents for the schools.

### **Indirect Support of O/OS**

In examining the results of individual school improvement projects and attempts to interact in joint efforts, Mannino (1970) cited John Ivey's statement, "Autonomous institutions tend to cooperate most, and most effectively on peripheral matters. To be effective, regional programs must have funds not otherwise available to member institutions and those funds must be directed toward supporting the regional cooperative programs rather than individual institutional endeavors." (p. 157) To overcome isolation and to effect change in the schools, he supported his proposals by drawing on Loomis' work with social systems which called for, "establishing a viable structure of relationships among schools through an existing or invented common element that has high value potential for the schools." (p. 176) Much of Mannino's work went on to develop a case for the use of institutional funding to draw the independent schools together in the cause of joint program improvement. It was considered noteworthy that the Director of O/OS at the time of this study was Dr. Mannino who had

held the post since its creation in 1964.

### **Regional Associations**

One program which has exemplified the value of joint school activities involves the staff development activities of Regional Associations. Though principally funded by the membership fees of schools, these associations can trace their origin to O/OS efforts and have received limited annual grants to support staff development activities. Since the formation of the first of such associations, the Association of American-sponsored Schools in the Republic of Mexico, nine such associations had been formed by 1970. Mannino (1970) indicated that these associations have not been uniformly active and/or successful. One, the Eastern European Association of American Schools, was of particular interest to this study. During the course of data collection and the research of the literature, Mannino's work was the only indication of its existence. A further inquiry revealed that this association did not develop into full function during the initial effort.

Other associations have been extremely active and beneficial to the schools of their regions. The European Council of Independent Schools, for example, has provided varied and extensive services including teacher in-service and other staff development activities. This regional association has in turn stimulated and assisted in the formation of local associations such as LISA (London

International Schools Association) and others.

### **Regional Centers**

Still another activity of the O/OS has involved the formation and support of Regional Staff Support Centers. Mannino (1970) lists five examples of regional centers including one with particular significance for his study: "Vienna, Austria. Services six schools behind the 'Iron Curtain.' Provides general professional consultation and shares educational materials and program information." (p.152-3) The genesis of this dissertation concerned what was understood to be the **early stages** of the formation of such a center to be cited in Vienna. A search of the literature revealed no other reference to this center. When asked as part of this study, no individual involved in the administration of the schools of the region could recall such an association. A discussion with a longtime R.E.O. for the O/OS revealed that the first effort at establishing a center for Eastern Europe did not progress into a meaningful entity because of a lack of interest on the part of the R.E.O. at the time. It was expressed that this lack of interest as well as the repeat of the five year long range planning effort were illustrative of a major feature of the work of the O/OS, i.e., the acceptance of apparent "failure" in short term developmental efforts but a gradual upgrading in the schools through a long range involvement of the organization.

boards of today. Like the diversity in the development of the colonies, American schools of different regions developed distinctive characteristics which can be related to a combination of

of a town school board as the forerunner of community school Massachusetts School Ordinance of 1662 in its establishment traced to the colonial period. Harvey (1976) cited the of schools. Citizen control of American schools can be distinctively American nature imbued in local citizen control teaching profession, Lortie (1975) drew attention to the factors which have contributed to the development of the 1976; Orr, 1964; Stoddard, 1980) In his analysis of the share the distinctive feature of local control. (Harvey, functioning of the governing boards of A/OS schools, they variance exists in the selection, composition, and to the governance of the schools. Though considerable schools and secular, proprietary or company schools relates The second significant distinction between the A/OS

### **Local Governance**

international schools. abroad and the recruitment agents of a large number of venue for contact between teachers interested in working associations and other agencies. These centers provide the concerns Recruitment Centers held by the regional Another form of indirect assistance given A/OS schools

### **Staffing Services**

factors, including local economics, demographic distribution, and the historic role that the school has played within the community. These same factors, on an international level, have resulted in features which distinguish many A/OS schools from the U.S. schools which their students have come from and have given each of the A/OS schools its own distinctive "personality". Since the circumstances under which A/OS schools originated and developed varied so greatly, it has been "impossible to identify current objectives common to all." (McGugan, 1970, p. 38) As the feature of local control of the American school has been extended into the expatriate setting, each individual school strongly came to reflect the composition of its local community and has been susceptible to any changes which have occurred therein.

### **The Expatriate Community**

As pointed out by Luebke (1976), expatriate communities initially emerged in association with government agencies, international business, and the activities of religious and other civic organizations. Though other constituencies such as host national families and non-American English speaking nationals have influenced individual schools, these three and particularly the business and government agencies have been dominant elements in the schools. The ratio of students from these groups and the distinctions between characteristics of these communities have represented a major determining factor in the development of the schools.

A feature shared by the expatriate business and government agency communities alike has concerned the relatively rapid rate of turnover of their members. This characteristic has been one of the most significant problems for the A/OS schools, for it involved the majority of the community: the students, parents, teachers, administrators, and members of the school board. (King, 1968; Mannino, 1970) Community turnover had resulted in a student population which has moved frequently, often lacked a sense of having a home country, yet had been provided with advantages of a middle class income supplemented by overseas benefits. Parents in the A/OS community were largely found to be "college graduates, aggressive by nature", and saw "college as the singularly most important goal for their children." (Harvey, 1976, p. 9)

Useem and Useem (1963) stated that Americans overseas generally enjoy "higher prestige and status than they do at home." (p. 3) Gonzalez (1967) wrote that the expatriate took on the characteristic of a "big frog in a little pond", but nonetheless a "big frog", enjoying a higher status and standard of living as long as they stayed abroad. Regardless of the "good life" view of overseas living, he noted that expatriates became concerned about life as an expatriate when it came to the secondary education of their children and preparation for university.

### **A/OS School Board**

In addition to the communities from which the school board was drawn, a second important determinant in the development of the school has been the board's composition and the by-laws under which it was formed and operated. The success of the school and the quality of its programs have been largely a function of the quality of its governing board and the chief administrator they employed. (Harvey, 1976)

Three basic school structures were found within A/OS:

- a. school boards comprised totally or predominantly of members elected by parental school associations,
- b. school boards comprised totally or predominantly of appointed government and/or company representatives;
- c. self-perpetuating boards which fill vacancies at their own discretion.

In his description of the board members of A/OS schools, Harvey (1976) found "the average board member to be a highly educated person with an above-average income, a professional or business related occupation, a college-oriented value system, and high academic expectations for his children." (p. 166) Bentz (1972) found them, "highly educated ... highly mobile... and ... modern oriented, with limited knowledge of past events of the school." (p. 116-117) He pointed out that this has led to institutions without memories and ones in which disagreements within the board and between the board and the Head were not uncommon. Bale described the typical expatriate as being from "middle or upper management ...

upwardly mobile both in his professional and socio-economic class" (p. 32) and desiring a high educational level for his/her children.

Kelly (1974) drew attention to the problems related to length of service on A/OS school boards. He stated that, "short tenure often engenders only a short term urgency for board members to see their particular proposals implemented while they are still in office rather than addressing long term needs." (p. 85) The high mobility of board members was seen by King (1968) as detrimental since they try to effect change "too rapidly without careful preplanning." (p. 46) High turnover in school boards was credited by Beans (1968) and Stoddard (1980) as a major problem for many of these schools, causing difficulty in planning, erratic operational patterns, and shifting of goals and purpose. Droppert (1984) found that while many administrators reported good relations with the board, "this relationship was subject to change due to the turnover of board members." (p. 162)

A considerably greater percent of host national board members served longer terms on A/OS school boards than their U.S. and third country national colleagues. However, board members from the U.S. were more likely to have been on a school board previously. (Harvey, 1976) He suggested another problem within boards in stating that "the host national board members view the purposes and goals of the American Sponsored (sic) Overseas Schools differently than the U.S. and third country citizens." (p. 117)



Though rapid turnover of board members has been commonly recognized as a problem of significance for the school, Bentz (1972) and others have also commented on problems associated with entrenched board members and boards on which a number of the members no longer have children in the school and do not relate to the current needs of the school.

Bentz outlined still another problem when he reported that 15 of 23 Heads of schools felt that new board members assumed their role with no knowledge about the intricacies of school administration. Harvey (1976) expressed the view that "many of these persons have assumed their positions without a true understanding of the duties and responsibilities which they are expected to perform" (p. 51) While 60% of board members surveyed in his study had some form of orientation, 42.9% of host national board members expressed the lowest level of orientation. He further suggested that they were all too often "left to learn about their duties and responsibilities with little or no guidance." (p. 100)

King (1968) indicated that there was a "need to delineate the functions of the board members in order to avoid problems of board members taking over administrative functions". (p. 71) Of equal concern was the potential for administrators to unwittingly take over board functions. He warned that only a novice would let the school become a "one-man show". Though recognizing the importance of board orientation, King lamented its time consuming nature. In drawing attention to the importance of proper orientation for

new board members, Harvey concluded that "a greater effort should be made to provide more training and orientation for host nationals who are the largest stabilizing element on the governing boards." (p. 47) Both King and Harvey called for the development of board policy manuals and handbooks and a systematic means of orientation for all board members.

In discussing the general effects of turnover in the A/OS schools, Kelly (1974) wrote, "It becomes essential that a basic common philosophy of education is agreed upon and that all employees subscribe totally to that philosophy. If, every two years, the program changes according to the beliefs of the changing personnel, nothing but chaos will result." This concept would seem equally applicable to the school's boards of directors. A school without a clearly established board policies manual and operating procedures might be susceptible to frequent shifts in direction with the not unheard of annual loss of a large portion of the school board. Bentz (1972) echoed concern regarding board documentation as he reported that there was a lack of policy manuals in 20 of 23 schools which he studied. He suggested that the functional dynamics, operating methodology, and levels of involvement of boards in the schools varied greatly and were subject to change within a given board as turnover occurred.

Board functions in A/OS have been found to vary greatly. Harvey (citing Orr, 1976) found that good administrators were given too much responsibility for policy and administration

or alternately found that the board became too involved in the day-to-day management of the schools. He attributed this to a number of factors, including:

1. the selection of board members who had no interest in the board; or who had special educational, political, social or vindictive interests;
2. poor board orientation of well intending individuals;
3. the high turnover of board members;
4. the high turnover of chief administrators coupled with high incidence of untrained and inexperienced junior administrators resulted in boards assuming control;
5. the closeness of the A/OS community and resulting support for employment of unqualified local individuals;
6. underdeveloped direction and policy and the employment of a Head who may not have been in harmony with the board.

Another problem associated with A/OS governing boards concerned the closeness of the board member to the community and the resulting intervention by individual board members into student or personal problems. Harvey (1976) emphasized, "The powers and duties of the board must be exercised by the board as a whole. Its members come and go, but the board remains the administrative control center for the school." (p. 37)

Given the problems including board member tenure, lack of experienced members, lack of board documentation, and the

close knit nature of the community, it seemed clear that there was a need for a comprehensive board-member training and development scheme in the schools. (Harvey, 1976).

### **The Changing American-sponsored Overseas School**

With the exception of those A/OS schools which have controlled their enrollments, there has been a significant change in the student and community composition during the past 10 years. Table 2 shows a continued decrease in the number of American students during a time in which the overall enrollment of the schools increased. This resulted in an even greater drop in the percentage of American students in the schools. During this time, most schools, through intent or necessity, experienced an increase in the number of students from other countries.

**Table 2**

#### **Enrollment in A/OS Schools 1974-86**

<u>Year</u>	<u>Total Schls</u>	<u>U.S. Citizens</u>			<u>Total U.S.</u>	<u>Other</u>					<u>Total</u>
		<u>U.S. Govt.</u>	<u>Bus.&amp; Found.</u>	<u>Other U.S.</u>		<u>%</u>	<u>Host C'try</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Third C'try</u>	<u>%</u>	
74-75	140	11,235	14,743	8,720	34,699	47.1	24,205	32.9	14,731	20.0	73,664
78-79	157	6,773	12,439	8,970	28,182	33.3	32,228	38.1	24,094	28.5	84,504
80-81	154	7,020	10,687	8,377	26,084	31.1	32,690	40.0	25,087	29.9	83,861
81-82	165	6,515	12,347	9,033	27,895	31.5	32,764	37.0	27,819	31.4	88,478
82-83	163	6,603	11,542	8,235	26,380	29.9	34,077	38.6	27,848	31.5	88,305
83-84	167	6,745	11,670	7,908	26,323	29.5	33,782	37.9	29,046	32.6	89,151
84-85	169	6,704	11,164	8,820	26,688	29.1	34,398	37.5	30,646	33.4	91,732
85-86	175	6,481	9,862	9,780	26,123	28.7	33,775	37.1	31,024	33.6	90,922

(A/OS Fact Sheets 1974-86)

There have been varied reasons for the increase of host national students in the A/OS schools. Among considerations which have motivated host country parents have been instability in the local schools, a belief that the American curriculum and teaching methods were superior, the status symbolized by a private and/or English language education, a recognition of the value of learning English as an entry in the business sector of the host country, a desire that the children attend university in the U.S., and the sense of inclusion in decision making inherent in the American system of education. (Bale, 1984; Domidion, 1964; Orr, 1964; Stoddard, 1980) It was noted that in some countries local children have been prohibited from attending "foreign" schools and in others foreign schools were not allowed to freely operate. (Winfield, 1962)

In addition to an increase in the number of host national students in the American schools, there has been a steady and considerable increase in the numbers of third national students. This increase has paralleled the shifting economic and political fortunes of the various regions of the world. With the increasing economic might of Middle Eastern and Asian countries, increasing numbers of students from these countries have entered the A/OS schools in many countries.

Though generally increasing, the number of students from a given country have radically dropped as well. The rise and fall of political regimes and associated regional wars have

changed the political acceptability and allegiance implied in the attendance of one's children in an American school. As the economy of some third countries have fallen, the A/OS schools have become too expensive resulting in a withdrawal of students. Particular schools have had to contend with the transfer of large blocks of students associated with major corporations, embassies and U.S. governmental installations.

The shift in populations have varied from school to school; however, the overall result has been a steady decrease in the percent of American students in attendance in the A/Os schools as a group. These changes in enrollment have substantially changed the character of many of the A/OS schools. Bentz (1972) stated that the resulting multi-cultural community of users of the international schools inherently generated a "highly complex set of social cultural variables ...[which] ... directly impinge on the educational and administrative processes in a school." This "sometimes facilitates but often restricts the institution building process." (p. 6) Stoddard (1980) related impediments to the school realizing its goals, including the level of receptivity of the host national population and the ethnic and cultural mix within the school.

Useem and Downie (1976) related an additional factor to those suggested by Bentz. In her description of "third culture kids" (TCKs), she expressed the belief that the expatriate international community developed a culture distinct from the "first culture", that of the host country

and different from the "second culture", that of the expatriate. The "third culture" resulted from the interaction of the varied elements of the host and expatriate cultures.

Though schools have experienced changes in focus with changes in financial need or shifts in population, there has often been no accompanying change in goals and policies. Thus over time some schools have drifted from their initial mission and stated objectives. Harvey (1976) analyzing the work of Bentz, (1972); McGugan, (1970) and others was led to the conclusion that many A/OS schools did not have clearly functioning philosophies and missions. Citing Orr, he commented that the "stated objectives are historically irrelevant to the schools themselves and possibly irrelevant in the culture in which the schools operate." (p. 33)

The curricular changes which have accompanied the many other aspects of change in the A/OS school have often been re-active rather than pro-active in nature. The most dynamic curricular change for the schools has been associated with the increase in the numbers of non-English speaking students which has required a major restructuring of the curriculum to cope with their needs. An entirely new specialty has developed for educators knowledgeable in teaching English as a Second Language (ESL) (Other acronyms such as TESOL, ESOL, EFL, Bi-Lingual Ed, etc. suggest varied philosophical distinctions). While the schools have taken actions to accommodate the increasing number of ESL students, concerns

have been expressed for the development of English language skills of the native speaking students. As early as 1962, writers such as Winfield warned of the "danger to American students in schools where curriculum is geared for ESL students." (p. 119)

A second curricular change caused by the shifting population has involved the development and increased acceptance of an international curriculum known as the International Baccalaureate (I.B.). Droppert (1984) indicated that the demands of the multinational community have led American schools to offer courses leading to completion of the I.B. Conceived in the early 1970's, the I.B. has been accepted for university admission in many countries and given advanced standing by an increasing number of universities in the U.S. Paralleling the rise in popularity of the I.B. has been a questioning of the relevance of the advanced level courses of national systems such as the U.S. Advance Placement and British A-levels programs.

In the face of the changes thus far outlined, school administrators and boards of directors have had to make decisions relating to difficult issues involving the development of the schools. Where numbers of non-U.S. parents having a common nationality, employer, or other link have enrolled large numbers of students in a given school, potential has existed for substantive conflict within the school community. Issues involving numbers of students



requiring ESL classes, board composition and elections, staff composition and training and others have served as focal points for community conflict.

Names such as the "American School" or "American International School" have been changed, becoming, "The International School" or "International Community School of ...". In extreme cases, these conflicts have resulted in split communities and the formation of new schools.

### **The Isolated Community**

Of the international expatriate communities previously described, a large number shared the feature of existing in isolated settings. This feature of isolation did not only relate to communities experiencing the physical separation of a small remote community but also to the isolation of a community which, though embedded in a cosmopolitan setting, was culturally, linguistically and/or psychologically cut off from the greater community of local residents. Lambert (1966) noted, "if a residential enclave is available, as in say Dehli, and supplies can be bought from the commissary or PX, isolation can be almost complete, but even without it, a kind of psychological isolation can take place in which all relationships with members of the host country are as brief as possible and highly formalized." (p.164) Isolation was found by Droppert (1984, citing Orr) to be the second most significant cause for stress in expatriates and their spouses. (second to inadequacy of schooling)

In relating the conditions associated with the garrison mentality of a military community in Turkey, Wolf (1969) indicated that "most of the Americans going abroad had been neither educated for nor interested in the development of broad and deep contact and sympathies with host nationals and their culture" (p. 256) He likened the community to that of a "company town" but "more closed and isolated from the mainstream of life about it." (p. 65)

The fact that most expatriate Americans could not speak the host language was cited by Doppert (1984) as adding to what she referred to as the "cocoon effect" which was "manifested in segregation and rejection of host national culture." (p. 60) Aggravating the natural linguistic barrier was a knowledge barrier which existed according to Useem, et al. (1963) who described the failings in the "pool of knowledge" from which both expatriate and host nationals drew, which "may be permeated with cultural fiction about other segments of the host country." (p.19)

Within this setting, the expatriate communities have formed and within each community groupings of members have developed associations, alliances, and friendships. Relating their work within the American communities in India, Useem, et al. (1963) reported that the American community had "no single integrated social structure and each group within it evolved its own set of relations with a selective constellation of nationals." (p. 13) In their 1967 work, the Useems found that initial groupings of expatriates most

commonly formed on the basis of "locality linkage" or "functional group linkage." "A locality linked group consisted of any enduring association of Americans who are connected together in their place of residence." (p. 133)

Functional group linkage related to linkage between those who share a common profession or at least place of work. Of the two groupings, the Useems found that functional group relationships "develop at a faster rate and proceed more smoothly than most other types of social contacts." The reasons cited for this involved an ease in understanding others in the group and a less personalized contact with "fewer obstacles in the host-guest relationship" and "less involvement of 'total self or spouse'". This in turn removed differences which might otherwise have existed. (p. 133)

Contrasting with the functionally linked groupings, the locality-bound groups tended to talk less of work, intermingle more with the host national and third nationals, be more social with seasonal gatherings and a consciousness of social debt orientation. They described four relationships of individuals to "the group." (p. 14) These included those described as

- integrated - regarded by self and group as "in the group";
- fringe - having intermittent involvement with the group;
- deviant - who must be included because of job or work place but who are alienated from the

group's predominant social behavior;

isolate - having no social group available.

They found that nine out of ten expatriate Americans were integrated, fringe, or deviant to a functional or locality linked group, with half integrated into both. (p. 134)

For those overwhelmed by the foreign environment, compound living may have been good, as it removed the need to interact with a hostile environment and enabled them to be productive within the limits of their job. (Torre, 1957)

While the expatriate community was found to be of great assistance to the newly arrived member, it was also found to be constrictive. Winfield (1962) indicated that a person's faults were more noticed in the expatriate community and that "more than one American overseas has had written into his evaluation file a complaint about his out-of-office conduct (or even the conduct of his wife or teenage children)."

Droppert's research (1984) pointed to stress associated with the closeness of the expatriate community and a "fish-bowl" effect. Individuals expressed resentment when "not able to have a private life and were never off duty." (p. 248) Useem and Useem (1966) commented on the representative role of family and the loss of privacy in self and family matters as well as the potential of sanctions from many reference groups: Americans, government circle, host nationals etc. In commenting on the smallness and heterogeneous nature of the American community Useem, et al. (1963) wrote that there "was a greater self and superimposed pressure to find a common

basis for doing things together. Under these conditions, interpersonal conflicts sometimes flare into rather intense factionalism and intra-group feuds." (p. 9) Though one might think that members of an isolated community would join forces, this has not always been the case as indicated in the work of the Schecters (1975). In their account of the expatriate community of Moscow, they stated that the "Americans in Moscow with few exceptions were a competitive, save-yourself-first non-community." (p. 148)

The problem was perhaps best summarized by Useem, et al. (1963). "The tightness of the American community and the bi-national community may be too constrictive. Groups of Americans may reside within a compound, an apartment house or neighborhood - and also work in the same organizational structure. The ecological concentration magnifies even the trivial acts, causes an acute sense of relative deprivation, transforms marginal items into ones of great symbolic value. Who did get invited to a conference? a cocktail party?" (p. 18) "Small differences in style of life, work habits, and personality can precipitate intense hostilities, with flare-ups that splash over into the whole group and into the work organization."

