THE EXPERIENCES OF THIRD CULTURE CHILDREN ATTENDING A DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE DEPENDENTS OVERSEAS SECONDARY SCHOOL IN THE REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES

By

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ABSTRACT

The Department of Defense Dependents Schools are an important part of almost every American overseas military base community. Because of the many intercultural families that exist in such communities as well as the overseas settings of the bases, the schools are the sites of continuing encounters and the meeting places for third culture kids (TCKs). The 83 eighth grade students attending a secondary school at a DoD naval base in the Philippines (the subjects of this study) share certain characteristics with most DoDDS students; at the same time, they have some uniquenesses reflecting the specific locale.

This study explores the influence that the background and experiences of these students (including frequent family mobility and father separation) have on (a) academic achievement, (b) socialization with friends at school and interactions with parents at home, and (c) lifestyle in the

DoD overseas community in the Philippines. Ratios in terms of family background were (a) both parents from the USA, 49%; (b) both parents from the Philippines, 11%; (c) mother from the Philippines and father USA, 24%; and (d) father American and mother from a background other than USA or Philippines, 16%.

The study utilizes background data on the students, observations, student responses to a questionnaire, and, where appropriate, a chi-square test to analyze the significance of difference at the 0.05 level of probability.

The findings were:

1. student family background did not make a significant difference in terms of academic achievement, career interests, or perceptions of parental concern about academic achievement;

2. although gender was related to the selection of friends and the sharing of personal problems (with girls being more flexible in each area than boys), no other significant differences were found which resulted from the relationship of family background and gender to the student's socialization and interaction in school and family; and

3. family background did have a significant influence on the mother's work (with the USA mother more involved in part- or full-time work) and the choice of where to live (with Philippine-American families off-base more often). More than a third of the fathers of these children, no matter what their status (officer, enlisted, or civilian), were in cross-cultural marriages.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction to the Study

The experience of living within an overseas military community situated in a foreign country and trying to cope with different cultures and their sometimes conflicting characteristics can be a challenging and frustrating experience for families connected with the Department of Defense. For the husband/father, many of these demands can be dealt with on a more logical level as part of his professional role. For the wife/mother and children, however, there is a special challenge in the supportive family roles they are expected to assume as they encounter the demands of their environment.

The children caught up in this type of situation can be considered third-culture children (dependents of parents who are employed overseas in countries where the family members are not integral parts of the country) (Useem, 1976). The child is going through an important part of the growth and learning stage in a country other than the country of citizenship. In short, the third culture child is the product of a combination of unique circumstances in terms of his/her experiences in different cultural settings worldwide. The complexity of the third culture situation

becomes more apparent in this description by Useem, Useem, and Donoghue:

> The third culture is not merely the accommodation or fusion of two or more separate, juxtaposed cultures. As persons continue to associate across societies while engaged in common enterprises, they incorporate in the ethos of their ingroup, standards for interpersonal behavior, work related norms, codes of reciprocity, style of life, networks of communications, institutional arrangements, world views, and on the individual level, new types of selves. These composite patterns differentiate a third culture from the cultures it transcends. (Useem, Useem, & Donoghue, 1963: 2)

This describes also the process that many students in DoDDS (Department of Defense Dependents Schools) on overseas U.S. military bases are undergoing. For the third culture child in the DoDDS environment, there are often contradictory culture influences pulling him/her in different directions at a key time when personality and cultural identity are being shaped.

For educators and others working with these children, it is important to know as much as we can about their unique circumstances, experiences, and resulting perceptions/attitudes. Then, we can do the best job possible in educating them in the school and the community.

This study explored teenage youths' academic and social adaptation and interaction in the third cultural setting of the DoDDS secondary school at the Subic Bay Naval Base in the Republic of the Philippines. This unit of analysis was based on the most appropriate responses to the third culture environment of the DoDD school and

acceptance of the premise that "behavior and modes of adjustment are elicited from environmental situations" (Allport, 1961).

Further, an attempt was made to explore and report on the perspectives of the students who stem from different types of family background growing out of the fact that there is a rather high proportion of children from cross-cultural and cross-national marriages. This study was characterized by the generation and examination of working hypotheses and will, hopefully, aid in the development of action plans that may better facilitate effective student adaptation to changing third culture settings.