The Schecters (1975) quoted one embassy wife as saying, "One thing you will never have in Moscow is a friend. I don't mean Russian. I mean not even an American friend." She described a "mystique of secrecy" indicating a suspicion "not just of Russians, but of each other." "We all knew we were

being watched and listened to ... phones were tapped... outgoing calls monitored ..."; there existed a "vicious circle." Since individuals "could not prove the existence of bugs, we imposed a restraint on ourselves ... lived in fear of a careless word that might harm someone else, get you thrown out, ruin your friend's career..." (p. 146)

As previously indicated, many expatriate communities formed with members of particular companies or governmental agencies as the prime employers. In this relationship, the sponsoring agencies had a greater influence in the lives of the members of the communities than might be the case in the U.S. With fewer community resources available in the underdeveloped host country, many of which were not available to the expatriate, there was a greater reliance on those provided by the sponsoring agency. Useem, et al. (1963)

Wolf (1969) wrote of the dominance of the military institution in the lives of expatriates of the community in his study. Military rank became the "chief classifier" of persons and determined the niche of fathers in the less pluralistic community. Domidion (1964) wrote of the marked influence of the U.S. ambassador on the dynamics of the community.

A number of researchers have found that the school often becomes a central focus of the expatriate community.

(Domidion, 1964; Droppert, 1984; King, 1968) During four years of living in an Eastern European expatriate community, Droppert found that the school provided a "common bond" for

the community, mentioning a variety of events including film evenings, dinners, card parties, cocktail parties, etc. which regularly took place at the school. While the school may often have become a unifying element in the community, Hager (1978) indicated that expatriate teachers seldom became truly part of the community. "They never totally accept the values of the community and are therefore less effective." Barriers which he cited to their integration into the community included:

1. standard of living - Teachers were well paid vis-a-vis teachers in the U.S. but not when compared to the community of business or government employees. They could not reciprocate invitations.
2. age and marital status - The teachers were often younger and single with those not single having teaching wives who could not take part in the activities of women in the community.
3. differing values - (Citing Coles) who indicated that he "detected ambivalence of the financially well off toward teachers" who were not servants but also not equals. (p.170)

In the U.S., teachers belonged individually to communities outside of school. Once overseas, as expatriates, these teachers did not fit into the third culture community. Having made limited inroads into the host community, they turned to each other for acceptance. They then "fractured and split into a number of cliques" which may

have been based on age group, marriage, religious orientation, newcomer/old etc. (Hager, 1978, p. 174-175)

King (1968) found a similar pattern of non-integration linked to income and privilege, and described an added feature associated with the fact that the working teacher had little time or energy to overcome the culture barrier to the host community and thus" ... tended to make their social life with others on the staff." (p. 63)

For individuals who have entered new jobs, there has always been much to learn and significant adjustment required if they were to be successful. When that job has taken them into a society in which they did not readily "fit" and one embedded in a radically different cultural setting, the required adjustment has been enormous. Much has been written about varying aspects of adjustment to environmental stress. One aspect of this reaction to a new culture has been termed "Culture Shock" and was "widely thought to be endemic in overseas travel." (Lundstedt, 1963, p. 3) Wire (1973) cited Young's definition of the term as "the inability to adjust to new surroundings and people as a result of which the individual manifests symptoms of anxiety, stress, and apathy." (p. 19) He went on to relate this to the absence of friends and cultural origins. In schools, he indicated that it was recognizable through symptoms such as excessive absence, inadequate teaching preparation, apathy in teaching, departure from classes during the day, and physical illness.

Nash (1970) wrote of "strangerhood" and "anomie"



associated with the adjustment of American expatriates to life in a Spanish town. He developed the hypothesis that those in a foreign scene, unable to "extract meaning" or a way to "extract compatibility" would feel anxiety until they reorganized their subjective world to feel "at home" in the city. Their problem, therefore, was to identify "confirming circles in the foreign scene or reorganize their frames of reference to obtain confirmation." (p. 125)

He wrote:

"Regardless of the foreign country to which a person migrates, we surmise that he is likely to experience, first, the condition of normlessness or meaninglessness (acute anomie) and later, the condition of value contradiction or conflict (simple anomie). Depending on his sensitivity and his ability to tolerate such conditions, he will tend to experience stranger anxiety. This anxiety will then become a more or less significant motivating factor in his overseas life. It will persist until he finds or works out an acceptable role which eliminates anomie and enables him to feel at home in the foreign setting." "Such anxiety tends to interfere with effective functioning, it would, in the case of the stranger, work against his adaptation." (p.188)

Useem and Useem (1966) developed a similar description in their discussion of a condition they termed "insidious stress." (p. 4) They indicated that "those conditions which engender stress in American families working and living overseas are largely ones connected with the basic needs of human existence - shelter, health, home maintenance, and

[the] socialization and education of the young." (p. 145) In a paper entitled, The Job: Stresses and Resources of Americans at Work in the Third Culture, (1963, p. 4), they indicated that the condition was more common and extreme in:

1. first-time-outers;
2. those organizations which do not prepare their people and do not subsidize housing, education etc.;
3. those with large families;
4. those with positions of low influence.

Brislin (1981) suggested that culture shock could have positive ramifications as a motivating force causing the individuals to learn about the new culture as well as their own. For this to happen, he suggested that the sojourners could prepare themselves to minimize the negative effects and stressed the importance of finding a "supportive niche" in the new setting. Nash (1970) had written of the importance of finding a circle of friends in providing relief and aiding in successful adaptation. He wrote of the value of familiar artifacts such as modern conveniences and appliances which provided "points of reference" for the sojourner.

A number of social scientists have attempted to describe the stages of culture shock as "J", reverse "J", "U", and "W" shaped curves. Regardless of detail, they seem to agree that sojourners could be expected to pass through a series of stages. Brislin (1981) used the following list of descriptive terms for his analysis of the stages in a "W" curve of adjustment. "... honeymoon ... hostility ... humor

... at home ... reverse Culture Shock." (p. 280)

In reference to expatriates new to their communities, Nash indicated that "a substantial minority never would get out of the stage of extreme strangerhood." (p. 126) This may correlate with Brislin's "hostility" stage in which the individuals developed strong negative feelings toward the host culture. Lambert (1966) related:

"One reaction to the gap between an American's self-esteem and the somewhat lower status he perceives as being given to his nation by his host is to choose to emphasize negatively valued aspects of his hosts' culture. If he makes this choice, he is beginning to slide well down into the 'J' curve. For denigration of the host country, he can quickly avail himself of a ready stock of hostile statements which are preserved, nurtured, and regularly served up at social gatherings by the more alienated of the permanent cadre in the American enclave." (p. 165)

Much of what has been found in the literature has related culture shock and adjustment in general terms to the subject of this dissertation. Wire (1973) however, drew a closer link. In expressing his concern for the effect of a teacher undergoing problems of adjustment to the good of the students, he wrote, "Teachers who have not themselves bridged the cultural gap cannot be effective in bringing about cultural understanding for their students. Attempts must be made, therefore, to select not only superior teachers but those who will be open to acceptance of cultural differences." (p. 4) King (1968) expressed a similar feeling

in writing that "a child who comes from a home which is in a state of culture shock needs to be with a teacher who can lend stability and security." (p. 54)

Brislin's (1981) work included a comment of particular significance for this study. "Any one sojourner will likely experience an easier adjustment to a pluralistic, rather than monistic society. There is more likely to be a match between what a sojourner brings and what some segment of the society values and more tolerance for any set of strategies and styles which she/he chooses to use." (p. 289) This may suggest that adjustment difficulties in communities isolated in non-pluralistic societies, such as those of Eastern Europe, were exacerbated by a "monistic" lack of tolerance for deviation which existed in those countries.

Useem and Useem (1966) has described three "generations" within the third culture. They described them as: (p. 8-9)

First timers - Individuals who were new to the host country and with no previous experience. These individuals were seen as, "... zealously dedicated to programmatic aims ...", were "plungers" into host culture, "... enthusiastic about possibilities of effecting change ... willing to subordinate personal concerns to programmatic goals".

Experienced - Individuals who had already made the adjustment to third culture living through a "first timer's" experience in another culture. These individuals were seen as, "... more cautious in investing their 'self' in the program ..." They were no less committed but may have

sought, "... other routes than the official one to accomplish the desired ends. They tended to express "less urgency" and less willingness to sacrifice personal pleasures.

Old Foreign Hands - These were seen as individuals who had adjusted to life in the community to the extent that they were no longer aware that the modern 'third culture' was different from that of the new arrival and may not have understood the resulting shock to the new arrival.

### **Modifiers of Cultural Adjustment**

A number of writers have commented on the value of knowledge of the local language as significant in the adjustment and success of the expatriate in the new setting. (King, 1968; Nash, 1970; Winfield, 1962; Wire, 1973) Nash noted that the "strangeness" of the new culture was reduced when the expatriate possessed a facility with the host language. In addition to its functional value, it had secondary importance in demonstrating a willingness of the "stranger" to try to bridge the cultural gap with the host society. David (1972) extended the importance of language facility in describing the relationship between language and social contact which he and others expressed as important to adjustment. Brislin (1981) commented on the new arrival's perception of "rebuff" on the part of the host as causing adjustment problems. David pointed out that language facility opens access to reinforcers and results in praise from members of the host culture. He stated that, "poor

intercultural adjustment may result from ... removal of reinforcers and presentation of adverse stimuli." (p. 43)

Through social contact with "hosts", the expatriate received immediate reinforcement and received information about and access to other reinforcers. This also provided information related to the avoidance of negative reinforcers. He contented that greater satisfaction or adjustment correlated with greater social contact. Brislin stated that "the basic point that cross-cultural adjustment is dependent upon support and acceptance by others is well established." Citing Taft, he wrote of the "value of group support in preventing tension from building up to 'debilitating' level." (p. 112)

Useem and Useem (1963) stated the situation succinctly with the comment, "Man is a social being and the isolated man is sick." (p. 8)

In analyzing the various factors contributing to the ease or difficulty of adjustment for expatriates in their move to a overseas post, a number of researchers have commented on the role played by marital status. Two distinct problems have been related. The first concerned the difficulties experienced by single expatriates which could become particularly significant in small communities and those located in countries where access to social contact was precluded by local customs or by ideological, religious, or racial barriers. (Cleveland, 1960; David, 1972; Frith, 1981; Nash, 1970; Torre, 1967; Winfield, 1962)

Nash (1970) speculated that "the 'liberated' single

woman might experience even greater anomie than her married colleague as a result of exposure to a culture in which the principal conception of the 'liberated' single woman continues to be fixed in the image of a whore." (p. 155) He indicated that the single woman would find very few acceptable men who would date or court her in the American style. He related that women, more than men, reported a decline in feelings of well being during their adjustment to the Latin culture of the country in which his study was set.

Cleveland commented in 1960 on the strains of moving across cultures. He indicated that these were less for men since they could rely on immersion into a challenging and potentially familiar work schedule upon arrival. They tended to give more attention to work and less to the family. This left the women to face the new culture "head on". With no work and lots of time she was left to cope with establishing contacts with the members of the local community which one counted on for services and the needs of daily life.

Winfield (1962) expressed the belief that culture shock and loneliness were not innately greater in men or women but less likely in men due to the ease with which they were able to move around in most countries.

The second problem relating to marital status and adjustment to expatriate life concerned pressure which the adjustment placed on married couples. On this subject, Torre (1967) stated, "Married couples who have not solved their marital difficulties are a common problem. In an overseas

mission, they must face up to their own interpersonal relations and cannot lead separate lives." (p. 85) Problems within marriages were not seen only as those associated with couples who had experienced difficulties prior to the relocation but were also of potential concern for normally happy couples, as indicated by Brislin (1981). He described the need for each member of even a successful marriage to maintain a friendship outside the partnership without which potential existed for the normal catharsis to be "unloaded" or vented with each other. Previous comments regarding the nature of the expatriate community might suggest that marriage partners may not individually or collectively find the friendships that would provide for a safe "outside" venting of stress and thus might experience more conflict than previously. Regardless of the marital status of the potential expatriate, Masland (1957) indicated that the wrong kind of motivation for pursuit of an overseas position, whether related to job dissatisfaction or failure or to unhappiness with one's personal life, could lead to failure abroad.

Several writers have indicated that administrators of international agencies have the potential to contribute to the success of those joining their staffs by acting to counteract the causes and alleviate the symptoms of culture shock and community adjustment. Winfield (1962) stated, "The bosses for their part are derelict in their duty if they do not see that young men and women on their staffs have help in



getting households organized and that they have access to transportation where it is needed, especially at night." "An administrator should make every effort to give the lowest paid American on his staff a chance to study the local language." (p. 202) King (1968) commented on the need for administrators to recognize symptoms of culture shock and do all they can to alleviate it. "Proper orientation and other preventative measures are more desirable than attempts at treatment after shock has set in." (p. 215) Attention to the issue of orientation and its development in the A/OS schools will be given in a subsequent section of this chapter.

Wire (1973) implied that those responsible for the transition of teachers into international schools were wise to give attention to this area of adjustment. He indicated that while there was a "lack of research" and "little direct evidence in the literature to establish a relationship between cultural adjustment and [teacher] effectiveness," (p. 27) it was seen to hold an important role in the preparation for Peace Corps trainees, many of whom were teachers and therefore may well have had significance for the adjustment of teachers in general.

### **Staff Turnover**

As has been indicated in the introductory material concerned with the development of the A/OS schools, a high rate of turnover of both staff and administrators has been repeatedly cited as a significant problem. Phillips (1974)

put it succinctly, "Any good schoolmaster anywhere will agree that the quality of education offered in any school is definitely effected by the degree of permanence or length of tenure of the teaching and administrative staff. A good educational program is far more than good pupils, good teachers, plus good books and equipment. It is all that plus a sound and growing philosophy and a teamwork that grows out of a well led school staff working effectively for years" (p. 9).

Droppert (1984) wrote of the difficulty in maintaining programs due to the constant turnover of faculty and students. During the two years previous to his 1968 study, King found that over 50% of schools reported the departure of at least one teacher prior to the conclusion of the contract. The problem was found to be greatest in Africa where turnover reached 58.3% annually. (p. 204)

To account for this situation King expressed the opinion that, "careless selection, inadequate orientation and culture shock of teachers or members of their families undoubtedly played an important part" (p. 207). He expressed the concern that "high teacher and administrator turnover coupled with a lack of published guides and courses of study indicate that a general lack of continuity is likely in overseas schools" (p. 207). McGugan (1970) stated that the "selection, employment and retention of competent professional personnel is one of the most persistent problems facing the overseas schools" (p. 92). Turnover of staff was apparently still

seen as a problem by 1984 when Droppert found that administrators, teachers and parents of 35 A/OS schools listed Staff and Student Turnover as either first or second out of the 15 variables identified as constraints on the international school administrator.

The causes for the high rate of turnover in the A/OS schools have been many and varied. King told of the affect of the tax laws of many countries essentially insuring high turnover of teachers and administrators. Brislin (1981) commented on the general relationship between low rewards of organizations and the turnover of staff.

A partial answer to the problem of turnover of staff in the expatriate schools has been to turn to the "local hire" teacher. This group of teachers has been made up of individuals who were "permanently" located in the community. They include those trained in U.S. or British colleges and universities who were married to host nationals or others as well as host nationals who may have received training locally or abroad. For the purpose of this study, the term "local hire" was not meant to include another group of teachers also referred by this term in other sources. These individuals were the spouses (generally wives) of short term expatriates who were hired on the local salary schedule. The term "dependent spouses" has been used in reference to these individuals.

The feelings of practitioners regarding the value of the "local hire" have not been uniform. Kelly (1974) expressed

that "when an administrator can hire locally, he is most fortunate. Permanence provides the stability evolving programmes must have" (p. 84). While recognizing the potential for building continuity and the cost savings which result from their employment, King (1968) commented on problems of hiring local hire and dependent spouses due to their divided responsibilities and "the other roles they must play as wife, mother, hostess etc" (p. 50). Domidion (1964) wrote of situations in which the school was forced by local government to hire 50% locals and it was "difficult to find enough qualified individuals" (p. 10). Chudler (1974) cautioned about hiring host national teachers, pointing out that while there may have been improved public relations with an internationalization of the staff, it might also lead to a "loss of quality" (p. 121).

As one considered the effects of permanence verses rapid turnover in the staff of a school there were differing problems associated with each. The transient teacher had many aspects of adjustment to overcome before the concentration necessary for excellence with the student could be given. These adjustments may have been associated with the necessities of daily living in a new and potentially hostile environment. While addressing these aspects of the new culture, the recently arrived teacher was also called upon to adjust to the particulars of the school, its community, and students, all of which may have been entirely different from the conditions of the teacher's home

community. The new teacher generally lacked the knowledge of the available community resources and may have been severely hampered through the absence of simple items which had previously been readily available. (Kelly, 1974)

### **International Staff Recruitment**

Since difficulties in obtaining staff work permits were frequent and there was a need for considerable time to adequately prepare for travel abroad, international staff recruitment, out of necessity, has occurred far earlier than that in schools in the U.S. School Heads in the A/OS schools have been forced to make preliminary staffing decisions in January to permit attendance at recruitment centers in February. Final staffing decisions were generally made by the end of March. As the recruitment activities were designed to satisfy staffing needs of the following September and given the uncertainties of student enrollment in the interim period, the small school administrator was forced to recruit staff members with flexibility and a range of skills. In commenting on the need for early administrative action related to staffing and materials for an unknown Fall enrollment, Kelly (1974) cautioned, "if guesses are wrong, plenty of the wrong teachers and supplies will be on hand with no money to pay for either." (p. 87)

In his investigation of the recruitment, selection and retention of teachers for the A/OS schools, King (1968) indicated that there was little prior research on which to

draw. His exploration of the recruitment practices in A/OS schools led to his finding that 40% of the Heads of schools surveyed felt that low pay adversely affected the recruitment of fully qualified teachers. Domidion (1964) pointed out the difficulty which A/OS schools had in competing with stateside school in benefits and a particular difficulty in recruiting male teachers.

The importance of the recruitment of individuals who were likely to succeed in the overseas setting and remain for more than a year or two was stressed by Frith (1981), Torre (1967), and Wire (1973). Quebeck (1970) sought to identify characteristics of successful overseas teachers. In his survey of 12 administrators, little agreement could be found. Listed as agreed characteristics were:

- recognition of the opportunity for continuous growth;
- no fear of evaluation;
- a strong sense of justice;
- sensitivity to the importance of communication and a willingness to learn the language of the host country.

Given the cost of recruitment and relocation and the disruption of the program associated with rapid turnover, it was inferred that significance should be attached to the recruitment of individuals with the "ability to cope with local conditions ... ability to live in a small, intimate American community ... ability to get along and work with the indigenous people" (Wire, 1973, p. 83). Frith (1981) commented on the importance of "recruiting the right man the

first time." (p. 12)

A key ingredient in the question of staff turnover has been the concept of what characteristics would make a good teacher for the A/OS schools. Frith's (1981) simple statement, "The best individual for the job may not do the best job." (p. 12), implied that the administrator needed to examine a range of variables besides classroom competence in deciding which candidate to hire. Cleveland (1960) wrote of the value of experienced and tested individuals. Winfield (1962) indicated the importance of examining the individual's goals in seeking overseas employment. He and others have expressed concern over those who appear to have been escaping from an undesired life style in their home community. King (1968) concluded that schools are apparently willing to accept marginal teachers and stated that "an overseas school is no place for persons with marital difficulties or other personal problems." (p. 208)

King (1968) stated that the methods of recruiting and selection of teachers for the A/OS schools are "similar to those used domestically." (p. 49) He described the process of examination of the local market, seeking prospective candidates through agencies, and conducting interviews. An interesting feature which was not often found in schools in the U.S. was that in some cases, the Head was authorized to offer contracts on the spot, to candidates deemed to meet the needs of the school. This was done to eliminate the problems associated with delays in correspondence.

Cleveland (1960) stated that "when it comes to recruiting for overseas service, nothing is likely to replace an interview - except a longer interview or multiple interviews by different interviewers." (p. 172) Thomas (1974) stressed the need for administrators to gather more information on candidates than that which they submitted directly or through their placement agencies. He implied that the benefit from telephone calls to current and previous employers was worth the expense. King (1968) expressed numerous concerns related to the recruitment/orientation phase of teacher employment. He wrote of a time when the Head who could not interview personally had to rely on others and correspondence. He found that 10% of administrators surveyed felt that they should always interview candidates, with another 67% indicating that they should, if at all possible. He made no comment about the remaining 23% and in examining actual recruitment practices he found that 67% of schools with fewer than 200 students did not send administrators to the U.S. to interview. Having examined the topic at depth, King implied considerable significance in the issue and recommended that the "Heads of even small schools be sent to the U.S. for recruitment." (p. 208)

Other areas of concern which King expressed, involved the lack of suitable materials to mail to prospective teachers, little assistance in obtaining visas etc., a lack of attention to the needs of new teachers on the part of Heads and boards, situations in which teachers arrived only



hours before school was to start and no ongoing orientation program (p. 211). Thomas (1974) cautioned administrators about the use of "some agents of overseas talent ... running educational employment 'body shops'" with "no knowledge of the needs and desired skills of employees" (p. 141).

Concern has been expressed by Windfield (1962) regarding the temptation of "over sell" in the recruitment of teachers and school Heads. Eddison (1967) cautioned that it was "better to have a candidate decline the job offer than to have a new Head arrive, take one short look, and decide that his family can't live under those conditions or he can't work under other conditions" (p. 22). The error of exaggerating the beauty and features of the host country in recruiting teachers was commented on by King (1968).

### **Orientation**

Those who have conducted research involving the variables in the successful adjustment to living and working abroad have commented at length regarding the importance of the orientation as one step in the success or failure of individuals in their new setting. (Brislin, 1982; Chudler, 1974; Frith, 1981; Hager, 1978; Useem et al. 1963) Hager expressed the concern that not only were teachers required to adjust to a new country and culture but they were new to the school and administrator and thus had no fixed "institutional policies to fall back on when things get rough" (p. 153). He concluded that it was the obligation of the school to prepare

them to function in the new culture and new organization.

Useem et. al. (1963) wrote of the need of easing the transition of men from one society to another. "Recognition of the need to learn quickly has led to the establishment of a number of orientation programs, particularly for Americans" (p.7). Frith (1981) indicated that the transition of the recruit should begin prior to departure from the U.S. He wrote of the importance of the family learning as much as possible before departure, suggesting that they be put in contact with others who had lived in the particular country and had returned to the U.S. Brislin (1981) commented on the importance of a "transitional stage" (p. 144) in the beginning of a sojourn and the benefit of a pre-sojourn orientation program. He suggested that "administrative understanding of stress relating to intercultural contact may allow him/her to intervene to minimize aggressive reactions to stress and maximize non-aggressive reactions" (p.4). He described the existence of extensive programs of cross-cultural awareness utilized by government agencies and large companies in the preparation of their employees for overseas living.

Frith (1981) suggested that employers supply the following "Orientation Checklist" (p. 20-21) and implied that they should offer guidance on relevant items, "satisfaction of which should ensure that the employee is suitably prepared for adjustments necessary to be a successful expatriate."

"1.Nature of job, its responsibilities and objectives

2. Compensation - salary, allowances, benefits and taxes
3. Letter of agreement - terms and conditions
4. Personnel policies applicable to overseas assignment:
  - o Medical requirements
  - o Language training
  - o Home sale/lease protection
  - o Automobile sale protection
  - o Shipping/storage of household effects
  - o Travel arrangements
  - o Work schedules, holidays, vacations
  - o Overseas housing
  - o Schooling and further education
  - o Tax counseling
  - o Emergencies
  - o Repatriation
5. Documentation
  - o Passports, Visa, Work Permits, Medical Records
  - o Birth and Marriage Certificates, Insurance policies, Tax Records
6. Orientation and briefing on living conditions, climate and culture."

It appeared unlikely that the importance of this aspect of the school's staffing had been generally recognized by 1968, when King commented on the orientation of new staff members as, "one of the most neglected functions of overseas school administrators" (p. 205). He indicated that "there appears to be a great reliance upon informal, loosely structured contact between employees." He found that 25% of schools had no orientation program and that programs were formalized in

only 37.8% of the smaller schools. "Overseas school personnel often forget their first experiences and leave the new teacher and his family to fend for themselves upon arrival" (p. 59).

Domidion (1964) found a similar condition in that 13 of 28 schools involved in her study had no planned induction or orientation program. Other areas of which King expressed concern included the absence of materials to be sent to prospective and newly hired teachers, the limited assistance given in obtaining visas etc., a lack of attention to the needs of new teachers, and situations in which teachers arrived only hours before school was to start.

One indication of a cognizance of the need for proper orientation was found in the existence of Overseas Orientation Workshops held from 1972 on by the Inter-Regional Center for Curriculum and Materials Development. As indicated in the program report of 1976, (Anonymous) new recruits from up to 17 schools from Central and South America participated in a joint orientation program held in Miami during the August prior to departure for their new schools. The program, then in its fifth year, was reported as of significant value to participants, however, a variety of logistical problems resulted in the fact that a substantial number of schools and individuals were unable to participate.

Though not common in the A/OS schools, Hager (1978) cited one example of a comprehensive approach to the problem as existing at the American School of the Hague. He offered

the following quoting from the school's board policy manual:

"Recognizing that new teachers must make a satisfactory personal adjustment to living in The Netherlands in order to perform effectively as teachers, the superintendent shall arrange a program of orientation for new teachers prior to the beginning of the instructional calendar. In particular, the superintendent shall arrange for new teachers to be met upon arrival in Holland and will provide assistance in locating suitable housing if necessary. He shall also hold such meetings as are necessary to acquaint the staff with the host country in general and with the school system in particular. Arrangements shall be made for a reception for all new teachers and their spouses. The Executive Committee views the orientation program as essential and shall annually make provisions to cover all costs in the budget." (American School of the Hague, Policy 4115.1)

A goal of orientation as expressed by Brislin (1981) should be "to encourage consideration of situational variables as judgments are being made rather than making negative judgments on the basis of preconceived ideas and prejudices about the other culture" (p. 163).

In the preparation for a new staff member, it was seen to be desirable that the housing be ready and complete with sheets on the bed and food in the refrigerator. The initial reaction to where and how the family will live often sets the tone for the first several weeks. Housing should be comparable to that provided by foreign organizations for

their professional personnel. It was considered important that the new arrival met all relevant members of the community and had a host country orientation. There was a need for someone to be available and meet with the new arrival more frequently than might be normal. (Eddison, 1967) Though Eddison's writing concerned the proper preparation for the arrival of a new Head of school, it would seem that these guidelines would have been equally valid for the arrival of a teacher.

Useem et al. (1963) wrote of the value of linkage during the entrance to a new community. They indicated that "functionally linked" affiliations tend to minimize the obstacles to rapport in three ways: they ease understanding between members, they result in fewer obstacles in the host-guest relationship, and they allow for a less personal interaction to occur (p. 13). Brislin (1981) wrote that "cultural adjustment is dependent upon establishing group ties and successfully completing one's task-related goals" (p. 283). Assuming that this observation was correct, the administrator could assist in the adjustment of the new arrival by providing them with ample time for socialization and by causing them to become professionally involved.

A second aspect of functionally linked group orientation was expressed by Domidion (1964) in stressing the value of current staff members in orienting new staff and in drawing new staff members into the functional group. Brislin (1981) wrote of the "model value of the 'old hand' for new

arrival...they made it through and can show the newcomer how" (p. 147).

While many of the comments of writers have led to a concern for the inequities of the small isolated school, Brislin (1981) drew attention to one specific benefit. He pointed out that in under-manned situations new arrivals experience greater satisfaction since each has a more important role in the goals of the organization. Domidion (1964) saw a double value in drawing the new arrivals into the staff. Not only was it seen as good for the new arrival but they often represented a resource for tenured staff members concerning current educational materials and thinking in the U.S. This knowledge of current information, resource, and trends had the potential to assist the new arrival in finding their special niche.

As seen in the writings of the many of the researchers cited thus far, new arrivals had a complete interpersonal world to replace. They needed involvement, acceptance, opportunities to socialize and assistance in grappling with the dynamics of the new cultural setting. They may also have had a need for Winfield's (1962) "family member", someone to advise them to "look, listen, and withhold judgment." (p. 124)

### **Staff Development - A General View**

Staff development has been an emerging concept in the American philosophy of education for essentially the past 60

years. In tracing educators' increasing awareness and concern for this facet of the profession, Howey and Vaughan (1983) commented on the changing role of the school, and therefore the teacher, which began in the thirties and has accelerated throughout the intervening years. The changes in the structure of the family and the great ideological debates brought on by the depression and World War II, the political issues and technological "revolution" stimulated by the war effort and rekindled with the flight of Sputnik, the social upheaval of the sixties and the deep questioning of the nation's basic values which accompanied the Vietnam War and Watergate scandal resulted in an expansion of the mission of the school and of the role of the teacher.

Prior to the depression of the 30's, staff development was primarily concerned with the "knowledge base" of the teacher, with little attention given to pedagogical practices. Both pre-service and in-service teacher activities were involved more with "dispensing information about" the new educational "theories rather than using them as a mode for teacher education or modelling their application" (Howey & Vaughan, 1983, p. 93)

As demands on the schools increased, satisfaction with schools has decreased. The "failures" of American education were headline news following the launch of Sputnik. Teachers as the key element in schools became a focal point for criticism with staff development taking on a teacher centered, "deficit" view of the in-service function. The



teacher in this case was seen as a "reservoir of techniques and in-service education as an additive process." (Houston & Pankratz, 1980, p. 41)

Dorras (1968) wrote of the conditions which had created the need for in-service as

- a. employment of inadequately trained persons;
- b. raising standards and preparation during the career lives of teachers;
- c. varying conditions, philosophies, and procedures in different school systems;
- d. rapid growth of knowledge in almost all fields in which schools offer instruction;
- e. new knowledge of learning process;
- f. new instructional materials and devices;
- g. changing economic, technological, political, and social conditions" (p. 31).

As a solution to the perceived problem, school districts and many states legislated continuing education requirements for their teachers. These were individual and teacher centered activities. That in most cases there was no requirement on the type of course to be taken suggested that courses of convenience and potentially lower quality might have been taken to complete requirements. This and the potential lack of motivation in taking courses for salary scale credit may have resulted in less than maximum benefit. (Dorras, 1968) By 1985, Schlechty and Whitford concluded that there was little evidence that continuing education has

produced much change in schools.

The "teacher centered" model of staff development was consistent with Lortie's (1975) view that the very structure of the American approach to education has developed the role of the teacher as a solitary profession in which a "'cellular' pattern" grew with the school, "composed of multiple self-contained classrooms and with chronically high turnover in teaching ranks." Classes were "self-contained". Teachers were added when an additional "unit" of students entered the school. When teachers were replaced, the job was seen in terms of subject matter or grade level rather than in terms of "a fit" into a teaching team. He indicated that "it took over a hundred years ... for serious opposition to arise to the 'egg crate school'" (p. 14).

Concern for staff development based on a teacher centered model was summarized by Goodlad (1983) in commenting on the isolated nature of schools in which workshops, seminars, and graduate study require that teachers leave the school and when they return they continue in an isolated manner as before.

In an allegorical article in which Sharma (1982) compared teacher in-service to the "servicing" of Flossie, Grandpop's "old Jersey Heifer", he wrote,

"The teaching staff was herded into a meeting, penned by contract language that said the principal could hold monthly in-service meetings and teachers must attend. A visiting expert appeared, producing a projector and transparencies from the trunk of his

car. He checked to see if we were ready by stating, 'Everyone wants to know about ...' "Then he proceeded to insert an hour and a half of details into us, and in the end, like poor old Flossie, we didn't get to join in the act and we didn't have much fun. It just happened" (p. 40).

Having made his point regarding the top down, paternalistic practices which had existed, Sharma declared the need for the teacher to be involved in setting the priorities in in-service planning and development.

The frustration with the then current state of staff development planning was summarized by Houston and Pankratz (1980) in the statement, "Most of what we currently refer to as in-service is characterized by sterility and lack of personalization." (p. 38) They set the tone for what they would like to have seen by defining staff development as, "all those programs designed to improve the competency of school personnel at all levels with the expressed intent of improving the quality of learning for students." (p. 129) They indicated that a "comprehensive staff development program operated on two levels": the first level being one of Orientation and the second aimed at In-depth and Long-term development. Within these "levels", three areas of concern were delineated as foci: curriculum-related, organization-related, and personal development (p. 128)

Though still teacher centered in that the concern was for the "competency of school personnel", a shift in focus

could be noted toward concern for the group and the organization as a whole. This characteristic began to be seen in the writings relating to Organization Development and Personnel Management. Houston and Pankratz (1980) wrote, "The very essence of teacher in-service education is viewed here as a team or small group of teachers who work together on a continuing basis, who have developed a sense of mutual trust and respect and who are able daily to provide one another with accurate, precise, and humane feedback about their behavior in the classroom. In-service education should be a natural, on-going process which, in an atmosphere of respect, administration, and yes, even love, fosters cooperative problem-solving, curriculum development and exploration with the art and science of teaching." (p. 38)

"Teacher involvement" had long been seen as an important ingredient of staff development literature. (Dorras, 1968) This trend was not confined to and did not originate with educators. Peters and Waterman drew attention to the motivational value of "worker involvement in their 1982 book In Search of Excellence: Lessons From America's Best Run Companies, stating, "We observed time and again, extraordinary energy exerted above and beyond the call of duty when the worker...is given even a modicum of control over his destiny."

Howey and Vaughan (1983) summarized what they saw as reasons for the failings of earlier staff development efforts as:

1. infrequent involvement with practical, classroom oriented activities - program content was too general and theoretical;
2. having little continuity and coordination between the varied staff development activities of the school;
3. having little feedback - teachers need to see the effect of changes whether on them or on the performance of their students - effects must be measurable or notable;
4. programs too frequently seeming deficit rather than growth oriented;
5. too much focus on the teacher rather than the institution and other factors.

Goodlad (1983) wrote of the school as a "work place" and that if educators made the assumption that the culture and ethos of the school was important and could be changed, school could be a satisfying place to work. For this to happen it was seen as necessary for the total faculty of the school to be involved and the **school** to be seen as the **basic unit** for staff development activities. As elements of a rationale for this view, he listed four areas of potential benefit for the school. He expressed the opinion that a focus on the school as the unit for attention:

1. engenders community support;
2. reduces the danger of overemphasis on one part of the school;

3. increases the chance of improving the school as a work place;
4. "enhances the potential for personal satisfaction and also for making schools increasingly satisfactory and effective educational settings." (p. 42)

Paralleling the rise in attention being given to the "group" and "whole school" approach to school improvement has been the assertion that staff developers must be aware of the "readiness" of the recipient of staff development activities and of the concept of "adult development." Howey and Vaughan (1983) commented on the importance of a change agent being knowledgeable of the status of the school in question and the needs and readiness of the participants.

Readiness, as used by Houston and Pankratz (1980), related to the state of knowledge and acceptance of the innovation and its value brought to the process by the intended recipient of the staff development activity. Levels described as "Orientation, Preparation, Mechanical Use, Routine Uses, Refinement, and Integration" were used to suggest that the innovation process should not be thought of as a short term activity. They expressed criticism that in-service activities, in spite of the knowledge regarding the reduced energy level of older teachers and the generally tired condition of the staff, continue to be scheduled after school and apart from the teaching job "rather than as an activity integrated and embedded in the job." (p. 34)

Klopf warned of this in 1973 when he suggested that all

plans for in-service activities should be made in terms of the needs of participants and that planners should pay attention to the time and place and not schedule important discussions related to innovation at the end of the day.

Schlechty and Whitford (1983) pointed out that the schools needed to recognize that goals associated with adult growth were important to the success of schools. Essentially all justification for what has been done in schools has been linked to child growth as the prime legitimizing of schools. As some adult growth activities such as workshops, conferences, travel, and joint planning time would interfere with child growth activities, there was a need to consider the relative values and plan accordingly.

Thus it would seem that the then current thinking regarding staff development in education in 1985 suggested a model which included concern for the individual rather than concern about the individual and the concept that the group or institution was seen as being made up of individuals rather than individuals seen as parts of the group or institution. Clearly, there was been a shift in the meaning of the term "staff development" from one of the development of individual members of a staff to one of the development of a staff unit from individuals whose abilities were developed and whose needs were considered.

Though not universally acceptable when speaking to or about members of "professions", the field of personnel management may have offered a useful framework within which

to consider a larger context for the term staff development. Flipppo (1984) commented on his 1961 edition of Personnel Management, that he had set forth a basic framework which had "proved sufficiently flexible and comprehensive" to have accommodated the many changes in the subsequent twenty years. This framework included the following "sequence of functions": (p. xiii)

- Procurement of personnel;
- Development through training and education;
- Compensation to insure equity;
- Integration to align interests of employees, management, and the union;
- Maintenance to insure continuity of this able and willing work force;
- Separation to return personnel to society when no longer required

If applied to U.S. education, it might have seemed appropriate to delegate the "Development through training and education" function to Colleges and University as being outside the sphere of the local school districts. The other five functions could easily have been aligned with existing functions in school personnel management and thus applicable to staff development in its global sense.

With the consolidation of U.S. schools into larger units these five remaining functions became somewhat parcelled out. The building principal of the large school, out of necessity,



may not have been intimately involved in the selection of teachers or the negotiation of compensation packages. He/she may have delegated in-service planning and the maintenance functions of assessment and career counseling to subordinates. The re-emergence of the building principal as a focal point of attention in the staff development process may have resulted in and necessitated that the principal become more intimately involved with staff development issues.

#### **The Role of the Administrator**

Much has been written of the importance of the building principal in the improvement of schools. If one accepts the school as the appropriate unit for attention, as Goodlad (1983) has urged, then the role of the principal as enabler within the unit would place the individual in that job at the focal point of the staff development process. He wrote that "we will have good schools when we have good principals" and called for a decentralized authority in which those involved develop and update three to five plans and a reward structure which is shifted from an individual base (salary schedule, etc.) to a site based attack on school problems, quality of work place etc.

The importance of the principal has been recognized for sometime. Dorras (1968) cited studies which showed a relationship between working climate in the school and competence of the administrator. Perhaps what was missing

was a recognition of the importance of the working climate in the school. Klopf (1973) commented on the importance of building principals in involving persons and resources to support staff development. He stated, "Staff growth and change is a process, the heart of which is the enabling role of one individual with another. Central to this process are the principals. They need to gain the competencies to enact certain functions of the enabler role. ... it does not just happen. It takes a competent principal who can initiate, facilitate, energize, and make things happen." (p. 8) Klopf saw the following elements of the principal's role among others as relating to staff development: (p. 8-9)

1. Adding to the staff's understanding of the educational and social role of the school in the rapidly changing American society;
2. Analyzing the climate for change in the school setting and outlining strategies for change to teachers and other school personnel;
3. Accurately identifying the characteristics of the community;
4. Developing team relationships among staff members by -
  - a. functioning effectively as a staff team leader;
  - b. functioning effectively as a member of the staff team;
  - c. delegating staff development leadership responsibility to members of a staff team;

5. Encouraging collegiality between the paraprofessional and professional;
6. Implementing and facilitating individual teacher self-evaluation.

Kane (1985) indicated a number of ways in which the administrator could influence the development of the staff member. These included such things as:

- the importance of helping beginning teachers in combatting the sink-or-swim initiation into teaching by giving master teachers time off to coach new teachers individually;
- facilitating participation in out of school, local, and national workshops and conferences which offer "opportunities to stay abreast of educational change";
- encouraging inter-class visitation within the school or day visits with colleagues in another school;
- the economic use of staff meetings cutting down on announcements and maintenance activities;
- and a system centered on teacher improvement rather than on teacher assessment - growth rather than rating.

### **The Administrator in the A/OS School**

The importance of the administrator in the international school has been well recognized and has been perhaps greater than that of his U.S. counterpart. Domidion, (1964) stated that "the administrator is the major variable having

influence upon the entire school program and the community involved" (p. xiv). She cited the comment of Edward Meade, Jr. on the subject, "a bad overseas school is likely to be very bad indeed; a good one is often phenomenally effective. And it is usually the principal who makes the difference" (p. 8). In his discussion of the work of overseas executives, Torre (1967) indicated that the success of a mission and its overall tone is affected by the Chief of Mission. This was "more significant than other factors on the morale of the mission. The attitude of the staff toward black-marketing illegal money and other 'shady' practices is closely related to the attitude of the Chief of Mission" (p. 88). While not writing specifically about schools, the concepts were, perhaps, equally pertinent.

A significant reason for the heightened importance of the administrator in the international school setting relates to the size and isolation of many of the schools; for in most cases, the administrator has been alone in his school. Kelly (1974) indicated that the "absence of other administrators to share with is a strange and unanticipated loss that is difficult to adjust to" (p. 7). Frith (1981) stressed a need for self-reliance in the overseas administrator since he/she "will have no one to turn to in times of crises" (p. 13).

In his study of Chief Administrative Officers of bi-national schools of Central America, Bentz (1972) related the complex role of international school administrators to

their interactions with four quite disparate and diverse constituencies:

1. a bi-national community of varying size and composition having a very mobile element and differing beliefs as to the nature of a good school;
2. a board of governance of varying size and composition, differing in tenure and expectation as to the appropriate relationship between the roles of the board, its members and the administrator of the school;
3. a professional staff which must be recruited and welded from individuals of several cultures, each of whom brings a set of perceptions relating to student conduct, teaching and learning;
4. a highly mobile and diverse student body from a range of different cultures and educational systems.

Adding to the pressure on the international school administrator has been his role as the interface with a range of influential institutions and individuals from the community which the school serves. These range from relatively "high influence" institutions such as host government, U.S. embassy and international agencies to individuals of great wealth, governmental position, or international fame. Bale (1984) commented that the nature of clientele of the schools typically included the elite of host nationals and the diplomatic corps, who had high expectations and desires for quality. With this as a prominent factor,

there has been a need for the "best available administrators" (p. 32).

Overseas administrators have generally had no local peers. It was imperative that they have had good relations with a range of individuals including board members and other significant individuals in the community. This required considerable political skill and survival instinct. They have usually had to contend with rumors about their effectiveness and the direction and intent of their initiatives. (Cleveland, 1960)

Bentz (1972, citing Orr) concluded that working within and between the multi-dimensional communities of the international schools was "infinitely more complex and apparently more demanding and difficult than it is in urban schools in the U.S. or elsewhere." (p. 9) Problems of organization, administration, finances, and staffing were seen as more extensive than in the average school in the United States. Given the range of roles and skills required of the administrator of the small and often developing international school, he must often perform tasks of an "institution-building" nature.