Problem Statement

It is important that military people do share a common life-style and a common culture. This results in a commonly agreed upon type of social solidarity within the military community. In their book Military Sociology, Coates and Pellegrin discuss this.

> There was a feeling of community loyalty and pride or, in military terms, an espirit de corps, that extended beyond the work situation into the family and social life of base community members. In a sense it could be said that the military community, including wives and children as well as officers and enlisted men, formed an "in-group" which was contrasted in the minds of service personnel and civilians alike with the civilian "out-group."
>
> . . . . Along with the social-psychological dimension, then, the traditional base community intertwined the lives of children and wives with the careers of husbands. No clear-cut separation

> between work and leisure or between family life and military duty existed. (Coates & Pellegrin, 1965: 379)

Also, Paul Danauer says that:

> . . . the army (military) family can be considered a part of the Army (military) "maintenance" subsystem. Its major purposes in that role are to meet the needs of the soldier-husband/father in the areas of affection, hetero-sexual expression and parenthood, while he is simultaneously a member of the Army (military). (Danauer in McCubbin, 1976: 47-48)

Conceptually, the military family is seen as part of the "supportive" subsystem. It is an important dimension of life for the military person. At the same time, the family and children are in a specific environmental situation where problems often create special pressures. Particularly in the process of the U.S. expansion of forces overseas, many military servicemen married women of foreign origin--often from the host country. One example of the number of children involved would be the DoDD high school in Yokosuka, Japan. In that school, the Amerasians (children whose fathers are of American heritage and whose mothers are Asian or whose parents are both of Asian heritage) comprised 50% of the DoDDS student body (Spaulding & Cantrell, 1975: 339-344). In another country (Republic of the Philippines), Phillips looked at the intercultural background of fifth graders at Binictican Elementary School at Subic Naval Base. He found the following in the fifth grade population: American-Philippine students, 21%;

Philippine-Philippine students, 11%; and American-other nation origin, 12% (Phillips, 1981).

As persons carrying different cultural backgrounds come together, they develop new cultural patterns in response to the organizational systems and subsystems of which they are a part.

In intercultural marriages, such a development occurs as individual values and attitudes are combined to create a new cultural inheritance for their children. Such children of intercultural families contribute a sizable proportion of DoDDS students overseas.

Dr. Beth Stephens, Director of DoDDS, describes the mission of the schools when she writes, "The Department of Defense Dependents Schools (DoDDS) provide educational opportunities comparable to those offered in the better school systems in the United States" (Stephens, 1984: 3). To be certain that DoDDS students will be prepared to enter the mainstream of American society and be qualified to enter American universities and colleges, the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools inspects both high schools and elementary schools to accredit them as meeting North Central's standards. In some cases, backgrounds of students may adversely affect their ability to meet the demands of DoDDS and to prepare for living in the United States.

Some things that may limit a military student's chances for success could be limited English ability, military rank of parent, parents' nationality, ancestry, culture value orientation and interaction in the family, etc. Any one or a combination of the above factors could affect a student's ability to cope with and adapt to the American military community and the DoDD school.

There are other characteristics of the military lifestyle which can affect all children regardless of the cultural background of the family: the frequent separation of the father/husband from his family is a central issue. It is often assumed that the unfavorable consequences of father absence may manifest themselves at an earlier age in boys than in girls. The absence of the father may cause problems as a young boy shifts from mother to masculine identification. Related to this, studies on father absence have stressed the importance of (a) the age of the child during father's absence, (b) the sex of the child, and (c) the length of the father's absence (McCubbin & Dahl, 1976).

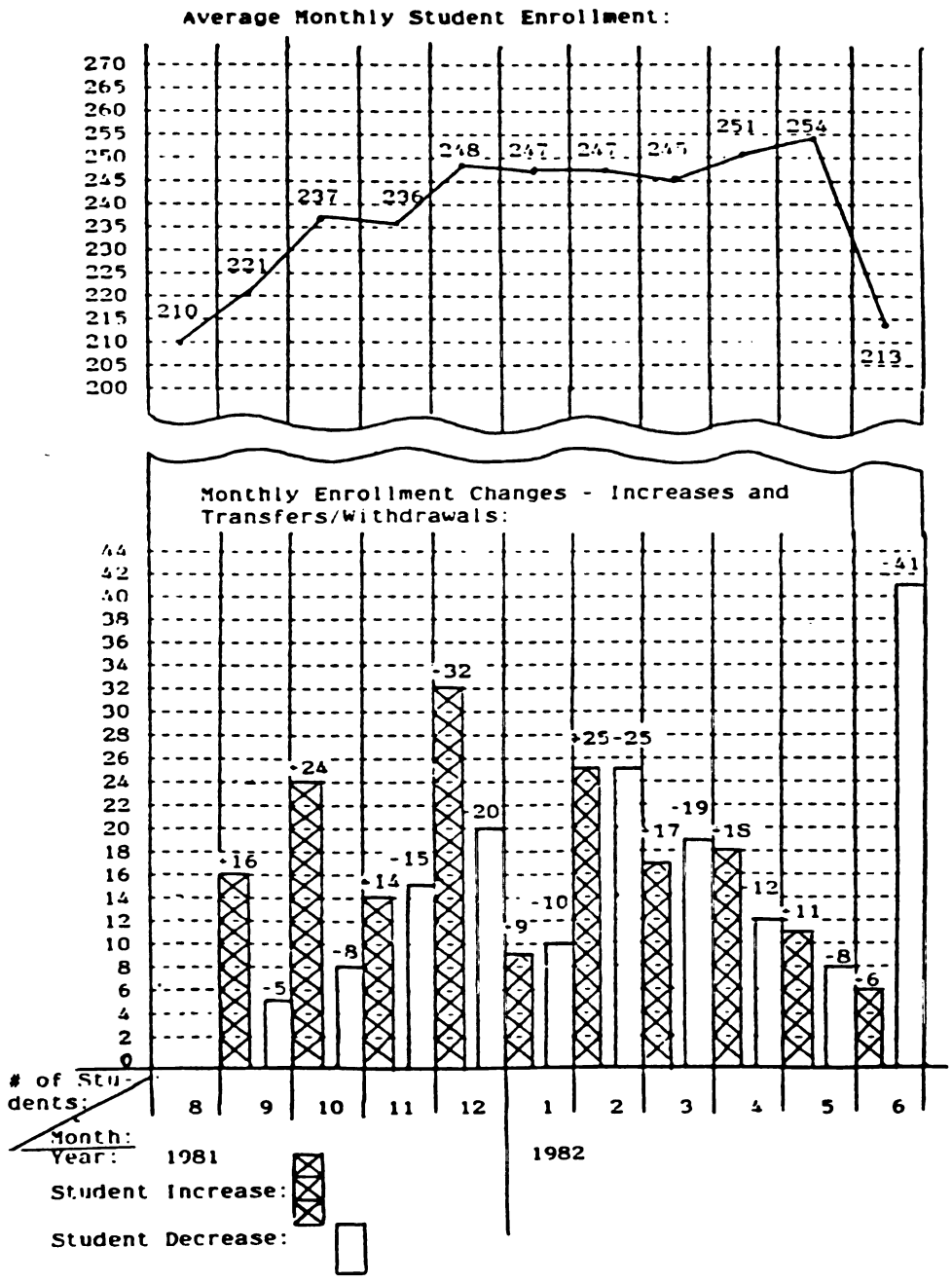
Another factor is the high rate of mobility (with a normal tour of duty being up to three years in one area). Within a military family, it is likely that children experience social-psychological pressures. They must become accustomed to constant movement which means frequently giving up established friendships and developing new friendships. At the same time, changing schools can

compromise and complicate a child's educational experiences.

Even on the same island, there is often a considerable mobility in terms of changing schools. The relationship between San Miguel and Subic Bases is a good example as families change their housing (see Table 1.1 and Appendix A).