Domidion (1964) indicated that, "the job of the overseas principal involves many demands different from those encountered in local systems in the States" (p. viii). She also felt that there was a heightened importance of the administrator's role as a representative of the school in the American community, and as one of the principal

representatives of the American community to the expatriate and host communities.

### **Administrative Training and Experience**

One might consider that the international school administrator's job would have been a substantial task, but well within the capacity of an experienced administrator. Frequently, however, the school which had the greatest need of a seasoned, veteran administrator was the very school which given its size could least afford to offer a benefit package necessary to recruit such a person. (Domidion, 1964; Mannino, 1970) Further, Droppert (1984) felt that recruitment may have been more difficult due to the location of the schools and local living conditions.

**Table 3**  
**Percent Distribution of Highest Earned Degrees**  
**of C.A.O's of A/OS schools,**  
**by Student Population Grouping**

	under 50	50 to 99	100 to 199	200 to 299	300 to 399	400 to 599	600 to 999	1,000 and above	Average %
Bachelor's	43	33	18	18	-	5	7	12	16
Master's	50	47	64	65	39	60	67	33	53
Doctorate	-	13	9	12	54	35	20	54	26
Other	7	7	9	6	8	-	7	-	5
Number of Schools	14	15	22	17	13	20	15	24	

(Luebke, 1976, p. 26)

From Table 3, it could be seen that for schools with fewer than 600 students, a direct relationship existed between the size of the schools and the percent of school Heads holding graduate degrees.

Domidion (1964) found that 40% of administrators in her survey were in their first overseas experience. Seventy five percent of administrators in King's study (1968) had held their post for no more than 2 years with 25% in their first administrative post of any type. Bentz (1972) reported that 14 of the 23 CAO's of his study had no overseas experience prior to taking up their posts. He indicated that in the large schools a "more stable organizational condition was observed" (p. 15). Administrators tended to remain in their post for a longer time. He credited the tenured administrator with giving the school an institutional stability, a "past, present, and future" (p. 56-57).

Stoddard (1980) summarized a number of author's concerns about the quality of administration of the A/OS schools. She cited a frequent lack of administrative experience, a failure to consider relevant local conditions as differing from those in the U.S., and a lack of preparedness in dealing with the host country power structure as suggestive of questionable quality in administrators. Domidion, (1964) indicated that the "unprepared administrator may not be ready for the local concept of time, manners, and protocol" (p. 51). Domidion (1964) lamented at the level of training and/or preparation



of administrators who were taking over overseas schools. "Many are teachers stepping out of the classroom for the first time" (p. vii). The head of school who was new to the international schools generally lacked knowledge specific to operation of a school in the given setting. There was a necessity for the new administrator to learn such elements as how to apply for financial assistance, how to obtain curriculum planning help, and a host of local government regulations.

#### **Administrative Turnover**

Considerable concern has been expressed over the frequent change in direction with the turnover of the Heads of schools. (McGugan, 1970) In his examination of the tenure of Heads of schools, King (1968) found that 75% had been in their post for less than three years. In reference to the two-year contracts signed by most Heads, Kelly (1974) indicated that "this allows hardly enough time to do much more than to prepare for a few innovative improvements. Usually, it will take most of the first year to develop rapport, identify needs, and begin to implement needed change. During the second year, as programming successfully develops, the tour of duty ends and the Head leaves" (p. 85).

The concern for administrative turnover did not, however, seem to be uniformly felt. King, (1968) found that 25% of the administrators in his survey favored one year contracts with 56% favoring two year contracts (p. 194).

Similarly, the importance placed on prior experience varied significantly in the view of different members of the school community. Droppert (1984) found that whereas administrators ranked "Lack of Administrative Experience" as 12th of 15 items as to "Constraints on the International Administrator", teachers in the same schools ranked the item as 6th in significance (p. 133-134).

### **Professional Growth for Administrators**

In his analysis of the career paths of international school administrators, Bale (1984), pointed to the value of networking and friends in attaining overseas posts and to enhancing overseas careers. He found an absence of career paths with only a vestige of the mentoring normally found in the growth and development of the careers of administrators in the U.S. Where mentoring was found, it was of an informal nature and for a relatively short duration. He indicated that to a large extent administrators learn by "trial an error ... [and]... may take a long time to stumble onto an appropriate way of handling a problem" (p. 25). He expressed concern that in this setting, failure often lessens the self esteem and confidence of the new head of school. The new administrator could ill afford this learning process since, as Chudler (1974) indicated, the teachers and community expected the new administrator to immediately take charge of the school and exhibit strong leadership. It was necessary that this be done with "little or no orientation" (p. 118).

In examining the growth of administrators after assuming their post at the time of his study, Bale (1984) found that of 56 administrators, 55% indicated that they had received no help from overseas school boards with respect to further training. In response to the question concerning areas of need, more formal training related to Financial and Business Affairs, Public Relations, the Local Language, and Counseling were most frequently listed with only 4 of 56 expressing a need for training in Personnel Management and 5 included Personnel Evaluation as a concern.

Although Mannino (1970) related that the administrators of A/OS schools as a group were better prepared than their faculties, he stated, "too many schools are not attracting or recruiting accomplished 'change agents' among their key administrative and teaching staffs. Relatively inexperienced and frequently inept school directors are employed. Moreover, the turnover among qualified administrators and teachers approaches 50% annually. No systematic program of institutional reform or instructional innovation can be built upon that soft a personnel base" (p.114).

### **Staff Development in the A/OS Schools**

As has been presented previously, the focus of staff development in recent years has turned to the school unit, the enabling of the teacher, and the role of team builder/enabler of the administrator. International educators have commented on three distinct levels regarding

the development of the functioning staff of a school. At the risk of criticism for connecting quotes out of context, an interesting statement results from connecting King's (1968) simple comment, "The key to the school's success lies in the staff itself," (p. 5) to that of Cleveland (1960), "The first condition of effective institution-building is to build from within," (p. 158) and follow with that of Droppert (1984), "The personality of the administrator was seen as important in maintaining a cohesive and productive working unit in the schools" (p. 11). Together these seemed to reflect much of the spirit of the work of staff developers in the past few years.

In many regards the situation regarding staff development in the international schools should have been better than that in the U.S. If, as inferred, much of the problem in large U.S. school districts was related to the cumbersome and distant aspect of central administrative management verses local control, the international schools should have had an edge. Chudler (1974) has pointed out that the international school administrator has a high degree of freedom in planning the school's program. He indicated that this has not accompanied significant staff development activity through his statement, "Developmental and in-service educational opportunities in most foreign countries are practically non-existent." (p. 118)

The literature suggests that at least part of the reason for the absence of significant staff development activity in

the schools seems to have been in the nature of the administrative role in the school and a question of priorities. Bahner (1974) stated that, "Administrators especially tend to be career-oriented overseas and are less likely than their stateside counterparts to be able to provide the leadership needed in promoting innovations." (p. 165) Suggesting that this may be passing, he commented on a recent trend of administrators toward taking a year off for graduate study.

Droppert (1984) presented the administrators, teachers and members of communities of expatriate schools with a list of 20 variables identified with the Role of an Administrator in the local school. The groups of administrators and teachers ranked Staff Development as 6th in importance. Listed as more important (though not in the same order) were the administrator's role as Instructional Leader, Policy Maker, Decision Maker, Information Coordinator, and Experienced Teacher. Parents ranked Staff Development as 9th in importance, placing Decision Maker as lower and adding Business Manager, Maintains US/UK Orientation, and Academic Specialist in higher positions.

As previously indicated, the international school administrator has been quite often alone in his role in the school community. He has frequently been inexperienced in general and has not tended to remain in his post for a long time. Given these factors and the plethora of role expectations, it may not have been surprising that activities

such as staff development had not received much attention.

### **Staff Development and the A/OS Teacher**

Among the few comments on the subject in the literature, Bahner's (1974) were not very promising. He suggested that there was a tendency for overseas teachers not to attend "refresher courses in U.S. universities during the summer since they either prefer to travel or spend the time visiting with friends and relations if they return to the United States" (p. 165). He commented on the high cost of professional literature overseas, few graduate courses and conferences to which teachers could be sent, and the little chance for interaction with colleagues other than those in the same school. He stated that "teachers who make their career overseas tend to lack exposure to professional literature and current trends" (p. 165).

As has been reported in discussing the work of the O/OS, considerable effort has been made in the development of regionally based associations through which the deficiencies reported by Bahner may have been ameliorated. He reported involvement in a regional (League) concept termed, Individually Guided Education (IGE) through the Institute for the Development of Educational Activities. This O/OS project, which commenced in 1971 with centers in Sao Paulo and Singapore and expanded, adding centers in Madrid and Bogota in 1972, was not seen as a permanent activity but rather one of seeding. More permanent were the Regional

Associations. As previously indicated, these have had varying success. The European Council of Independent School (ECIS) reported considerable and steady growth in the attendance of teachers to its annual conference.

**Table 4**  
**Attendance at ECIS Fall conferences**

Year	Attendance
1978	1000
1979	1000 +
1983	1500 +
1984	1600 +
1985	1700 +
1986	2200 +

(Correspondence with the Secretariat of ECIS)

Having started with an administrative conference only, ECIS activities expanded substantially since its formation in 1964. In addition to annual conferences, ECIS has encouraged subject based, school-level based (elementary and middle school), and local-region based subgroups to form and has assisted with the financing of staff development activities. By 1982, 13 subject based committees had formed, each potentially sponsoring workshops and assisting with the identification of presenters for the major annual conference.

(Correspondence with the ECIS Secretariat)

In responding to the needs of elementary, middle school and high school administrators, job alike groups have been

added to the existing Heads group. Independent sessions as part of the two annual conferences and additional seminars have been sponsored addressing the needs of these groups. Most recently (Summer 1986), ECIS had joined the Harvard Graduate School of Education in sponsoring a week long Principal's Center in London. Activities similar to those of ECIS have been conducted by associations in each of the six major A/OS regions.

If one assumes the accuracy of Bahner's (1974) views and in consideration of the state of the literature relating to staff development practices in the international schools, three conclusions might be reached:

1. the literature relating to the international American program schools does not appear to contain a coherent definition or summation of the relevant elements of staff development;
2. the focus of attention for staff development practices in the A/OS schools may have been quite different from that associated with a U.S.-based perspective.
3. there seemed to be a recent awakening to the staff development needs of the teachers in A/OS schools and considerable activity in addressing them;

What was unclear was whether this awakening had reached the isolated international school and whether individuals charged with responsibility in these schools had the insights, abilities and/or resources to act on this awakening.



### **Summary**

Chapter II has contained a review of literature pertinent to an understanding of the state of staff development in the isolated A/OS schools. The history and development of this group of schools and their relationship to the Office of Overseas schools has been described. Though not dependent on nor controlled by this office, the schools received considerable assistance, both financial and logistical from this agency. Of perhaps greater importance than the direct assistance of the O/OS, has been the persistent efforts to create vehicles through which A/OS and other independent schools serving Americans abroad could benefit. Pre-eminent in these activities has been support for programs which were aimed at the improvement in the quality of staffing in each of the schools.

A close relationship has existed between American schools and their local community and this phenomenon has been transferred into the expatriate American setting. The affect of the nature of the community through a representative board of governance on the development of the school and its staff have been analyzed.

Isolation appears to have had a number of affects on expatriate communities and their schools. Isolation has been meant to include both that associated with physical separation and that associated with cultural/psychological separation. Accompanying this has been an analysis of a

variety of factors associated with the adjustment necessary for developing and maintaining a productive life in an expatriate community. A key factor in the development of the schools has been the constant departure and arrival of families and staff members. Having the greatest bearing on the A/OS school in this regard has been the turnover of teachers, administrators, and board members.

It was deemed important to present a brief summary of the history of staff development activities in the U.S. The role of the teacher and thus the thrust of staff development activities has change greatly during the past 20 years. A shift has been noted from viewing the teacher as a discrete unit and a "deficiency" model of staff development aimed at individual improvement to one in which the term "staff" has been seen more as a collective term. In this model, teachers and administrators were seen as members of a team with joint participation in the development of the school. Thus team building activities were seen as an integral part of staff development.

The administrator of the A/OS appears to have been a key figure in all aspects of the development of the school. Comment has been made to the recent attention given to the importance of building administrators in U.S. schools. The review of the literature relating to the administrators of the A/OS schools suggested that they were charged with a range of tasks far in excess of those assigned to individuals with commensurate experience and training in the U.S. Those

in the smaller, less desirable schools appear to have had less experience and did not remain in their positions for more than a few years. In many cases, isolation has necessitated that these individuals face crises without the benefit of an administrative council which would exist in a larger school. These factors have resulted in significant problems in the schools.

Attention was once again turned to the expatriate communities and their schools for an examination of staff development activities reported to be in practice. It was found that with the exception of considerable information relating to the recruitment and orientation of staff members, very little has been written on the subject.

In closing the chapter, several tentative conclusions were reached. First, it was felt that the concept of staff development may have been poorly defined in the minds of practitioners and may have received little attention in the daily operation of the schools. Second, it was felt that though ill-defined, staff development may be present but in a substantially different form than found in schools in the U.S.; and finally, it appeared that greater concern and attention has been given to the topic in recent years.

## **Chapter III**

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this research project was to describe the term staff development as applied to isolated American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS) and to determine the major factors which impacted this process. In this chapter, a presentation of the methodology used in the research project will be offered in two distinct sections. First, the choice of descriptive research will be explained. In doing so, the nature of descriptive research and a rationale for the methods of field research will be presented. Second, a detailed chronology of the events of the research process will be described.

At the outset of the project, the researcher was troubled by a near absence in the literature of substantive and meaningful examples of staff development in the American-curriculum international schools. During the design stage of a then undefined dissertation study, he had been presented with an opportunity to visit a group of highly isolated schools in Eastern Europe and was to become involved in working with the schools in one particular curricular area, educational computing. At the time, this area of curriculum in the American schools was receiving considerable attention. Small schools, generally without curriculum specialists, were in need of assistance. These conditions

suggested that a degree of staff in-service might be called for in this particular curricular area. This in turn led the writer to query the nature of effective staff development programs under the circumstances of isolation. Having found limited information in the existing literature, it was felt that there was insufficient information on which to base hypothesis or to design a controlled experimental situation. Thus the decision was made to conduct basic research in the form of a descriptive study associated with the question, "What is the meaning of staff development in the isolated school setting?" with the hope that this might serve the schools, their staff members, and the profession in general.

Schatzman and Strauss (1973) set forth a logical progression for field research. They indicated that:

"Once the researcher has his focus of interest, he must locate a site that contains people and activity bearing upon that interest; then, he must enter the site, establish an identity and relations with the host, watch the people and their activity, listen to the symbolic sounds that will make meaningful much of what goes on there, record his experiences, convert these experiences into data, analyze them, and validate his new tactics"

(p. 18).

### **Methodology**

As the name implies, descriptive research has as its purpose the description of situations or groups for which insufficient description exists on which to construct the hypotheses necessary for other types of research. During the

descriptive process, every attempt must be made to avoid interference with that which is being described, thus no experimental manipulation is assumed. Rather, the existence, extent, and distribution as well as the relationships between elements making up the field of interest are observed and described.

In their description of the importance of site selection, Schatzman and Strauss (1973) emphasized the need for a clear definition of the field of research. They suggested that prior to committing to a particular site, the researcher should 'case the joint.' (p.19) During this time, three objectives should be satisfied. The researcher should:

- determine whether the site is suitable;
- determine whether the study is feasible in light of the physical conditions associated with the site;
- lay the groundwork for site entry by becoming familiar with the significant individuals, structures, and physical aspects of the site such that the appropriate individuals can be approached and a realistic research plan can be prepared.

Though details relating to staff development planning and practice in American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS) were scarce in the literature, it seemed likely that the information necessary for an understanding of the conditions in the participant schools would lie in an understanding of the views and actions of their administrators. These individuals were seen as key to the success of the research.

It appeared that the structure of small A/OS schools were such that the very existence of staff development plans as well as their design and implementation were dependent on the views and actions of the administrators. Secondly, it was known that the Heads of schools making up the Eastern European group would be asked by the Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS) to prepare an LRP for Staff Development. The timing of this request suggested that these individuals would devote considerable attention to staff development concerns during the following months. A 16 month plan of group observations and individual interviews would allow one year to pass after the submission of the initial LRP, during which, evidence of any change in attitude, policy, and/or activity which might result from the process could be recorded.

In planning a research project, a strategy must be prepared through which the nature of the area of interest can be brought into focus, explored, defined, described, and analyzed. It has been suggested that differing from laboratory research, field research does not presume that the researcher can contain and control the field in which the research takes place. The researcher may in fact know little about the internal dynamics within the field before entry. Problem statements are not considered a requisite and where existent, may require adjustment and refinement as the research progresses. (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973)

Descriptive research typically includes both qualitative

and quantitative examination of the subject. Though there was strong evidence to indicate which "behaviors" and "characteristics" were important to staff development in the setting of the schools involved in the study, the nature of the situation was not static and it appeared that meaningful results could not be guaranteed without initial exploration for unknown factors. Thus it was deemed necessary to clarify the field to be explored and develop a focus for the study prior to proceeding. Nearly one year was spent in the collection of qualitative data through interviewing and observing individuals involved with the schools. From this data a summative survey was constructed. The results of this survey represented the quantitative data of the study.

### **Human Subjects**

In accordance with the University policies associated with research which utilizes human subjects, the research proposal was submitted to the University Committee on Research on Human Subjects for approval. It was explained that data would be obtained from adults who would be knowledgeable of the nature of the study and who would have the opportunity to deny assistance to the researcher. A goal of participation by five of the nine possible schools had been set, allowing for the possible refusal by some to offer assistance. It was explained that anonymity would be assured for all participants and that no direct reference would be made to those who might not agree to participate in the



project. Approval was granted to proceed with the research.

### **Data Collection**

It was anticipated that certain elements of data would be supplied directly by the Heads, while other items would be indirectly supplied through the interpretation of interviews and informal exchanges which would occur. Still other elements of data would be observable during the meetings of the school Heads.

The principle means of data recording was the use of a micro tape recorder which was carried at all times when data might be forthcoming. This was supplemented by field notes made at times when the conditions under which the recording was being made might obscure clarity. Once the request for assistance with the research project had been made, the tape recorder was used openly and with the knowledge of all concerned. At individual interviews, a request was made for its use. During social occasions and prior to the request for assistance for support for the study, field notes were kept and summative tape recordings were made. The researcher found it necessary to excuse himself occasionally, to find a location where notes could be rapidly recorded, that they not be forgotten. On other occasions, the recording was made immediately upon leaving the group or individual from whom the relevant information had been received.

A field journal was maintained throughout the project. Since recordings were made of most notes, the function of the

journal was to maintain order in the tapes and resulting transcripts of the data and to aid in recalling the exact order of events during the writing of the dissertation.

Taped interviews and copies of documents were requested from the Heads of the schools on two occasions and a summary survey was completed by each school Head. The collection of formal data was finalized with an personal interview with each Head. The varied methods of obtaining elements of data were seen as meaningful since, as indicated by Schatzman and Strauss (1973):

"Interview or questionnaire procedures constitute situations in their own right; therefore, what persons report in either case often better reflects those situations than the referential ones which the techniques were designed to ascertain. Referential situations are too quickly and readily converted by any given respondent into relatively idealized models when he is talking with researchers outside the 'real' situation" (p. 6).

It was felt that by comparing and contrasting the formal data, informal data and written staff development plans, that a relatively accurate representation of staff development practices in the schools could be ascertained.

As indicated by proponents of field methodology, "the researcher must develop procedures as he goes." (Schatzman & Strauss, 1973, p. vii) Thus it was expected that initially unknown sources of data would emerge during the course of the research. Two such sources were discovered after the start of the study. These were used to supplement data supplied by the Heads or observed during their meetings. One source was

the Regional Education Officers (R.E.O.s) of the O/OS.  
Interviews with five of the six (R.E.O.s) were conducted.

A second potentially valuable group of individuals, which had originally not been anticipated, were a number of professors at Michigan State University who had worked with the O/OS and specifically the two professors who had written the LRP manual to be used by the Heads group. These individuals were interviewed and added to the writer's understanding of the history of O/OS and its efforts in staff development.

### **The Data Collection Plan**

The data collection plan for the project was as follows:  
Preliminary Exploration of "site":

- |                                  |   |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Consultancy<br>Fall/Winter 1984  | - Individual school visitation and<br>establishment of a personal contact<br>with the school Heads; |
| Heads Meeting<br>Fall 1985       | - Data collection and initial<br>observation of group interaction and<br>dynamics ;                 |
| Formal Site Entry<br>Winter 1984 | - Request for support for study.  |

### Formal Data Collection:

- |                              |   |
|------------------------------|---|
| Phase I                      | - an open-ended taped interview and<br>request for existing written<br>documents; |
| Heads Meeting<br>Spring 1985 | - observation of second group meeting<br>and the collection of LRP from           |

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participant schools;

- |                                  |  |
|----------------------------------|--|
| Phase II                         | - structured taped interview based on information collected from Phase I and Heads' meeting;               |
| Heads Meeting<br>Fall 1985       | - observation of third group meeting;  |
| Summary Survey<br>Fall 1985      | - the collection of demographic data and data related to attitudes of Heads relative to staff development; |
| Heads meeting<br>Spring 1986     | - final observation of Heads' group;   |
| Closure Interview<br>Spring 1986 | - bringing closure to study  |

#### Informal Data Collection:

As previously explained, the field researcher does not know from the outset the exact nature nor location of all potential data sources. As inquiry progressed, sources of data were discovered and explored. In addition to the formal data associated with the interviews and observations of the Heads, supplemental data of various types were obtained during the course of the study.