The O. H. Perry School (grades K-8) at San Miguel Base in the Philippines is 50 minutes by bus from Subic Naval Base. The base has 368 housing units and a constantly changing population. The extent of this change is reflected in a student mobility table (1.1) that graphically shows student enrollment and transfers/ withdrawals during the school year 1981-82. San Miguel has been the temporary housing assignment for families awaiting permanent housing at Subic Bay (usually a wait of about nine months). Therefore, O. H. Perry's mobile population is significantly large. The average school population is 237 students. In terms of simple monthly enrollment figures, the school enrollment might seem relatively stable; however, an average of 33.3 students constantly move in and out every month. During the school year 1981-82, 172 students entered the school while 163 transferred or withdrew. December and June were the months of greatest movement. This parallels the military transfer peak periods for families.

Table 1.1
Student Mobility at O. H. Perry School in SY 1981-82



Note: This graph has been developed using enrollment figures supplied by Oliver Hazard Perry School at San Miguel, Republic of the Philippines.

Educational standards can be different from one school to another, and subject area content and sequence may not be the same. In extreme cases, adjustment in grade levels may be necessary. On the other hand, the merits of travel experience must be considered. It has been said that the military child gains experience from travel which compensates for what is lost in formal education. Within the military environment and circumstances, youth are experiencing the complexity of adjustments in academic, social, ideological, and sexual areas in a military third cultural setting. Thornburg observes the adolescent experiences generally:

> Throughout childhood and adolescence, the individual learns to differentiate between himself and others. His self-concept becomes more sharply defined through his interrelationship with peers, parents and other adults, and the school.
>
> Good peer affiliations, strong adult models with whom he can identify, and positive social status at school all enhance the adolescent's self-concept. (Thornburg, 1971: 509)

Although Thornburg's adolescent self-concept developments are equally true in the overseas school, the elements of mobility, change, and different individual backgrounds all affect the identify search and have a positive or negative influence on its resolution.

So, the setting of the DoDD school adds a unique and potentially significant dimension to the teenage period--both in terms of potential maladaption or beneficial growth.

Objectives of This Study

This study investigated the circumstances of third culture teenage youth in the DoDD secondary school at Subic Bay Naval Base in the Philippines. The following were the objectives of this study:

1. to examine the academic achievement of four different family background groups of students who were enrolled in eighth grade for the 1982-3 academic year,

2. to examine the social interaction and adaptation of eighth grade students from different family backgrounds during the school experience,

3. to examine the impact of the different family backgrounds on student life styles in the DoD overseas community, and

4. to examine the impact of the characteristic military family mobility and frequent separation from their fathers on students.

The results of this study were expected to reveal information about teenage students in the DoDDS setting and to provide insights that could have relevance to curriculum development and counseling services in these schools.

A partial demographic examination of the family backgrounds of the students is found in Tables 1.2, 1.3, and 1.4 which follow.

Table 1.2
Parental Nationality Background*

	Nationality				
Gender	M--U.S. F--U.S.	M--Phil. F--Phil.	M--Phil. F--U.S.	Other	Total
Boys	20 (44.4%)	8 (17.8%)	10 (22.2%)	7 (15.6%)	45 (100%)
Girls	21 (55.3%)	1 (2.6%)	10 (26.3%)	6 (15.8%)	38 (100%)
TOTALS:	41 (49.4%)	9 (10.8%)	20 (24.1%)	13 (15.7%)	83 (100%)

* Nationality background refers to nation of origin rather than current citizenship of parents.

Table 1.3
Student Relationship to Parents

	Relationship				
Gender	Adopted	Step-mother	Step-father	Own Parents	Total
Boys	0 (0.0%)	4 (8.9%)	11 (24.4%)	30 (66.7%)	45 (100%)
Girls	3 (7.9%)	3 (7.9%)	8 (21.1%)	24 (63.4%)	38 (100%)
TOTALS:	3 (3.6%)	7 (8.4%)	19 (22.9%)	54 (65.1%)	83 (100%)

Table 1.4
Father's Position

	Position			
Gender	Officer	Civilian	Enlisted	Total
Boys	14 (31.1%)	16 (35.6%)	15 (33.3%)	45 (100%)
Girls	10 (26.3%)	9 (23.7%)	19 (50.0%)	38 (100%)
TOTALS:	24 (28.9%)	25 (30.1%)	34 (41.0%)	83 (100%)

Background

The Military Community and Its Functions

Before we can consider individual elements of the overseas' situation, however, we need to have a better view of the community in which these elements exist. Although the American military overseas community is similar in many ways to a community in the United States, it does have its own distinctive characteristics. These are a consequence of its location, its assigned mission, and the third culture environment in which it exists.

Coates and Pellegrin (1965) identify some factors that are unique about the military community. They point out that the military community is usually comprised of two parts: the military or combat function and the base support functions:

> One is usually the highly mobile operational unit with some specific combat or combat-related function. The other consists of what has been

> called a "house keeping unit" which keeps the base and its facilities functioning . . . (Coates & Pellegrin, 1965: 379)

The support function includes all the facilities needed by members of the base community to function--stores, recreational services, health care services, religious centers, schools, and many other related facilities needed in daily life by service personnel and their families. The support function is expected to operate in such a way that the community has a life style and opportunities as close as possible to what they could encounter in the average American community. This expectation requires a strong and well developed community structure which can maintain a stable environment in the midst of constant transition and movement of people.

Another factor that is an important influence in the military community is ". . . the transiency of military personnel and sometimes of whole military units" (Coates & Pellegrin, 1965).

The military must help people fit into community routine as quickly as possible with as little inconvenience as possible. This is essential if the major goal is to provide as stable a community support base as possible so that the military mission is in no way compromised. This becomes more important overseas where the base community is in a different nation, and it is even more essential that the base duplicate the same range of services provided by a civilian community.

Composition of the Overseas Military Base Community

Overseas military communities vary greatly in terms of composition and type depending on where they are located in a foreign country and the branch of the military service the individual base represents. Despite these differences, each base could be compared to a small city in many ways. The housing area contains hospitals, schools (for dependents of the personnel living on the base), libraries, churches, movie theaters, restaurants, gymnasiums, tennis courts, swimming pools, baseball and football fields, police stations, hobby centers, fire stations, laundromats, and housing facilities (which divide the base population according to service or civilian rank and marital status) as well as clubs for members of different ranks to attend.

> The military rank of the husband/father is directly related to the kind of living arrangements to which his family will be expected to adjust. To an important extent, the rank of the husband/father will determine how the family is expected to behave and what it is expected to value. (Coats & Pellegrin, 1965)

Although the base commander has often been compared to a city mayor, many times his task extends beyond that of a mayor. There are important ways in which operating a military base is more complicated than governing a city. A major complicating factor is that a base normally operates maintenance services and handles supplies for the military operations unit on the base. This could go as far as to include specialized shops (from carpentry to machine shops)

needed for ships, planes, and other military equipment. Such factors can make the average military base a most complex operation.

The Relationship Between the Military Community and the Host Nation Country

When the United States occupation forces were stationed in foreign lands after World War II, relationships developed between base communities and host nation communities in which the two performed certain functions for each other. In this way, Coates and Pellegrin (1965) wrote, the base develops a type of symbiotic relationship with the larger host nation community beside which it exists. At the same time, however, the base community and the host nation community operate with a common understanding of the problems that can exist in such a close relationship.

Although a base may provide almost all of the goods and services needed within the base community for survival, the base still depends on the host community to provide certain goods and services (often including a host nation work force) or to supplement what the base provides. Obviously, this relationship will vary from situation to situation, often depending on the host nation's economic and social circumstances. In such third world countries as the Philippines, host nation people tend to be hired in large numbers, thereby benefitting the base with low labor cost while the host nation benefits from jobs which would

not otherwise be available. At the same time, this creates a problem for military wives who seek base jobs.

Often the host community provides some of the base needs in terms of such utilities as water and electric power. It often maintains some connection with the host nation companies to supply a degree of its needs. The base also relies on the host nation system of roads and traffic control for off-base travel. Often, when traffic reaches the base gate, that gate is guarded by a combination of hired host nation guards and American military guards. Off-base the relationship continues with many restaurants, bars, shops, stores, and other commercial establishments dependent on the business of service personnel and their families.

Although the base may be important to the host nation as a measure of "national defense" (a major function of the base in the United States), this function may not always exist from the host nation's perspective. In fact, the significant function of the base for the host nation may be more financial. This may take the form of outright U.S. aid to the nation hosting the base and/or it may take the form of money spent by the base and its personnel and their families.