#### **Site Entry**

Site entry was given considerable prominence on the literature of field research. Johnson (1978) described the two reasons for this importance. In addition to the obvious, "No entry - No research," (p. 50) he discussed a more subtle aspect of the issue. He suggested that the quality of the

data to be obtained during the research was directly effected by the relationship which existed between the researcher and the members of the setting emphasizing the need for "trust between an observer and the members of the setting" (p. 51).

In field research, the focus of the study may not be clear prior to entry into the field. Johnson described a paradox which may result from this fact. The researcher must present a research proposal of sufficient detail to satisfy those who are empowered to grant entry to the site of study, "yet the foci of the investigation emerge only after some portion of the research has been accomplished." In the case of this study, it was initially assumed that "the site" of concern would be found within the schools involved in the study. However, during the initial stages, exploration revealed that a focus of potentially greater importance was associated with the attitudes of the Head regarding staff development and the role taken within the meetings which would potentially lead to group and individual staff development activities associated with the development of a Regional Center.

Having been an observer at the Fall 1983 and 1984 meetings of Heads, and with the implication that he would be serving the schools as consultant, it appeared that the researcher had established himself in a non-threatening role within the group. The assurance of "participant observer" status at three bi-annual meetings to follow during the next 16 month period, provided a good basis from which to request

individual support for the study from the Heads. It was assumed that a number of the Heads would agree to participate in a series of individual interviews to occur during the course of the study and to supply relevant documents.

Schatzman and Strauss (1973) stressed the importance of establishing a positive relationship with those individuals who control entry and facilitate examination of the site. They advised that site entry is a continuous process as further site entry may be required with individuals at lower levels in the institution. They referred to this as "working the hierarchy" (p. 20). Johnson (1978) pointed out that not only is the researcher often involved in multiple entry but may use a staged approach through which "gradual requests for more open access to the insider understanding" may occur (p. 64). These principles were applied in establishing a relationship with significant individuals of this study.

As assistance with schools' computing programs had been of concern, the researcher had been included in the 1983 and 1984 meetings and was subsequently offered a consultancy associated with the establishment of computing programs in the nine schools. The consultancy would involve a one time survey of the programs of the schools with preparation of a summary report for O/OS and individual reports for each of the schools. Following this, he would assist the schools with the purchase of equipment and software and be available to advise on any problems encountered by the schools.

During the Summer prior to the consultancy, the

researcher had discussions with the R.E.O. for Europe. In addition to discussing the details of the project, this provided the researcher with an opportunity to discuss the possibility of utilizing this group of schools as a research site. It was agreed that while this might be possible and would be potentially a valuable site, a request for cooperation from the schools should await completion of the formal consultancy and reporting phases of his involvement. Certain sensitivities of the respective Heads was pointed out and the importance of establishing a relationship with them was discussed. The cooperation of these individuals would be necessary to gain entry to the individual schools for any meaningful study. As previously noted, once underway, the focus of the study shifted from the dynamics within the schools to those associated with the Heads' views, decisions, and actions of potential impact on staff development activities in the schools.

A second concern at this stage related to the fact that little was known regarding the relationship between the Heads and the R.E.O. and regarding the individual receptivity of the Heads of the schools to the consultancy to be performed. Therefore, to facilitate successful site entry, the researcher postponed an approach to the school Heads for their support of the project until after the recommendations concerning the computer programs of the schools had been made.

In line with the need to establish a positive

relationship with the Heads, each was assured that only he/she would receive a detailed report regarding the particular school and that the report to be submitted to the Heads as a group and to the O/OS would be summative, relating a composite overview of the programs.

Though the decision had been made to postpone the request for assistance from the Heads, it was clearly the intent of the researcher to record general perceptions of conditions in the schools and any observable elements, attitudes and activities relating to staff development. The receptivity and utilization of the researcher in his role as "consultant" was seen as a potential indicator of attitudes toward staff development in the schools. Since this form of preliminary data would be collected, research ethics required that each Head be informed that a request for support from O/OS for a study was being made and that assistance of the Head may be requested at a later date. This was done at the earliest opportunity following the establishment of a relaxed relationship with the Head. It was later to prove beneficial that considerable good will and trust was developed during the consultancy.

Although the possibility of school visits by the researcher, in his role as consultant, had been discussed at the 1983 meeting and the visits to the schools had been announced by telex from the R.E.O in September 1984, the researcher was surprised to find considerable insecurity and hesitancy upon arrival at several schools.



In most cases the Head welcomed an assessment of the school's computing program. In several, a concern for a "hidden agenda" was expressed. In some schools the staff member charged with responsibility for the program was defensive and resistant to the researcher's examination of the school's program. In only one case did the Head express a defensive attitude. In this case, the school did not have a computing teacher and the Head had made a commitment to an extensive purchase of equipment and software from the U.S., which may account for his initially defensive manner. As the relationship continued, this Head became quite co-operative with the researcher and appeared to welcome interviews as opportunities to discuss his school's problems and developments.

During the visit to each school, the researcher was careful to reassure all Heads that, as far as O/OS was concerned, his mission was exclusively to assist in assessing the computing programs of the schools and that a detailed report would be given to them only with a general cumulative summary given to O/OS and the other Heads. The intent to request assistance with a research project was discussed and received mixed reactions at this stage of the relationships. Although of some concern at the time, it appears that this open dialogue was a significant contributing factor in ultimately gaining the cooperation of all members of the group.

## Chronology of the Study

### **The Consultancy Phase**

During the Fall of 1984, the researcher made two trips which included visits to each of the nine schools. A total of 24 days were spent in visiting the schools in which site visits varied from two to five days in duration. Generally more time was allotted to the larger schools. The first trip included visits in Prague, Warsaw, Moscow, and Budapest. The second trip included stops in Bucharest, Sofia, Istanbul, Belgrade, and Zagreb. During the month which occurred between the two trips, the Fall conference of teachers belonging to the European Council of International Schools (ECIS) was held. It was during this conference that the Heads of the schools were presented with the request by the O/OS for the development of a LRP for staff development

During the visits to the schools, the researcher was able to spend considerable time with the Head of each school and with those individuals involved with the use of computers in the schools. Utilization of the consultant's time ranged from a total lack of preparedness to a comprehensive scheduling of group and individual sessions. These and other interactions and observations were summarized with the use of a micro tape recorder which was carried and used during moments of privacy. Note was made of a number of factors which facilitated the success of the consultancy as a staff development activity. These included the coordination of the O/OS, the role of the school's Head during the visit, and the

degree to which the researcher's time was meaningfully utilized.

### **The 1984 Fall ECIS Conference**

As had been indicated to the researcher by the R.E.O. for Europe, the Heads of the nine schools and at least one board member from each school were brought together in Frankfurt for a full day of meetings associated with staff development planning. Since the planning process was seen as a precursor to the formation of a Regional Center in Vienna, individuals from the American International School (AIS) of Vienna, including the researcher, were included in the meeting. A facilitator was employed who approached the task assuming the role of instructor and guide to the LRP process. The manual, A Long Range Planning with Emphasis on Staff Development (no publication date) was used as a model. During the course of the full day meeting, the entire LRP process was described and discussed. At the end of the day, the R.E.O. outlined his desire for the development of a complete plan to be shared at a follow-up meeting to be held in Vienna in the Spring of 1985. During the course of the day, detailed notes\* were taken which became a record of the first of several meetings of this group. (\* It was feared that the use of a tape recorder might be seen as inappropriate at this stage in the project.)

Not associated with the day of meetings thus far described, a second special day was set aside prior to the

conference billed as a "Boardsmanship Workshop". This will be described in Chapter IV.

### **Request for Support**

In January of 1985, having submitted reports to the individual schools regarding their computer programs and having submitted a summary report for the Office of Overseas Schools, the researcher's role as consultant to the schools was complete except for a discussion of the report to be included in the March meeting of the Heads of the schools in Vienna. Thus, in January, a formal request for support with the research project was made to the Head of each school.

(Appendix A) As part of the request, a number of important points were explained. These included:

- that the study was a private matter, not associated with the researcher's role as consultant, the Vienna center project or other involvements of O/OS;
- the nature, extent and time requirements of the study;
- the importance placed on confidentiality;
- the value of the collective craft-knowledge which the Heads of the schools possessed;
- the potential importance of the study to the individuals, their schools and to the profession.

The stages of the study and the level of commitment which would be required were explained to the Heads as follows:

- interviews by tape or in person would be made with

each Head on three occasions over a 16 month period;

- an initial, taped, open ended set of questions;
- a detailed, clarifying taped interview;
- a follow-up personal interview clarifying and bringing closure to the process;
- completion of a summary survey would be requested;
- documents reflecting policies and practices related to staff development in the schools would be sought;
- the researcher would observe the group in action at various meetings over the following 16 months.

The appeal went on to explain the timeline for completion of the study. The need for candid responses was stressed and again confidentiality was assured.

#### **Phase I Data**

The Phase I questionnaire was included with the request for assistance. (Appendix B) The questions were supplied in a written form and an accompanying tape recording with an explanation of the intent of each question was included. As indicated by Schatzman and Strauss (1973), the researcher should choose the tactics with which he/she feels most comfortable. It was felt that the choice of a taped interview would result in obtaining the most comprehensive answers with a minimum of time and effort on the part of the respondent. It was indicated that the respondent might provide a written response if desired.

Responses were requested by Feb. 15, allowing time for

analysis prior to the March meeting of the Heads in Vienna. Thus ensued the first of what became a series of adjustments to the schedule and design of the study. As described by Schatzman and Strauss (1973), "the research process consists of dealing with a flow of substantive discoveries and with field contingencies that variously modify the research .... The field researcher is depicted as a strategist; for without linear-specific design - for the most part precluded by the nature of properties in the field - the researcher must develop procedures as he goes."

The realities of human nature and the postal system, which in some cases included the dispatch of mail to Washington, D. C. for inclusion in diplomatic pouch mail into the country in question, resulted in slippage in the timeline throughout the duration of the study. Thus, not all responses to Phase I data had been received prior to the March meeting. Several individuals delivered their Phase I data at the meeting and others promised to do so promptly upon return to their schools. In one case, no information had been received and no occasion presented itself during the weekend of the meeting in which to ask for a clarification of the intent of the particular Head. A follow-up request was sent and questions regarding lost data were incorporated into subsequent interviews.

### **Spring 1985 Meeting of Heads**

In late March, 1985, the Heads of the Eastern European

schools met in Vienna with the R.E.O. for Europe, and representatives of the administration and board from the AIS Vienna. The purpose of the meeting was for the Heads to deliver their LRP for Staff Development. The researcher was allowed to participate as an observer in this meeting. A tape recording and written notes were taken.

During the course of the weekend, individual conversations were held with as many of the Heads as possible. These were informal and ranged in length from a few minutes to over an hour. Notes were made as soon as possible after each encounter.

#### **Phase II Data**

Approximately one month following the Spring meeting of the Heads, a second taped interview was requested. (Appendix C) The questions included in this interview were of two types: those asked of all participants and those related to previously expressed views of the individual participant. Through these questions, the views of the Heads on five major elements of staff development were sought. These elements had been identified through the analysis of the data from Phase I and the group meetings. In addition, clarification of the individual's views from previous comments was sought.

#### **Fall 1985 Meeting of Heads**

Again, the researcher was able to observe and record a meeting of the Heads during which a range of issues

associated with the operation of The Regional Center were discussed. Opportunities occurred for informal discussions with individual Heads.

### **Survey**

Individuals were asked to complete a survey relating to two aspects of the study. (Appendix D) The first section requested demographic information. The second section was designed to quantify the importance associated with each of a variety of staff development approaches and activities which had been isolated from comments made by the Heads in previous interviews and group meetings. Of eleven identified items, two groups were formed.

Group I - From the Phase I and Phase II data, four general orientations to staff development were identified as relating to the individual staff member.

Group II - Also isolated from the data of Phases I and II were seven activities or vehicles through which development of the staff might be accomplished.

The survey contained two groups of terms. All combinations of terms within each group were presented in such a way as to cause respondents to indirectly rank each group internally. Several across-group pairings were used in an attempt to determine the relative importance placed on the two groups of constructs.

It was of note that Phase I was an open-ended inventory in which few clues were given as to possible responses. In



Phase II, however, the potentially meaningful elements of S. D., suggested individually by the Heads, were fed back to the group for reactions and development. The survey was seen as accomplishing a distinctly different task. It was feared that during the recording of Phase I data, individual Heads might not **think of** certain activities which contributed to staff development which were present in their schools. Further, given the lack of definition of staff development in the literature, it was feared that individuals might not **recognize** and/or **classify** the same activities as relating to staff development. Therefore, by compiling a list, taken from the responses of the entire group, the survey was seen as a means of providing an evaluation of the relative merits of a list of items of a more complete nature than that indicated by any one individual.

#### **Spring 1986 Heads' Meeting**

By the time of this meeting, the researcher had left AIS Vienna but returned to conduct Closure Interviews. The Heads conducted general business in open session and then retired to closed session to consider a joint response to developments associated with a change in personnel at the O/OS and resulting effects on the Center. The researcher was not allowed to observe this meeting.

### **Closure Interview**

An extended personal interview was conducted with each of the Heads of schools. This interview was conducted in coordination with the 1986 Spring meeting in Vienna. Key questions were asked of each participant. Questions designed to clarify views expressed on previous occasions were asked. Other questions from the initial interview were repeated to check for any potential shift in individual views during the course of the study.

### **Summary**

In this chapter, the methodology of this study has been explained. The study was intended to provide a description of staff development practices in the isolated school setting. A valuable source of data was seen to be the Heads of the respective schools. These individuals were charged with the development and implementation of all programs in their schools and the O/OS had indicated to the researcher that during the following year, the Heads of the schools would be asked to prepare a Long Range Plan for Staff Development. As there was a reasonable assurance that the Heads would be observed during four important meetings and that the development of personal relationships were likely with a number of these individuals it was assumed that sufficient data could be generated for the purposes of the study. A combination of taped interview, personal interview, survey, and group observation was designed and supplemented

with informal data which surfaced during the study. Data were analyzed as the research progressed resulting in questions to be used in subsequent instruments.

The data collection was concluded with an extended personal interview in which questions were asked to clarify previous comments and check for any shift in basic feelings regarding staff development in the schools.

In Chapter IV, a presentation of the data will be made, and analysis of the data and conclusions reached will be made in Chapter V.

## **Chapter IV**

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this research was to determine the meanings attached to the general concept of staff development when considered in the context of isolated American-sponsored Overseas Schools (A/OS). To answer questions associated with this definition, it was necessary to determine the staff development needs of individuals working in the schools involved in the study and to determine what factors and which individuals impacted the staff development processes in the schools. In this chapter, the data necessary to answer these questions have been presented.

### **The Data**

The data which have been collected in the course of this research project have been designated as belonging to one of five categories.

**Formal Data** - Data which have resulted from the direct comment or observed actions of the Heads of schools. These data took the form of comments of the Heads of schools in reaction to questions asked during taped and personal interviews and in the form of written information supplied to the researcher or from the long range plan (LRP) prepared by each Head of school.

The Formal Data collected included 41 of the 45 responses for taped and personal interviews:

8 Phase I responses (Note 1)

9 Phase II responses

7 Long Range Plans (Note 2)

9 Final Surveys

8 Final Interviews (Note 3)

**Note 1** - One Phase I survey was not received. The Head indicated that the original tape had been mailed and perhaps lost. Questions designed to recover this lost data were incorporated into subsequent interviews and discussions. A second Phase I response was received out of sequence i.e. after Phase II was distributed and was subsequently returned with Phase II.

**Note 2** - The long range plans were presented at the Spring meeting of 1985. One individual gave reasons for not preparing a plan. A second individual was involved in an accident and did not attend the meeting. Upon a later personal request for a copy of his plan, he indicated that he had not completed one since he was leaving his post and felt that it would serve no meaningful purpose.

**Note 3** - One individual did not attend the Spring 1986 meeting of Heads as he was leaving his post and did not return a taped version of the Closure Interview which was sent to him.

**Informal Data** - Data in the form of notes which resulted from informal discussions with Heads of schools. Numerous occasions occurred during the study in which social circumstances provided opportunities to "visit" with individual Heads and others knowledgeable of the schools involved in the research project. Written and tape recorded records were made of substantive comments and attitudes expressed during these occasions.

**Secondary Data** - Data obtained from interviews with Regional Education Officers (R.E.O.s) and others intimately familiar with conditions in the schools located in isolated conditions. Five of the six R.E.O.s who are responsible for the operation of the O/OS system were interviewed. As each worked with approximately 30 A/OS schools, among which were many in similarly isolated conditions, their perspectives were considered valuable in understanding the greater problem of staff development in schools of the type being investigated in the study. During the course of the study, opportunities presented themselves to interview teachers and board members from the schools. These provided a further understanding of the workings of the particular schools and the needs of their staff members.

**Documentary Data** - Data derived from documents provided by the Heads of the schools and those published by O/OS. A number of documents which provided data relative to

the philosophies and/or practices relating to staff development in the schools were requested. These included copies of staffing policies and budgets, salary schedules, handbooks, orientation materials, and any other materials which the respondent felt might aid in the study.

**Survey Data** - Data resulting from a summative survey of the Heads of the schools. In this survey, administered near the close of the investigation, a number of elements and staff development concepts were contrasted in such a way as to cause the respondent to make a quantitative statement relating to the importance attached to each of the elements. Each item was paired with each other item of the same group. The respondent was instructed to assign a relative importance of each item of the pair by assigning each a decimal value, the total of which was three. Thus ratings of 1.5 - 1.5 would indicate equal status for the items while .5 - 2.5 or 2 - 1, etc would indicate that one item was considered to have greater importance. Several cross-group pairs were included in an attempt to ascertain whether the reactions of individuals were general or specific in nature.

The data of the study has been presented in three parts. The first section of data relates to a variety of demographic characteristics of the schools, their staff members, and administrators. The second section of data provides brief summaries of the voluminous narrative data collected through

interviews, observations and documents. The final section of data presents the results of the survey and has been presented in tabular form.

### **Processing of the Data**

#### **Phase I**

The data of Phase I was received and processed in the following manner:

- 6 responses were returned in the form of tape recordings of the responses to the included questions;
- 1 response was returned in a written form within the schedule;
- 1 response returned after Phase II data had been received;

As each of the responses from Phase I were received, they were transcribed. Following the return of six of the Phase I responses, the transcripts were analyzed in an effort to identify the broad lines of philosophical and practical categories of staff development. Additional elements of staff development which entered the discussion in the Spring 1985 meeting of the Heads were included as a basis for the construction of the Phase II instrument.

#### **Phase II**

- 6 responses were returned in the form of taped interviews;
- 2 response was returned in a written form;



- 1 response was received in the form of a personal interview.

All responses were received prior to the next phase of the project. Again, these were transcribed and analyzed and from these, together with the transcripts of Phase I data, a list of 11 activities and concepts was formed. These appeared to summarize a collective framework for staff development within the schools.

### The Survey

The 11 items isolated from the Phase I and Phase II data were divided into two groups. One group included terms which suggested general approaches to staff development as related to the individual staff member. The second group related more to activities associated with staff development of the staff as a whole.

The survey was mailed to each Head in the Fall of 1985.

- 9 responses were returned from the survey.

### **Demographic Data**

The following tables provide several forms of demographic data through which the reader may gain insight regarding the community and staff of each of the schools which participated in the study.

**Table 5****School Size and Student Nationality**

(1985-86 Data)

<u>School</u>	<u>Total Students</u>	<u>U.S. Nat'l</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Host Nat'l</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Other Nat'l</u>	<u>%</u>
1	166	27	16%	3	2%	136	82%
2	114	19	17%	6	5%	89	78%
3	84	20	24%	3	4%	61	73%
4	213	57	27%	0	0%	156	73%
5	274	88	32%	0	0%	186	68%
6	86	11	13%	0	0%	75	87%
7	59	23	37%	0	0%	36	59%
8	177	40	22%	14	8%	123	69%
9	25	9	36%	0	0%	16	64%
Ave	132	32	25%	4	3%	95	72%
Min.	25	-	13%	-	0%	-	59%
Max.	274	-	37%	-	16%	-	87%

Two features of the student population (and by inference that of the parental and school communities) were noted in

Table 5:

- a. The composition of the school communities were made up of approximately 25% U.S. citizens, while 73% were from third countries and only 3% were host nationals. Narrative data revealed that the relatively large percentage of 3rd national children related to the fact that in most of the cities where the schools were located, the A/OS school was the only English language "foreign" school and in five cases was co-sponsored by

the British and/or Canadian governments.

- b. Only one school had a substantial number of host national students. Five schools had no students of the host country. The Heads reported that in five out of the eight countries where the schools are located, the students of the host country were not allowed to attend the A/OS school and that many of the other students listed as "Host Nationals" carried dual passports. In only one school, Warsaw, were they able to attend the A/OS school freely and without special consideration.