Historical Precedents of Department of Defense Overseas Dependent Schools

The history of the education program of U.S. dependents was established when military post schools in the U.S. came into existence. In the early 1800s, General Winfield Scott became interested in schooling provided for military dependent children. He was perhaps the first person to recognize the importance of such an education program. After the War of 1812, when the U.S. army moved westward with the advancing frontier, it was accompanied by the wives and children of military personnel. General Scott developed a set of regulations to provide guidelines for establishing schools for military minor dependents in the isolated frontier settlements.

Congress was impressed by General Scott's new education program and, in 1812, provided the funds needed to support it. The law providing money for the system came from a sales tax on the wares which traders and merchants sold to the military community. The money necessary for military dependents' schools was provided by either the army or Congress for the next hundred years.

When American soldiers returned to their families after World War I, their children were mostly educated in public schools and the post schools on the few permanent military bases. This system of post schools was approved by Congress (which even provided funds to support the

schools for a while until local bases donated support funds from money donated from the profits of local post exchanges).

After World War II, U.S. occupation troops were stationed in Europe, and the military services were responsible for the education of school-aged dependents of U.S. personnel. Until 1946, three separate school systems were developed and maintained by the Army, Air Force, and Navy. In 1964, these were unified, and the education system became the responsibility of the Department of Defense. In 1985, this is still the situation.

U.S. Army Schools

When the U.S. Army first opened 38 elementary and five high schools in Germany on October 14, 1946, there were 116 American teachers to teach 1,297 dependent children.

Army schools in the Far East were opened in 1949 on a small scale and did not grow until after the Korean Conflict when more dependents moved into the Far East.

In 1950, a school construction program was started to match the increased stationing of forces overseas. In the total construction program, dependent schools were ranked in the list of support facilities.

U.S. Air Force Schools

The Air Force started with three types of schools for dependents:

1. service-contract education, which provided instruction in already existing private schools or schools in English-speaking areas;

2. correspondence courses, which were available in isolated areas where service-contract education was not possible; and

3. Air Force schools, which were established in places where enough dependents could be found (20 students in grades 1-8 or 50 students in grades 9-12).

The number of students educated in the Air Force programs increased from 28,000 in 69 countries in 1955 to 36,000 in 1964. In 1964, 49% of the students were in permanent school buildings while almost 40% of the others were in inadequate classrooms.

U.S. Navy Schools

The first overseas dependents' schools were established in 1936 on naval bases in American Samoa and Cuba. These and later navy schools were operated as a single system.

Enrollment in U.S. Navy schools grew from approximately 5,600 in 1956 to 12,000 in 1964 when there were 34 schools on 23 naval bases.

Unification of the Three Systems

As a consequence of a report by a survey committee of civilian educators in 1964 (appointed by the Defense Advisory Committee on Education), the three systems were unified under the Department of Defense Overseas Dependent Schools System.

On August 15, 1966, another investigating team (this time sent by the Committee on Education and Labor) recommended that the schools all be organized into one system. On that date, the DoD became responsible for the "organization, operation, administration, and logistical support of the overseas dependents' schools." The geographic areas in which different services were responsible for school operations and administration were now:

Army:	countries in Europe, Africa, and Asia to 90 east longitude
Air Force:	Pacific area to include all countries in the Far East to 90 east longitude, Australia, and New Zealand
Navy:	Atlantic area, including North, Central, and South America

Organization and Administration

DoD overseas dependents's schools began operation on July 1, 1964. In 1965, the entire DoD system contained 327 schools, 7,100 teachers, 500 administrators, and 180,000 students.

The 1965 investigating team recommendation that all the schools be part of one organized system led to an assignment of areas of the world to different branches of the service. Since that time, there has been some pressure to move these overseas dependents' schools to the Department of Education. In 1986, the question of

responsibility for military overseas schools will be reviewed by a Congressional committee. President Reagan wants the schools to remain in the Department of Defense.

DoDDS Situations and Related Policies

The total enrollment of students in DoD schools has declined each year since 1970. From an enrollment of 190,000 students in 1969, DoDDS enrollment has declined to 136,000 in 1984.