**Table 6**  
**Staff Nationality and Recruitment**  
(1985-86)

<u>School</u>	<u>Total Staff</u>	<u>U.S. Rec.</u>	<u>Married to Host</u>	<u>Depend. Spouse</u>	<u>Total U.S.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Host Nat.</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>3rd Nat.</u>	<u>%</u>
1	24	7	3	0	10	41%	5	23%	9	36%
2	13	5	0	3	8	62%	4	31%	1	8%
3	16	3	0	4	7	47%	3	20%	6	40%
4	28	9	4	5	18	64%	3	11%	7	29%
5	30	11	0	10	21	70%	0	0%	9	30%
6	15	8	1	4	13	67%	1	7%	1	27%
7	7	3	0	0	3	43%	1	14%	3	43%
8	22	10	1	4	15	68%	1	5%	6	27%
9	3	1	2	0	3	100%	0	0%	0	0%
Total	158	57	11	30	98	61%	18	11%	42	29%
Min.	3	1	2	0	-	41%	-	0%	-	0%
Max.	30	11	4	10	-	100%	-	21%	-	43%

several features concerning the nationalities of the staff members and recruitment were noted in Table 6. These include:

- a. U.S. national teachers accounted for 61% of the instructional staff of the schools;
- b. Recruited U.S. teachers accounted for 37% of the teachers of the schools;
- c. Local hire, U.S. dependent spouse teachers accounted for 19% of the teachers of the schools. Narrative data indicated that in several schools, availability of housing and reduced costs associated with their hire resulted in recruitment of local hire teachers who were nevertheless not considered to be as professionally desirable as teachers who might be brought in from abroad;
- d. School 5 relied on the availability of locally hired dependent spouses for 33% of its teaching staff;
- e. Five of the schools had 0 or 1 staff member from the host country whereas four schools had 20% or more teachers who were from the host country or married to host nationals and in only one school were host national teachers systematically excluded from the teaching staff;
- g. Third country nationals accounted for 26% of the instructional staff. From other sources of data, it was found that many of these teachers were from the U.K. or Canada.

- h. Narrative data revealed that several schools relied on a higher percentage of teaching couples and/or local hire teachers because of the resulting cost saving and/or limited availability of housing in the city where the school operated.
- i. Narrative data revealed that the Heads of all of the schools were U.S. citizens and that U.S. citizenship of the Head was a preferred criterion for schools receiving grant-in-aid from the O/OS.

**Table 7**  
**Staff Turnover**

School	Total	New Staff Members				Ave. % of Change
		84-85	%	85-86	%	
1	24	2	8%	7	29%	19%
2	13	2	15%	2	15%	15%
3	16	6	38%	4	25%	31%
4	28	4	14%	5	33%	16%
5	30	8	27%	15	50%	38%
6	15	2	13%	2	13%	13%
7	7	2	29%	0	0%	15%
8	22	7	32%	4	18%	25%
9	3	1	33%	1	33%	33%
Total	158	34	22%	40	25%	21%

From Table 7 it was noted that staff turnover varied greatly in the schools.

- a. The maximum one year turnover in a school was 50%.  
The Head of this school reported a need for the constant rebuilding of the staff. This involved the

recruitment of highly qualified and experienced international teachers to support less well trained though qualified locally hired dependent spouse teachers. The turnover also involved financial support for individually targeted summer programs for teachers needed to fill key posts;

- b. Seven the schools had turnovers of 29% or more in at least one of the two years of the study;
- c. Three schools had turnover rates in excess of 30% for two successive years;
- d. Narrative data revealed that the causes for high turnover in the second school related to problems of board/Head interaction, dynamics and decision making. As reported by the Head, two board members, and the R.E.O. for the region, the then current problem resulted from the failure of the school board to have conducted the termination of a Head and recruitment of a successor in what was considered an appropriate manner and to a lack of institutional maturity associated with policy and procedure development.

The Head in school five reported that though staff turnover was high, the status at that time was the result of a conscious effort to extend tenure and turnover had been reduced during the previous five years.

**Table 8**

**Professional Experience of Teaching Staff**  
(1985-86)

<u>School</u>	<u>Years of Experience as Teacher</u>				<u>Years of Experience in International Schools</u>				<u>Years of Employment in current School</u>			
	<u>0-2</u>	<u>3-5</u>	<u>6-10</u>	<u>more</u>	<u>0-2</u>	<u>3-5</u>	<u>6-10</u>	<u>more</u>	<u>0-2</u>	<u>3-5</u>	<u>6-10</u>	<u>more</u>
1	2	8	11	3	5	7	11	1	5	7	11	1
2	0	2	6	5	2	4	2	5	6	3	1	3
3	3	4	4	5	8	4	2	2	12	4	0	0
4	2	3	7	16	5	6	4	13	10	6	3	9
5	0	4	9	17	0	10	3	17	23	7	0	0
6	2	1	2	10	2	3	0	10	2	12	0	1
7	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a	2	4	1	0
8	0	0	8	14	2	0	10	10	9	5	5	3
9	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0
Total	10	22	48	71	25	35	33	58	70	49	22	17
%	7%	15%	32%	47%	16%	23%	22%	39%	44%	31%	14%	11%

From the data of Table 8 the following features were noted:

- a. 79% of the teachers of the schools had a total of six or more years of teaching experience with 7% having less than three years of previous experience. (Most of the schools of the group would not accept applications from teachers having fewer than two years of experience);
- b. 84% of the teachers had three or more years of experience in international schools;
- c. 44 % of teachers had taught at their current schools for two years or less, with 77% having five years or less tenure;

- d. Five of the schools had fewer than two teachers with tenure of 6 years or more. The Heads of these five schools had an average tenure of 1.2 years;
- e. 77% of the teachers of school 5 were in their first or second year at the school. The Head of this school was in his second year at the school.

**Table 9**  
**Staff Training**  
 (1985-86)

<u>School</u>	<u>Highest Degree Earned</u>			
	<u>&lt;B.A.*</u>	<u>B.A.*</u>	<u>M.A.</u>	<u>Ph.D</u>
1	0	16	6	2
2	0	7	6	0
3	5	5	5	1
4	6	12	9	1
5	0	13	15	2
6	1	13	1	0
7	2	4	1	0
8	0	9	13**	0
9	1	2	0	0
Total	15	81	56	6
%	9%	51%	35%	4%

\* This included an unspecified number of British and French teaching credentials which were awarded after three years of university study.

\*\* Enrollment in a graduate program was a prerequisite to contract renewal in this school.



From Table 9 the following observations were made:

- a. 60% of the instructional staff held a B.A. or less (or equivalent) while 39% held graduate degrees.
- b. Two schools had only one teacher each holding a graduate degree;
- c. 33% of the staff of School 7 held less than a B.A.

**Table 10**  
**Head of School Data**  
(1985-86)

School	Highest Degree	Years in Educ.	Years in Int. Sch.	Y'rs at Current School	Years as a Head	Years in Admin.	No. of Schools as Head
1	Ph.D.	36	1	1	33	33	2
2	M.A.	16	13	3*	3	10	1
3	B.S.	9	5	3*	2	2	1
4	B.A.	32	24	22	23	23	2
5	M.A.	18	3	3*	11	11	2
6	Ed Sp.	19	17	3	5	6	2
7	M.A.	33	11	2	2	11	2
8	M.A.	24	20	7	21	21	6
9	M.Ed.	17	5	3	3	3	1

\* Left this position at the end of the 1985-86 school year.

From Table 10 the following were noted:

- a. In three cases the Head was in his/her first Headship.  
In two cases, this represented the individual's first administrative post;
- b. One individual had served as Head of school in 6 schools with average tenure of 2.8 years in previous posts;
- c. Five of the schools had a change of Headmaster during

the year prior to the start of the study with two others changing during the study;

- d. Seven of the Heads were in their third year or less at their respective schools during the second year of the study with two Heads having relatively extended tenure (more than five years);
- e. For two individuals the position at the time of the study represented their only experience in international schools.

### **Narrative Data Summary**

During the course of the research the notes of numerous interviews and group meetings constituted a volume of qualitative data. A summary of these data has been compiled into brief narrative statements related to major elements of the study from which conclusions relative to the research questions might be reached .

### **The Settings of the Schools**

Seven of the schools were located in large, capital cities of Eastern European countries. One of the remaining schools was located in a smaller industrial city in one of these countries and the other was located in the large, capital city of a non-communist neighboring country. Physical access to Western Europe was difficult in three countries. Variation existed in the degree to which local conditions affected the stress experienced by staff members

in pursuance of their daily lives.

a. In five countries staff members of the schools reported stress associated with attitudes, regulations and actual and assumed activities of the national government. Staff members described the assumed existence of listening devices in their homes and various other local government intrusions. In two of these schools, the host population was seen as hostile and the host government was seen as oppressive and obstructionist. Problems existed associated with obtaining materials needed for daily life, and easy access to Western Europe did not exist. For these two schools, conference attendance was seen as the most significant staff development activity and expressed as an opportunity to "get out."

It was perhaps noteworthy that in two other schools located in similar isolation from other schools and from Western Europe, and existing in countries with similarly repressive governments, the staff did not express the level of stress as did the staff members of the aforementioned schools. One difference in the two pairs related to the fact that the first two schools served appreciably smaller expatriate communities. Secondly, in the second pair of countries, the level of repression of the host citizen did not appear totally to preclude person to person human dialogue and/or socialization with "foreign" visitors.

b. In two countries staff members of the schools felt stress associated with what was perceived as a hostile

attitude of the host national citizens. Though staff members in one other school shared this form of local social isolation, its location allowed frequent travel out of Eastern Europe and access to material needs. This was attributed by the Head as resulting in a lack of stress;

c. In two countries staff members of the schools felt stress associated with the difficulty of obtaining supplies and other aspects of daily life, heating, water, etc.

d. In all countries expression was made of the need of staff members to be cognizant of local customs, which were seen as conservative by many expatriate staff members.

e. In all countries expression of a need to leave periodically was common. The reasons given for this need differed considerably and will be discussed under Conference Participation.

### **Staff Development - Internal Practices**

Internal staff development practices and activities which were reported and observed in the schools included the use of:

1. staff orientation programs;
2. staff members as in-service leaders;
3. guest workshop presenters;
4. activities aimed at development of staff unity;
5. intrinsic and extrinsic rewards to promote staff retention;

6. activities to promote host nation awareness and appreciation.

### **1. New Teacher Orientation**

New teacher orientation was reported as being of considerable importance by four of the nine Heads of schools and of moderate importance by three others. Seven of the schools described specific activities associated with new teacher orientation which included a mixture of the following:

- Airport pick-up
- Preparation of apartment
- School indoctrination
- Local sight-seeing
- Community introductions
- Language classes
- Staff retreats

Incidental comments of interest associated with attitudes and activities toward orientation programs for new staff members included the following:

- a. The extensive orientation program described by one school was found not to have reflected actual practice on two occasions;

- b. One Head, having related the value of ample orientation, expressed a reluctance at returning from his summer vacation any sooner than necessary to make this possible;

- c. The smallness of the staff and limited number of new staff members of some schools was given as a reason for

limited orientation activities conducted in an informal nature. The well described orientation program of one school was not followed since only one new couple was joining the staff.

## **2. Staff Members as In-service Leaders**

The use of staff members as in-service leaders was reported in several schools. It was stated that those who attended workshops and conferences were expected to report back in detail or provide in-service to other members of the staff. There was no indication, however, that this practice constituted a substantive and meaningful activity.

## **3. Guest Presenters**

The use of guest presenters was indicated as occurring on a regular basis in only one school. Several examples were reported of reducing the cost of presenters by "piggy-backing" their use following other conferences in Europe. Some use had been made of School-to-School partners for this purpose. Other Heads reported the use of individuals who were "passing through town" for this type of activity. During the course of the computer consultancy, the researcher felt that six of the schools made good use of his availability for staff development.

#### **4. Team Building and Staff Unity**

The importance of inner staff unity and team building was expressed by the Heads of seven schools. Though similar in expression, it appeared that team building occurred in response to considerably different needs.

a. In two schools the concept of inner-group support in a tough environment seemed to dominate.

b. In two schools the Head was clearly seeking acceptance and/or companionship from the staff;

c. In three schools growth of the staff into a working unit seemed to be the goal with considerable involvement of staff in program decision making;

d. In several schools the staff as a whole or subgroups in bigger schools formed social units expressing that they did not relate well with the parent community;

#### **5. Retention of Staff**

In only one school had a goal of extending the tenure of staff members been articulated. Activities had been undertaken to accomplish the goal. A second school which had a problem with staff turnover had effected a variety of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards aimed at extending the tenure of teachers, but at no time did the Head indicate that this was the goal nor was it articulated in the policies of the school. The activities of these two schools included:

a. improved salary and benefits;

b. funding for conference attendance;

- c. funding for graduate study;
- d. re-enlistment bonus;
- e. the use of job growth;
- f. host culture awareness program;
- g. quality of life improvements, social and material;
- h. support for individually designed professional growth development programs.

#### **6. Host Country Awareness and Appreciation**

Four of the Heads expressed the opinion that host country awareness and appreciation were valuable in determining the quality of the work of the teaching staff as well as contributing to the potential for the individual to remain at the school. These included host country information packets, travel, language training, and in some cases social functions including local members of the community.

#### **Staff Development - External Practices**

External staff development practices and activities which were reported or observed in the schools during the study included:

1. Staff recruitment
2. Conference attendance and Workshops
3. Summer and graduate study
4. Use of a School-to-School partners
5. Board and Head Development



## **1. Staff Recruitment**

Staff recruitment was expressed as considerably important as a staff development tool by five of the Heads of the schools.

a. For eight of the schools, recruitment involved extended travel by the Head to attend recruitment centers in the U.S. and U.K.

b. Two schools reported staff recruitment assistance from their School-to-School partners.

c. One Head relied frequently on a network of collegial contacts built up over a number of years to identify individuals with whom he was familiar.

d. Most Heads expressed the importance of accurately presenting the difficulties of existence in the school's setting to the prospective candidate.

e. In one case the Head specifically felt that single applicants were preferred to couples. In four cases married couples were preferred either because of social limitations or availability of local housing.

f. In one school which was jointly sponsored by three embassies, attention was required to maintaining a representation of the three national groups of teachers in the school.

g. Housing limitations and the higher cost of recruited teachers resulted in reliance on the recruitment of dependent spouse and/or host national teachers in all of the schools.

## **2. Conference Attendance and Workshops**

Conference attendance was cited most frequently as an important element of the staff development in the schools. All schools subsidized attendance at professional conferences by staff members (most quite heavily). Four schools scheduled a vacation day in their calendar coinciding with the ECIS conference each November to permit all teachers to attend. Administrative conference attendance was budgeted separately in all cases. Conferences and workshops for teachers included:

- a. an annual Eastern European teachers conference;
- b. the ECIS Fall teacher conference, generally reserved for teachers who had been at the school at least one year;
- c. a workshop sponsored by the Regional Center in Vienna;
- d. other subject-specific workshops.

Several distinct reasons were offered for the importance attached to conference attendance. These included:

a. Conference attendance was viewed as providing a break from the disagreeable surroundings of the host country in three schools. This break included aspects of entertainment, shopping, freedom from observation and the opportunity for open, friendly collegial communication. Two other schools expressed this value in terms of "refreshment and revitalization."

b. The Eastern European conference (generally attended by the new teachers of the schools) provided an opportunity

for the hosting school to offer in-service to its entire staff and for new teachers to meet others and begin developing a network of acquaintances. It also provided them with an opportunity to exchange "war stories" which was seen as easing adjustment to life in Eastern Europe. This also provided opportunities for teachers from the Eastern European countries (who may not have been able to travel to Western Europe) to attend a professional conference.

c. Network building and comradeship with other teachers was seen as important by three school Heads in which the smallness of the staff limited professional discussion and exchange.

d. The major conferences and workshops were seen by most of the schools as opportunities to identify materials needed by the school.

Two Heads of schools expressed the belief that conferences added substantially to the skills or knowledge of the teachers who attended. One Head questioned the value of the conferences from a cost effective point of view, although members of the staff of the school attended the conferences.

### **3. Summer and Graduate Study**

Continued university work was considered an important part of the staff development programs of five schools and substantive financial support was offered. Two others expressed neutral feelings while one Head of school questioned the cost effectiveness of giving financial support

since teachers receiving assistance would move on once finished with the degree. The remaining Head favored advanced study but no policy existed through which financial support could have been offered.

a. One school required all teachers to hold or be working toward an M.A. As related by the Head, "We are willing to pay for it; anyone who can't complete it in five years doesn't belong in this school!"

b. One school included in its policies the possibility for staff members to receive support for an individually designed professional growth program which could include released time for subject related work, a sabbatical, travel, etc.

#### **4. School-to-School Partnerships**

Four of the schools had formed active relationships with school-to-school partners in the U.S. Through these relationships, host country teachers had been able to experience the conditions, methods, and activities of U.S. schools. Other benefits concerned assistance with normal and emergency teacher recruitment and assistance from curriculum specialists of the U.S. larger schools.

#### **5. Board and Head Development**

Board development and orientation was not generally mentioned by the Heads as associated with staff development of the schools, however, it was expressed as an important

function of the Head of the school. Several incidents in which board members had effected staffing decisions, staff development activities, and policies effecting the staff development within the schools were observed. Board members from all schools participated in several of the meetings of the Heads during the study. In some cases, this was the result of urging and in all cases with the funding of the Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS).

a. In addition to sessions for Heads, there have been special one day "Boardsmanship" workshops during which case studies relating to the roles of the Board and Head of the school and their relationship to each other have been explored. The goal of board development involved training for the Heads and board members in the use of O/OS supplied video recordings which presented staged school-board meetings in which a number of "errors" in role and/or process were dealt with. It was suggested that if these types of problems were presented at orientation sessions at the outset of the school year, similar real life incidents might be avoided.

b. During the process of data collection, five of the Heads included comments relating to the need for their professional development.

c. Three Heads were involved in Masters' programs.

d. The needs of the Heads as well as the Development of the Board were identified by the O/OS and ECIS as important needs of the schools. To accomplish these tasks, numerous workshops were offered at the ECIS Fall conference and

throughout the school year. The full day workshop associated with long range planning, which was the genesis of this study, was one of these workshops. A separate ECIS conference is held annually for administrators.

e. A one week Principal's Institute was sponsored in London by ECIS in cooperation with the Harvard Principals' Center in 1985.

### **Long Range Planning for Staff Development**

Discussion with the R.E.O. for Europe revealed that the LRP process which was requested by the O/OS was considered a tool through which its goal of stimulating growth of the schools' maturity could be achieved. The following represents a summary of the results of the process.

a. 1980 LRPs were found to be in existence in three schools and to have been functional in the staff development programs in 1985 in two;

b. plans were produced in seven of the schools of which perhaps five could be said to have contained greater substance than the others;

c. Two Heads did not produce plans;

d. Six Heads expressed cynical views related to the request for an LRP;

e. Three schools produced substantive plans;

f. One Head expressed professional growth as an administrator through the process;

g. Tangible results were reported by four schools.

### **School Budgets and Staff Development**

Funds were identified in the budgets of seven schools as relating to staff development.

a. Conference attendance was specifically included in the line item budget relating to staff development for six of the schools and accounted for a high percentage in this area.

b. One school listed staff development as a line item and one had no specific designation.

c. One school renamed the line item "Conference Attendance" to "Staff Development" in the final year of the study.

d. Professional literature was included as a line item in three of the schools' budgets.

### **School Policy and Staff Development**

Limited reference to items relating to staff development were found in the policy manuals of the schools. Benefits were generally spelled out and in several cases included items which might increase the potential for a prospective candidate to choose the school. These included items not normally found in the contracts of schools in Western Europe such as medical evacuation, annual home leave, conference attendance and assistance with graduate study. Other extraordinary benefits, not specified in policy, which were reported included commissary privilege, housing, use of a school owned car, and APO privileges.

### **Additional Observations**

During the course of the study, the Heads and others made numerous comments related to the role played by the R.E.O. in the schools. Many of these comments contained implications for staff development. It was indicated that he served as the executor for O/OS funding given to the schools with specific amounts designated for staff development projects. This role was of particular importance to the Heads of smaller schools in which grants constituted a greater percentage of the schools' budgets.

Several Heads related that the R.E.O. had served as an advisor and mentor to them when they were new to their schools and that he had provided an interface with U.S. institutions. In many cases, it was indicated that the R.E.O. was in a position to affect the relationship between the Head of the school and the U.S. embassy personnel of the school's community.

Interviews with five of the six R.E.O.s indicated that they generally remained in their posts for long periods of time which allowed them to provide a degree of continuity to the schools where the turnover of Heads was a problem. Clear differences could be noted in the style of these individuals. Of potentially greater importance was a perceived difference in philosophical grounding associated with the value attached to various staff development vehicles and aspects of staff development in the schools.

During the last six months of the study, a change of



R.E.O.s occurred for the European region. The personalities, educational philosophies and approaches toward staff development of the two individuals were quite different and a shift in the course of staff development activities was noted. The new R.E.O. indicated a strong interest in the graduate program of one U.S. university and questioned a number of aspects of the Regional Center and other joint activities. In general the Heads expressed frustration with a number of the proposed changes.

### **Survey Data**

Among the final elements of data collection was the administration of the survey described in Chapter Three. From the analysis of the Phase I and Phase II data, 11 items cited by more than one Head were identified as representing potential elements of staff development. These were divided into two groups. Group I included four items which were seen as representing general orientations toward staff development related to the individual staff member. Group II included seven items which were seen as elements relating to the staff as a group and/or more specific activities of a staff development program.

### **Frequency    Staff Development Element**

(Group I)

4	Recruitment
3	Retention of recruited teachers
3	Up-dating of long term staff
4	The evaluation process

(Group II)

- 5        Developing the staff as a working unit
- 3        Involvement of staff in school/program  
decision-making
- 2        On-site staff development activities
- 4        Staff conference attendance
- 3        Orientation of new staff members
- 4        Summer study and graduate work
- 4        Developing staff appreciation for host culture,  
language, etc.

The following data resulted from the survey.

**Table 11**  
**The Relative Importance Attached to**  
**Four Orientations to Staff Development**

<u>School</u>	<u>Up-dating</u>	<u>Evaluation</u>	<u>Recruitment</u>	<u>Retention</u>
1	5.0	3.5	5.5	4.0
2	2.0	5.0	5.0	6.0
3	3.0	5.4	4.8	4.8
4	4.0	4.0	5.5	4.5
5	1.0	5.5	6.0	5.5
6	3.5	3.0	5.5	6.0
7	5.0	0.5	8.5	4.0
8	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5
9	6.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Ave.	3.8	3.9	5.5	4.8
Max.	6.0	5.5	8.5	6.0
Min.	1.0	0.5	4.0	4.0

(Note: An average rating of 4.5 would indicate neutrality concerning the particular orientation toward staff development. A maximum score of 9.0 could have been attained.)

From the data in Table 11, the following were noted:

- a. "Up-dating of long term staff" was given the lowest average rating. Two individuals attached slight importance

(5.0) and one suggested moderate importance (6.0). The Heads of three schools gave low ratings to this orientation with ratings of 1.0 to 3.0.

b. "The evaluation process" was given a generally neutral rating with the exception of one Head who gave it the lowest rating of any orientation (0.5).

c. "Recruitment" received the highest average and individual ratings of those offered for consideration (5.5 and 8.5). One individual rated it slightly below neutral (4.0) in relative importance of the orientations offered with five individuals attaching moderate to high importance (5.5 to 8.5).

d. "Retention of recruited teachers" was given a generally neutral rating with two individual Heads indicating a moderate level of importance (6.0).

**Table 12**  
**Relative Importance Attached to Seven Elements**  
**of Staff Development**

School	Host Cult. Apprec.	General Orient.	Staff Unit	Summer Study	Confer. Attend.	On-site In-serv.	Involve. of Staff
1	6.5	9.0	11.0	9.5	10.0	10.0	7.0
2	3.5	12.0	10.5	5.0	11.5	10.5	10.0
3	6.3	9.3	10.5	9.3	10.7	7.2	9.7
4	8.5	11.0	8.5	9.5	8.5	8.0	9.0
5	7.5	12.5	12.5	5.5	4.5	10.0	10.5
6	4.0	7.5	14.0	10.5	3.5	11.5	12.0
7	1.5	13.5	14.5	7.0	15.0	5.0	5.5
8	7.5	7.5	9.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	9.0
9	7.0	6.0	10.5	9.5	10.0	9.0	11.0
<b>Ave.</b>	5.8	9.8	11.2	8.4	9.3	9.0	9.3
<b>Max.</b>	8.5	13.5	14.5	10.5	15.0	11.5	12.0
<b>Min.</b>	1.5	6.0	8.5	5.0	3.5	5.0	5.5

(Note: A rating of 9 would indicate neutrality concerning the importance of the element of staff development. A maximum score of 18 could have been attained)

From the data of Table 12, the following observations were noted:

a. The "development of staff appreciation for [the] host culture" was considered of less relative importance to the staff development process than other elements by all respondents. This ranged from slightly less important (8.5) to considerably less important (1.5);

b. Opinion was split concerning the relative importance of "orientation of new staff members", ranging from moderately important (13.5) to moderately unimportant (6.0);

c. The "development of the staff as a working unit" was generally considered moderately important receiving the highest average rating of 11.2. Only one respondent assigned values which resulted in a below neutral rating of 8.5. This element was rated as quite important to two respondents (14.0 and 14.5).

d. The importance attached to "summer study" was mixed with two Heads rating it relatively low (5.0 and 5.5) and six Heads rating it as slightly above neutral (9.3 to 10.5.)

e. The greatest difference of opinion concerning the importance of the elements of staff development surveyed concerned "conference attendance" with one Head rating it as very important (15) and two others rating it a quite

unimportant (3.5 and 4.5). Five others rated it slightly important.

f. "Involvement of the staff in the school/program decision making" was seen as relatively unimportant by one Head with all others neutral or considering it of slight importance.

g. Four of the Heads (2,5,6,7) expressed stronger views regarding the relative importance of these elements than did the other Heads. The range in the ratings for these individuals were 7, 8.5, 10, and 13.5. The Head of school 7 expressed the strongest opinions (highest range of 13.5) and also gave the lowest rating (5.5) to the element concerning staff involvement in decision making.

### **Summary**

Chapter IV has represented a summary of the data from which some understandings of the meaning of staff development in the schools of the study might be reached. It has also provided evidence regarding the important factors and individuals who influence the conduct of staff development in these schools.

By no means have all of the data been included. The many comments and incidents which gave indications of attitudes and suggested minor elements of the topic were too numerous to include.

In Chapter V, the major elements of the topic of staff development in the isolated schools will be addressed. The

commonalities and differences in the schools, their staffs, and communities will be outlined and the needs of their staff members and the staff development practices of the schools will be described. From this, the meanings of staff development relative to isolated schools will be formulated.

## **Chapter V**

### **Summary, Conclusions and**

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

The purpose of this research project was to describe the meanings attached to the general concept of staff development when considered in the setting of the isolated K-8(9) school and to determine which individuals and what factors effected its conduct and direction. The Heads of the nine members of the Eastern European Association of International Schools responded to a request by the Office of Overseas Schools (O/OS) to produce a long range plan (LRP) for staff development. This plan was requested in preparation for the formation of a regional O/OS sponsored staff support center. These Heads were the chief participants in the study.

During the course of a 16 month period (Winter 1984 to Spring 1986), the Head of each school was interviewed on three occasions and four meetings of the Heads were observed and recorded. Exchanges with the Heads and others associated with support agencies provided qualitative data relating to conditions associated with the physical setting of the schools, the knowledge and attitudes of Heads relative to staff development, and the staff development needs and activities practiced in the schools. Additionally, numerous individuals were interviewed who have worked with and assisted these schools with their staff development programs

over the years. Examination of budgets, policy statements, and LRPs produced by the Heads added to an understanding of the topic. From an analysis of the comments of the Heads provided during the early part of the study, a survey was constructed through which a quantitative assessment was made of the relative importance, attached by the Heads to a number of elements of staff development. Through these processes, tentative answers to the following research questions were formulated.

### **Research Question 1**

What similarities and differences existed regarding the demographics and conditions under which the participating schools operate?

#### **Demographics**

1.1 From the data presented in Table 5, it could be seen that the profile of the schools' communities by nationality were considerably different from that presented in the A/OS schools around the world (Table 2). The students of third country nationality (72%) constituted more than twice the percentage of student enrollment in the schools participating in the study as compared with world averages. The percentage of the student body made up by the children of U.S. citizens was somewhat smaller (25% vs 29%) and the portion made up of host national students was greatly reduced (3% vs 37% with five of the schools at 0%). Narrative data



revealed that in only one of the countries could children of host nationals be enrolled in the A/OS school freely and with no special circumstances or conditions.

1.2 From the data presented in Table 6 it could be seen that U.S. citizens represented the largest nationality group on the staffs of all of the schools. As a result of institutional policies, the Heads of all schools and Chairpersons of most school boards were U.S. citizens. Thus, the range of U.S. educational philosophies, methods, and expectations might be inferred to have been dominant in the schools. It was noted that difficulties in staff development were reported as associated with the mix of nationalities of staff members. This was exacerbated in some cases by what was expressed as a short term mentality. Nationality sub-groupings were noted within the staffs of several schools.

A large portion of the third national teachers of the schools were of U.K. or Canadian origin. This was associated, in some cases, with the joint sponsorship of the school by several embassies. The requirement of retaining a nationality mix was indicated by several Heads as placing additional restraints in their efforts to build their staffs through recruitment.

Host national teachers were included on the staffs of most schools, though in substantial numbers in only four. They were seen as valuable to the staffs in dealing with local bureaucracies and regulations and in easing the

adjustment of recruited teachers.

In several of the schools staff development, through the recruitment of needed staff members, was hampered by considerations associated with the availability of local housing and costs incurred in bringing teachers from abroad. The Heads in these schools were forced to rely on a higher than desired percentage of married couples and/or local hire teachers with the elimination of teachers who, based on other considerations, might have been better qualified.

1.3 From the data presented in Tables 7 and 8 it could be suggested that staff turnover was of potential concern for seven of the schools involved in the study. Seemingly high single year turnover rates of 38% and 50% in two of the schools and a two year turnover which resulted in 75% or more of the teachers having been at the schools for less than three years may have produced a potential for problems associated with program continuity in these schools and may have had inferences for various elements of staff development. During this same period, the Heads of these schools each remained in their posts for three years before departing. This had the potential to create further difficulties for continuity of program and ramifications for staff development on many levels.

1.4 The data presented in Table 8 demonstrated that the previous experience of the staff members of the schools varied greatly. In all schools the majority of staff members had six or more years of teaching experience and a high

percentage of the teachers of the schools had more than two years of international teaching experience.

1.5 From the data presented in Table 9 it could be seen that two schools had a considerably higher percentage of teachers with graduate degrees than the others. When these two schools were eliminated, the percent of teachers holding a B.A. or less was 70%. Some of these schools may have

lacked some of the benefits associated with having staff

members who held graduate degrees. In the absence of data

reflecting comparative statistics from schools in the U.S.

and the A/OS schools as a group, further conclusions were not attempted.

1.6 From the data presented in Table 10 it could be seen

that the turnover of the Heads had been high. Seven of the

Heads were in their second year or less at the start of the

study. All of the Heads had graduate degrees or were

enrolled in graduate programs. Most had extensive experience as administrators and had experience in the international

school setting. Though no definitive data was found, one

might express the conjecture that each of these latter three

characteristics would add to the likelihood of success for

the Head of a school. One might note with some concern

therefore that only three of the nine Heads had all three

characteristics. Further study relative to the importance of

these characteristics might prove valuable.

## **Research Question 2**

What were the significant conditions and factors which impacted staff development activities in isolated schools?

### **Setting and local conditions**

Luebke's 1976 statement, "Perhaps the most accurate generalization regarding the American-sponsored overseas schools is that it is not possible to generalize about them," (p. 28) made reference to the then 140 schools which had received grants through the O/OS. With schools included from every continent, this might seem to have been a straightforward and easily comprehensible statement. One might have assumed that greater commonality would exist within a smaller and outwardly culturally similar region. However, with three exceptions, the data compiled indicated that the differences between the conditions associated with the nine schools were sufficient to defy generalizations or the forming of sub-groups with substantive similarities as related to staff development in the schools. These exceptions concerned:

**2.1** the physical separation of the schools from other schools, service agencies, and/or Anglo-American culture. Though the effect of separation expressed itself in differing ways, it was repeatedly implicated as a problem related to successful staff development in the schools;

**2.2** the importance of proper recruitment to the schools. Though the tabular data suggests that turnover was relatively

low in some of the schools, the Heads of all schools were uniform in their assessment of the importance of the identification of "suitable" replacements for departing teachers;

**2.3** combinations of three distinct conditions which may have effected morale and the rates of turnover of expatriate teachers living and working in the countries in which the schools operated. These factors included the perceived level of hostility of the host population, the availability of material goods and services needed for daily living, and activities of the host government such as eavesdropping, difficulties with exit papers, etc.

Further study designed to define the existence of relationships between these conditions and the morale and tenure of staff members in the schools may be warranted.

### **Research Question 3**

What similarities and differences existed in the participating schools regarding staff development needs?

**3.1** The need most commonly expressed by the Heads and staff members of the participant schools related to a need for contact with individuals other than those of their local communities and the host country. This need, though common to all of the schools, was not related to any particular common cause of stress but rather was related to a number of elements of the professional and social lives of the staff

members of the schools.

In several cases this need related to the oppressive nature of the host government, the perceived hostility of the local citizens, and the difficulty of maintaining a life style similar to that to which the staff members had been previously accustomed.

In other schools the need for contact related to the size of the school which, although in a comfortable surrounding, was such that professional dialogue was limited. This was found to be acutely true in the case of the Heads of the schools, who, in many respects and on many issues, had no one with whom to share their thoughts. In several cases, it was expressed that the spouses, who in most cases worked at the school, provided a needed "sounding board" which in turn had ramifications for their roles relative to other staff members.

Yet another expression of the need for contact related to the fact that a number of long term, local hire teachers sought the stimulation of professional seminars and advanced study which were not available locally.

In still other instances, this need for contact related to what was referred to as "networking", which included the formation of and rekindling of friendships within the international community of teachers and to obtaining information relating to potential job openings in schools of interest.

**3.2** A second staff development need, shared by all schools in varying degrees, concerned the turnover in staff from year to year. The problem resulted in three separate needs of the schools which included:

- a. the identification and recruitment of suitable replacements. Though "suitable" was defined differently by each Head, they were unanimous in expressing that careful selection was necessary and that not every teacher could succeed in the settings of their schools;
- b. the individual orientation and integration of these new staff members;
- c. the collective needs associated with the maintenance of a complete, balanced and functional staff. This included concern for the maintenance of a sense of unity and common purpose and for the fostering of mutual support among members of the staffs of the schools.

#### **Research Question 4**

What similarities and differences existed in the participating schools regarding staff development practices?

The most noteworthy similarity in the staff development practices within the group of nine schools involved in the study concerned the careful attention given to the recruitment of new staff members. It was commonly indicated

by the Heads in the narrative data that they shared a concern for the possible hiring of individuals who might not have been able to cope with the special conditions associated with the locations of the schools. These concerns were associated with the ability to cope with the nature of the community, its composition and size, with limitations imposed by the relatively small sizes of the schools and staffs, and with the physical, cultural, and psychological separation of life in the country in which the schools existed. With two exceptions, Heads favored married couples with international experience. The two exceptions shared the features of existing in countries in which housing was available, "foreigners" were well treated, and socialization with the local population was not officially frowned upon.

Closely linked to "proper" recruitment was the degree of attention given to the orientation and integration of new staff members. Orientation activities were recognized as important by eight of the Heads, however, the observation of activities and comments made by the Heads and others during the course of the study revealed that follow through on a comprehensive plan on an annual basis could be noted in only three schools. These included elements of school, expatriate community, and host country orientation. What might be termed moderate activities were practiced in four other schools. These were limited to school and expatriate community orientation and tended to be brief in duration. Though conceptually cognizant of the value of orientation,



the Head of the remaining school indicated that the press of opening school had precluded preparation for the orientation of new staff members.

The survey data demonstrated that considerable importance was given to the "development of the staff as a working unit." In practice, approaches to accomplish this goal varied greatly. In several schools, Heads stated that they purposely attempted to involve their teachers in decision-making to a high degree. Others related this to the recruitment of individuals who would "fit in."

An extreme difference was noted in the value placed on host country awareness and appreciation as related to staff development between the schools. This ranged from two Heads who exuded hostility for the culture and country in which they were working to three others who felt that a key to the happiness and success of their staff members required that they get to know the host country, if not its people. Within the staffs of the former group of schools, the researcher observed this same negativism.

All schools participated in both the Eastern European and the ECIS conferences to some degree. Though answering differing needs as outlined in Research Question 3, six of the Heads placed great value in conference attendance for members of their staffs. All Heads placed value in conference attendance for themselves with most expressing positive views associated with attendance by members of their school boards.

The utilization of enhanced benefits to influence staff development through a reduction in turnover was noted in three schools. Three other schools expressed varied concerns regarding difficulties with entrenched teachers.

#### **Research Question 5**

Who were the significant individuals and what were their roles in determining the course of staff development in these schools?

From the narrative data obtained during successive meetings of the Heads and from individual interviews over the duration of the study it can be concluded that three groups of individuals were potentially instrumental in determining the course of staff development activities in the schools. They included the Heads of the schools, the R.E.O.s, and the board members of the schools with particular significance for the board Chairperson. With the exception of one school, little evidence was found to infer that teachers individually or collectively were given substantive input into staff development planning.

#### **The Head**

In all cases, the Head of the school appeared to have had far reaching effects on staff development in the schools. These effects related to the knowledge, attitudes, and skills of the individual Head. Strong differences were noted in these three characteristics as related to the various elements of

staff development. These ranged from individuals who were interested and active in many realms of staff development to those who were somewhat one-dimensional in their approach to the topic. Differences were noted in the approach taken to the O/OS request for a LRP for staff development. No Head indicated that the process was of substantive benefit to their schools or to improvements in their personal knowledge or skills, however, several appeared to use the process as a tool for achieving objectives which they had already set.

The exercise of political acumen seemed important within the schools and within the context of discussions within the Heads group. Not only were there differences in the depth and scope of design of LRPs noted but there appeared to be differences in the success with which long range plans were articulated in a manner which brought improvements to the staffing needs of the schools. It appeared that Heads generally had a high degree of freedom in the disposition of staff development budgets and were generally free to hire staff members with only a cursory review by members of their boards.

In summation, it appeared that a combination of factors resulted in staff development programs within the schools which were strongly dependent on the Head of the school for conceptualization, planning, preparation, and execution.

**The O/OS Regional Education Officer**

Data have shown that the R.E.O.s had considerable and varied effects on staff development in the schools during the course of the study and had the potential for long range effects which may have added a level of continuity to the schools. Their assessment of grant requests determined the level of financial support which the schools received. They were in a position to assist with the adjustment of new Heads to their posts and to interface with the local embassy and other institutions on the behalf of the schools. Their work with regional organizations, such as ECIS, provided an additional level of staff development support.

The fact that the R.E.O.s retained their assignment to a given region and when transferred often shared offices with the individual who had previously held the post, resulted in a tenure which often transcended that of school boards and Heads of schools. Thus, the R.E.O. was seen to be an individual who could have a substantive effect on the staff development in individual and regional schools.

**Board Members and Board Chairpersons**

Data have shown that board members and particularly Board Chairpersons have had considerable effect on the staff development within the schools. Board chairpersons have been noted, in two instances during the course of the study, to have acted in roles not normally accepted for them. The actions of one board, stimulated by a particularly strong

board member, was credited with decisions which resulted in two years of difficulty for the school including the loss of the entire staff with the exception of one host country teacher.

In eight of the nine schools, the Chairperson was the appointed representative of the U.S. Embassy and also the individual controlling the O/OS grant process for the school; thus he/she held a position from which to provide maximum assistance to the A/OS school or not.

Heads reported that the degree of interest and effort exerted by individual board members and particularly chairpersons varied greatly. This variation existed both in terms of the stage of the individual's tour of duty (usually two years) and between individuals who differed in having children in the school or not.

Board development was expressed as of great importance by most Heads and by several R.E.O.s. An indication of the degree of importance of this could be inferred by noting that the O/OS offered grants to cover the cost of board member attendance at major regional conferences and all of the Heads meetings during the study and has sponsored numerous board seminars and two video cassette recordings aimed at board development.

#### **Research Question 6**

What was the meaning of staff development in the context of isolated K-8(9) international schools?

Meanings and activities associated with staff development varied greatly within the group of nine schools which made up the population of this study. The most common elements included an importance placed by all schools on providing staff members with contact with Western culture and material goods (including opportunities for contact with other U.S. educators), and to a somewhat lesser degree with recruitment and the stimulation of team building and staff unity.

If viewed from the context of Flippo's (1984) model of personnel development, staff development in the isolated A/OS school might have been seen as principally concerned with **Procurement, Integration, and Maintenance**. The elements of **Compensation and Development**, though less obvious, were also viewed as having played important roles in the overall staff development in the schools. **Separation** appeared to have played a much less prominent role in the staff development thinking of the heads of the schools other than in terms of staff turnover, which has been identified as being among the most troubling problems for many of the schools.

Procurement (Recruitment) and Integration (Orientation and Team Building) were indicated by the Heads of the schools as having considerable importance to all of the schools which participated in this study.

**Procurement**

The survey results presented in Tables 11 and 12 quantified and reinforced the verbal statements and observed actions of the Heads and others recorded during the course of the study. Recruitment of New Staff was rated, by a considerable margin, as relatively more important than Retention of Recruited Teachers, the Evaluation Process and Up-dating of Long Term Staff. Given that staff turnover had been identified as a major problem in a number of the schools, one might have thought that retention would have been seen as of greater importance. It was specifically expressed as very important by two Heads, however, in both cases, they rated recruitment as of greater importance. One explanation for this might relate to the concrete nature of the recruitment process as compared to a more nebulous concept of a program designed to retain staff members. Another possible explanation may relate to an observed defeatist attitude on the part of some Heads associated with the fact that essentially all recruited teachers departed within two to three years and that while some might be retained for an additional year, they were inevitably lost, making recruitment the more important element of their staff development programs. Further, regardless of whether the school had a low or high turnover rate, the Heads were uniform in placing considerable importance on the selection of staff members who could cope with the conditions existing in the schools.

**Integration**

The data presented in Table 12 indicated that the Development of the Staff as a Working Unit and the Orientation of New Staff Members rated first and second of the elements of staff development which were presented. Though approached in differing ways and with differing degrees of formality, it was strongly expressed that team building and staff unity were important elements in the successful development of a staff in isolated conditions.

Other elements of Flippo's model were seen as present in some schools but not necessarily identified by the Heads as relating to staff development

**Compensation**

The element of "Compensation" was recognized by the Heads of three of the nine schools who indicated that they and/or their boards hoped to improve the staff by using enhanced benefits and conditions to encourage the extension of staff tenure. In only one school, however, was this desire formally set in policy.

**Maintenance**

The function of "Maintenance" was most commonly served by the existence of regional conferences and workshops and to a secondary degree through summer programs. These were seen as of considerable importance in six of the nine schools, but



aimed at the satisfaction of quite differing needs. (In the other three schools they were mentioned as important in the narrative data but not rated highly in the survey.)

The three schools which had long term staff members utilized conferences and workshops to stimulate and enlighten their teachers much as might be done with in-service in the U.S. Other elements of conference and workshop attendance were expressed as of greater importance for other schools. For some, conferences and workshops provided an escape from the harsh conditions of the country in which the school operated and for contact with Western culture and material goods. For still others, conferences provided contact with a larger number of fellow professionals and a chance to "talk shop" and share experiences related to the staff members grade level or subject specialization. For still others, conferences provided for the maintenance of long lasting friendships and for the formation of new professional contacts.

Regardless of the need which was being satisfied, conference attendance was spontaneously mentioned most frequently in the Phase I data collection associated with staff development programs and accounted for nearly 100% of staff development budgets in some schools. Though spontaneously rated as most important, conference attendance tied for third in importance on the survey, after two items which related to staff development functions within the schools.

### **Development**

The function of "Development", in the sense of basic, normally pre-service training of teachers, played an important role in the thinking of the Heads of five of the schools. This included three schools in which individuals with less than a B.A. were employed as potentially long term teachers and one school in which the decision had been reached that all staff members must hold a M.A. or be enrolled in a suitable program. In two of these schools, enhancement of the skills of potentially long term staff members with specialist training was seen as important. The Heads of two schools related that the rebuilding of the staff was an annual concern which required financial support for summer programs and specialist workshops.

Another potentially important example of the "Development" function of personnel management in the A/OS schools involved the subtle and persistent activities of the O/OS through which 68% (Luebke, 1976) of the limited funds available to the agency have been used to stimulate staff development in the schools. Interviews with the R.E.O.s who administered the funds during the period of the study indicated that the agency had taken a long range view with a goal of the gradual improvement of the professional (and non-professional) qualifications of the teachers, administrators and board members of the schools. Whereas one individual Head expressed a reticence to invest school funds

in teachers who would "move on", the R.E.O. (and others involved in the particular meeting) expressed a wider vision, one which held that teachers, administrators, and board members went on to serve other international schools with reciprocal benefits for all international schools. One effort of A/OS in this regard was specifically and pointedly targeted at the development of the Heads and board members of the schools. Several R.E.O.s expressed concerns relating to the lack of training and experience of many Heads as they assumed their first post. They also commented on the need to assist Heads and their boards in the development of a working relationship in which each had clearly defined functions and were cognizant of the needs of the other.

Among the tools used by the R.E.O.s to "nudge" the schools toward "maturity" was assistance with funding associated with the Long Range Planning Process, the Accreditation Process, the formation of Regional Centers and Associations, the School-to-school Program and the stimulation of board policy development.

### **Separation**

As previously indicated, the function of "Separation", played an important role in the staff development thinking of the Heads of the schools; however, this was principally related to staff turnover. Comments relating to staff assessment, career counseling, retirement and dismissal were noted in discussions with five Heads of schools. In two

instances, these appeared to constitute major elements in the staff development thinking of the individual Heads. In one instance, this carried a negative connotation relating to the dismissal of a staff member who had refused to pursue a graduate degree and in two other instances it carried the positive concepts associated with phased retirement and enrichment and career planning.

In summation, it was noted that comprehensive definitions of Staff Development were difficult for the Heads of the schools to formulate. In spite of the fact that a full day seminar had been devoted to the process by which Long Range Planning might be carried out, and a request for a LRP for Staff Development had been requested, initial answers to the question, "What is the meaning of staff development within the context of your school?" did not bring forth clear, well phrased and comprehensive answers in most cases. One got the distinct impression that in many cases, decisions relative to staff development were not made as part of an overall plan. Specifically, two of the eight respondents to the Phase I interview gave comprehensive answers. When the LRPs produced by these individuals were examined, it became clear that the individuals had truly set forth comprehensive plans which served them at the operational level.

Only through continued probing were the composite views of the other Heads formulated. Many individually admirable actions were observed and views were expressed and it was assumed that, though not necessarily part of a basic plan,

these would result in positive effects for the staffs of the schools. It was feared, however, that a combination of lack of training, experience, and/or skills combined with rapid turnover in a job which might best be described as an administrative "one man band" might result in a catch-as-catch-can approach to staff development with inherent missed opportunities and with peaks and troughs in the development of the programs of the schools.

### **Reflections of the Investigator**

Research in which the principle method of data collection is through the role of the researcher as participant observer requires that he/she takes particular care to recognize his/her views relative to the subject of the research and not allow them to bias the observations which are made. At the outset of this study, the researcher noted his perceptions of the meaning of staff development in general and assumptions regarding life in the isolated setting in which the schools of the study were located. Throughout the study notes were taken related to new <sup>sights</sup> insites which arose.

At the outset of the study, the researcher viewed staff development from a somewhat narrow framework. The literature indicated that considerable importance might be placed on the elements of staff turnover, recruitment and orientation. Preconceived bias told him that life in the communist governed countries of Eastern Europe would be generally

harsh. Through the research it was found that this was not the case. While the governments of several countries, in particular Bulgaria and Romania, were quite repressive resulting in stress on expatriates living there, the life style which expatriates could maintain in other countries (Poland, Hungary, and Yugoslavia) was considered in many ways "a plus", resulting in schools where teachers remained for many years.

As a result of the study, the researcher has broadened his views and come to define staff development as the combination of many activities which result in the formation of a complete and functional staff unit. The term "staff" must include professional, non-professional and regularized staff members. Life in the isolated setting appeared to increase the dependence of staff members on one another. The generally small sizes of the staffs of the schools caused an increased interaction between staff members and thus further taxed and increased the importance of staff unity.

In drawing attention to the importance of a "functional" staff unit, it is intended to imply that the administrator is wise to be sensitive to the physical and psycho/social needs of staff members and the staff as a unit, such that he/she may avoid or create situations which may enhance the functioning of the group. It is the researcher's belief that staff members function better when they are comfortable with their surroundings and fellow staff members and that this creates a better atmosphere for child growth. Though one can

not guarantee that all staff members will become close friends, it is felt that a positive working atmosphere of trust and mutual respect can be created in most situations. A high degree of participation by members of the staff in the decision making of the school is perceived as beneficial to the development of the "staff unit."

### **Recommendations and Further Research**

The data of the study suggest that the concept of staff development in the isolated K-8(9) A/OS schools was not highly developed nor consistent among schools. Several possibilities exist which might improve the situation. Clearly, the Heads of the schools were key to the development and implimentation of meaningful staff development programs which were but one of the many areas of administration for which the Heads were responsible. It is suggested that boards of governance examine the importance of the position and recruit individuals who have proven their knowledge and skills in international schools or in schools in which a wide diversity of clientele exists. Compensation packages should be designed which allow the schools to recruit the best administrators available and to encourage the Heads to remain at their posts for five year periods. The O/OS has worked with school boards to this end and should be encouraged to continue these efforts as well as other efforts to orient board members for their positions.

In a similar vein, teacher compensation packages should be

designed to encourage teachers to remain with schools for not less than three year periods. Examples of successful efforts by schools to reduce the high turnover of teachers were seen during this study and demonstrate that the problem was not unsolvable.

Further research may be called for and result in a greater understanding of relationships which, if documented, might lead boards of governance and Heads of schools to act in the directions suggested above. The existence of a relationship between compensation packages and turnover in isolated schools might warrant exploration.

In addition to compensation, other factors affecting the moral of staff members may well have had a determining effect of the length of time teachers remained at their schools. Among other topics worthy of exploration might be the following:

1. the relationships between host country awareness/acceptance, turnover and teacher performance;
2. the effect of extensive, long range orientation/adaptation programs on turnover and teacher performance.

Since this study drew primarily on data supplied by administrators, it is suggested that subsequent studies might benefit by the inclusion of teachers.



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## **Appendicies**

**APPENDIX A**

Mr.

Director

Jan. 20, 1985

International School of

Dear

As you may recall from a conversation which we had during my visit to your school in the fall, I indicated, then, that I would be seeking your assistance in conducting the research for my Ph. D. dissertation. It was a fortunate coincidence by which the area of study which I had designated for my research (staff development in the international school setting) happened to be closely related to the thrust which was made by the A/OS. Since I was to travel to the East Block schools in my role as computer consultant and may be working with your school for the next few years, it seemed a natural source of data for my research. I have waited until now to approach you as not to mix my role in computing and that of researcher. As you consider my request for assistance, there are several important points which I hope that you will keep in mind. First, my request is a private one, i.e., it is being made in no connection to the A/OS or as might regard the center which is under consideration or any role which I may play in this center. Second, the final document to be produced will deal with general issues and conditions involved in formulating and conducting staff development programs in an isolated setting. Due caution will be taken to insure anonymity of persons and schools involved in the study. Finally, it is my belief that you, collectively, possess a breadth of knowledge and experience in a unique realm of international school education which if shared, can be of value to you, other administrators in isolated settings and to the long range interests of your schools.



With your assistance, it is my intention to collect data in the following ways and phases.

1. Phase one (included) is designed as an open ended exploration into basic aspects and issues related to the general topic of staff development under conditions existing within the isolated international school. It will explore the concept of long range planning as related to this type of school and inquire into aspects of policy and budget associated with staff development.
2. Phase two will include an interview during your visit to Vienna in March. At this time I would like to explore the concepts developed in phase one and verify various facts about your school.
3. Phase three will be conducted by mail and in person during various times when we meet during the next year. At these times I will inquire as to the status of staff development as indicated in the long range plan which is presently under development.
4. The final phase of this study will involve an interview to be conducted in the spring of 1986. The purpose will be to determine to what degree long range plans are becoming reality, to determine if your veiws related to staff development have changed, and to determine what long range policies, budget items, and program changes have been established in your school.

The data to be utilized for this study will consist of the taped and personal interviews, relevant board policies and budgetary line items, and other factual information concerning the schools, their staffs, and communities. Data collection will be completed in the spring of 1986. The dissertation will be completed that summer. At this time, summaries and comparisons will be made which will be shared with the participant schools. These might include comparisons of elements of staff development programs, personnel policies, budgets, etc.

Several of the directors of the participant schools will be leaving their posts before the study is completed. This is considered an integral part of the study. Given that the

transient nature of our schools is one of the particular characteristics which give staff development a different meaning, it is of interest to follow the staff development process through this change of administration. It could be the case that you might feel that your plans to leave your school should preclude your school from participating in the study. To the contrary, your participation is very important to a complete analysis of the problem.

I recognize that supporting this request will represent an imposition on your time and I would like to express in advance my appreciation for the assistance which you will be giving. You will find enclosed a copy of the Phase 1 questionair. Also included is a cassette tape. On this tape is a further summary of the nature of my study and a more complete presentation of the questions of Phase 1. It is my hope that you will use the tape to reply to these questions as it will allow you to give more complete and meaningful answers in far less time. If you would rather respond in a written form, that is of course fine. In either case, I would hope that your responses will be frank and completely represent your views on the topic. I assure you that no one will see or hear your replies other than myself and that summaries which may be given to the schools or appear in my dissertation will be general in nature. I would greatly appreciate that you send your response by Feb. 15 as to allow time for analysis and comparison in preparation for the March meeting.

Sincerely,

William F. Russell

**APPENDIX B****Phase One Data**

Please respond to the following as completely and frankly as possible.

**I. As regards staff development:**

- a. "Staff development" has a number of standard connotations which may not coincide with those in use within the context of the isolated international school. From your point of view, what is the meaning of staff development? In what way(s) is it the same as it might be in the U.S.? What special meaning does the term take on within the setting of your school?
- b. What is the current status of staff development in your school? What activities have been carried out over the past year(s) in the realm of staff development? What are the most important staff needs toward which staff development has been aimed?
- c. To what degree and in what manner has your board recognized and/or shown an interest in this issue? Has their interest/responsiveness been satisfactory? Please describe any differences between different groups within your staff? (locals VS overseas, long term VS new recruits, U.S. trained VS others)

**II. As regards the Long Range Plan which has been requested by the A/OS:**

- a. What is your view of the relevance of the type of planning within your setting?
- b. If you have completed your plan, how have you gone about it? To what degree were others involved in the process? (teachers, board, community)

- c. To what degree has the work book which we received in Frankfurt been helpful in your efforts?
- d. Were any other resources/references available including a previous plan or plans from other schools?

### III. Documents:

The following documents would be of great value in the overall analysis and comparison of staff development within the schools participating in the study. It is thought that comparisons of these will be both valuable to the study and to the schools involved. These comparisons will be furnished in the fall, if requested.

- a. The school's Mission Statement\*
- b. A "Needs" Assessment
- c. Your current Long Range Plan for Staff Development\*
- d. Previous Staff Development plans\*
- e. A copy of your school's personnel policy and any board policies relating to staff development or personnel.
- f. A copy of your current line item budget or extracts there from which support staff development activities.
- g. The schools salary schedule.

\* if presently in written form

Should any of the above be deemed confidential, I would appreciate what ever extracts are possible.

Again I would like to recognize that completing this "shopping list" will infringe on your time. Hopefully you will see value in the outcome and can find time to assist.

# **APPENDIX C**

(sample of letter sent to the Head of each school,  
personalized for the school in question)

## **STAFF DEVELOPMENT IN ISOLATION PHASE 2 DATA**

### **RECRUITMENT:**

- A. Please describe your schools recruitment process. What are the important factors in successful recruitment? Please include comments on:  
Your time line  
Services used - How good are they for school?  
Role of sister school, if any?
- B. What are the qualities of the "ideal" teacher? (for your setting)
- C. Yours is one of the few schools with a stable staff. How stable is good? If positions held by locals were to be vacated, would it be desirable to fill them with contract teachers? Is there a desirable balance between permanent and contract staff members?
- D. It is my understanding that contract teachers seldom stay more than two years. If so, what accounts for this? Is it desirable? Have efforts been made to alter this tendency?
- E. One of the items on your teachers association's list of desires concerned a "guarantee" that contract teachers would attend at least one conference during their two year stay. What happened to this? Is it a good use of S.D. funds to send short term people to conferences or courses?

F. Having been in Eastern Europe for a while, you are aware of the problems faced by a number of schools concerning the length of tenure of their staff. If you were to go to one of these schools, what would you look at in an effort to eliminate or compensate for this problem?

**The Transfer Process:**

Given that all of the schools in Eastern Europe have a number of short term teachers, it would seem to indicate the need for mechanisms through which the smooth transition of program from one individual to another might occur.

A. What exists in your school to facilitate this transfer? Is there a need for other mechanisms to develop?

B. What exists in this regard for the incoming director? What help did you receive? Does the O.O.S. offer any assistance?

**Integration:**

A. In your phase one response, you identified the development of an "esprit de corp" as an important element of staff development. What are some of the mechanisms by which you hope to accomplish this?... with returning teachers?... with new teachers?

B. What has been the program for integrating the new teachers into living and working in an international school and a very foreign land? If any written materials are routinely sent or given to new teachers, please send a copy.

**Staff Development and the Budget:**

A. I note a drop in S.D. funds from \$14,500 in 83/84 to \$10,500 for 84/85. What accounts for this drop?

- B. Under item 18 of the budget, I note that \$ 4000 were spent for administrative and board attendance at conferences. Am I correct that all forms of teacher staff development account for the remaining \$6,500?
- C. Are there line items in the budget in which de facto staff development is charged? Does part of the school-to-school funds also go for staff development?
- D. How valuable has your school-to-school partner been in staff development? ... in other ways?
- E. Are there any "new" elements of S.D. allowed for the next years budget? (Please sent a copy of the 85/86 budget if it has been finalized)
- F. What is the process by which teachers take advantage of the study assistance which you describe in your first tape? How many teachers will participate this summer? Do all who request assistance receive it? How is the amount of aid for each teacher determined?

**The O.O.S., Grants, and the Regional Officer:**

- A. Considerable funds have been spent in the effort to cause the Long Range Plans for Staff Development to come into existence. In your first tape, you expressed a bit of irritation at the "push" from Wash. For the benefit of the neophyte: How important to a director and his/her school is it to actively support or play along with the O.O.S. in its initiatives and urgings? What pressures are applied from Washington?

Do you have any interference from the O.O.S., either directly or through the local embassy Admin. Officer?

- B. Several of the directors came to the Vienna meeting with considerable S.D. plans with indications that they would be coming to the Regional Officer for help. Are they apt to get "new" money or is it more of a re-shuffling of existing grants with a constant total?
- C. Had you made the meeting, would you have had a document to share with the others? (If so, please include a copy) If not, what would you have said when it came your turn?  
(Note: Each director had something... some were obviously just to fill the requirement)
- D. What is your view that the role of O.O.S. is and/or should play in your school? ... in the group of schools?

**Odds and Ends:**

With the goal of describing the conditions and factors impacting on staff development in isolation as a target, have you any suggestions of important avenues which I have as yet not introduced? Are there other forces and factors which have not yet worked their way into the "discussion" which we have had?



**APPENDIX D****STAFF DATA**

While I have been able to determine some of the following from our discussions, my information is incomplete or not up to date in most cases. Perhaps you can ask your secretary to complete the following items. Please use data for the school year 1985-86

Nationality	No. Students	No. Staff
U.S.	_____	_____
Host Country	_____	_____
Third Country	_____	_____

**Experience/training of staff**Professional Staff

1. How many of the professional staff other than administration were/are:

recruited U.S.	_____	third country national	_____
host national	_____	other	_____
U.S. married to			
host national	_____		

II. How many of the professional staff other than administration have been employed for the following numbers of years? (including current year)

Numbers/years	0-2	3-5	6-10	more
as a teacher?	_____	_____	_____	_____
in International	_____	_____	_____	_____
Schools?	_____	_____	_____	_____
in current school?	_____	_____	_____	_____

III. Highest degree earned

less than

U.S. B.A. \_\_\_\_\_ B.A. \_\_\_\_\_ M.A. \_\_\_\_\_ Ph.D. \_\_\_\_\_

certified \_\_\_\_\_

uncertified \_\_\_\_\_

IV. Administration

Highest degree earned	_____
Number of years in current post	_____
Total years as head of school	_____
Total years in administration	_____
Number of schools as head	_____
Number of years in education	_____
Number of years overseas	_____

V. Number of new staff (turn-over) in the following years-

1984/85 _____	1985/86 _____	1986/87 _____
		(anticipated)

### Modes of Staff Development

From your taped interviews and other discussions which we have had, you have collectively identified a number of constructs which fall within the overall realm of "staff development". In the section which follows, I would ask you to assign relative values to each pair of items resulting a total of 3 points split between the two. Distributions such as 3-0, 2-1, 1.5-1.5, 1-2 and 0-3 might be used. In each case, indicate the relative importance of the two items to the overall goal of staff development in your school.

- \_\_\_\_\_ developing of staff as a working unit
- \_\_\_\_\_ staff conferences attendance
- \_\_\_\_\_ Involvement of staff in school/program decision making
- \_\_\_\_\_ staff conferences attendance
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing of staff as a working unit
- \_\_\_\_\_ on site in-service
- \_\_\_\_\_ orientation of new staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ Involvement of staff in school/program decision making
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing of staff as a working unit
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing staff appreciation for host culture,
- \_\_\_\_\_ language etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ on site in-service
- \_\_\_\_\_ orientation of new staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ staff conferences attendance
- \_\_\_\_\_ orientation of new staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing of staff as a working unit
- \_\_\_\_\_ summer study and graduate work
- \_\_\_\_\_ Involvement of staff in school/program decision making
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing staff appreciation for host culture,
- \_\_\_\_\_ language etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ Involvement of staff in school/program decision making
- \_\_\_\_\_ summer study and graduate work
- \_\_\_\_\_ on site in-service
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing staff appreciation for host culture,
- \_\_\_\_\_ language etc.

- \_\_\_\_\_ staff conferences attendance
- \_\_\_\_\_ summer study and graduate work
- \_\_\_\_\_ on site in-service
- \_\_\_\_\_ staff conferences attendance
- \_\_\_\_\_ orientation of new staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing of staff as a working unit
- \_\_\_\_\_ staff conferences attendance
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing staff appreciation for host culture,  
\_\_\_\_\_ language etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ on site in-service
- \_\_\_\_\_ summer study and graduate work
- \_\_\_\_\_ orientation of new staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ summer study and graduate work
- \_\_\_\_\_ orientation of new staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing staff appreciation for host culture,  
\_\_\_\_\_ language etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ summer study and graduate work
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing staff appreciation for host culture,  
\_\_\_\_\_ language etc.
- \_\_\_\_\_ recruitment of teachers
- \_\_\_\_\_ retention of recruited teachers
- \_\_\_\_\_ up-dating of long term staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ the evaluation process
- \_\_\_\_\_ recruitment of teachers
- \_\_\_\_\_ up-dating of long term staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ recruitment of teachers
- \_\_\_\_\_ the evaluation process
- \_\_\_\_\_ retention of recruited teachers
- \_\_\_\_\_ up-dating of long term staff members
- \_\_\_\_\_ developing of staff as a working unit
- \_\_\_\_\_ Involvement of staff in school/program decision making
- \_\_\_\_\_ Involvement of staff in school/program decision making
- \_\_\_\_\_ on site in-service
- \_\_\_\_\_ retention of recruited teachers
- \_\_\_\_\_ the evaluation process

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