There are eight DoDDS dormitories provided for those students whose families live in locations which are remote from the schools. These dormitories are divided into five-day dormitories (with students returning to their homes for weekends) and seven-day dormitories (where parents live too far for even weekend transportation). The five-day dormitories are located in Lakenheath, England; Osterholz, Germany; Vincenza, Italy; and AFCENT (Brunssum), Netherlands. The seven-day dormitories are operated in Bahrain; London, England; Frankfurt, Germany; and Torrejon Air Base, Spain. Dormitory counselors/resident hall advisors hired to supervise the dormitories are required to have 18 semester hours of preparation in guidance and counseling, psychology, recreation, or related fields. In addition, they should have a year of experience which demonstrates the ability to relate one-to-one with students (DoDDS: Atlantic Region, 1978).

From its early days as a temporary measure, the DoDDS program has grown to be a seemingly-permanent system offering a modern program of curriculum and instruction that is the equivalent of most stateside systems.

This fact and unique features of the program (such as dormitory situations) have resulted in the program's acquisition of more guidance counselors, special education teachers, reading improvement specialists, speech therapists, English as a Second Language specialists, and specialists in art, music, and physical education. Much of this growth has paralleled the changing educational emphasis in the United States and has helped to keep overseas schools current. An example would be special education programs for the mentally retarded, blind, deaf, orthopedically handicapped, and emotionally disturbed children. Another parallel is a team approach utilizing military social workers, pediatricians, psychiatrists, psychologists, and general medical staff.

Extensive inservice programs and workshops have kept administrators and teachers working with the latest curricular innovations. In a seven-year curriculum development plan (begun during school year 1983-84), for example, an in-depth study of major curricular areas and one or two interdisciplinary areas is conducted each year. Individual schools and even entire areas have employed programs such as modular education in secondary schools, nongrading in the elementary schools, middle schools,

gradeless report cards, learning centers, a multimedia approach, computer-assisted education, career education, talented and gifted education, etc.

In school year 1983-84, 100% of the high schools in DoDDS, 60% of the middle/junior high schools, and 80% of the eligible elementary schools had been accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Schools (NCA). It was anticipated that by the end of school year 1984-85, 90% of the DoDDS students would be attending accredited schools--a higher percentage than any of the 19 other states in NCA (Stephens, 1984). (DoDDS has been contracting with NCA since 1946 to periodically evaluate dependent schools.)

In addition to a college preparatory program, increasing attention has been given to both career education and vocational education as programs that complement each other. This is intended to give a realistic career dimension to the experience of all students.

The DoDDS's objectives and goals are very similar to those of other U.S. schools. The official task of DoDDS is to maintain a school system which provides quality education through 13 years of school. The school system serves not only the children of military and other DoD personnel, but also serves eligible dependents of other federal employees who are overseas on official duty. On a space-available basis, American children in the

international community (such as employees of American companies overseas) have sometimes been accepted on a tuition-paying basis.

Teachers are recruited from the United States and must be fully qualified U.S.-trained classroom teachers with two years of successful experience in teaching. In addition, secondary teachers must have at least two subject areas in which they are qualified to teach. As student population and other circumstances often change unexpectedly in individual schools, some teachers are recruited overseas for a temporary period (not to exceed the school year). Although some of these teachers may not meet all requirements expected of DoDDS U.S.-recruited teachers, there are often dependents available in the overseas military and civilian communities who have excellent backgrounds and meet or exceed stateside requirements. The quality of the teaching staff is very important to the realization of stateside standards and an equivalent U.S. education for students who are far from the United States.

After teachers enter DoDDS, new recertification qualifications require that they take six semester graduate hours related to their teaching assignment during each six year recertification period. At the same time, DoDDS sponsors tuition assistance with graduate courses offered overseas by major universities (especially Michigan State University) and special summer graduate workshops and classes overseas and in the U.S. As a result, most

teachers either have their Master's degrees or are in the process of taking classes leading to that degree.

The school's role in the military community support system requires that the school and teachers provide a strong academic program which provides for much individualized attention as well as a stable and healthy school atmosphere in which students can develop the social skills necessary for success in the U.S. and in the world of the future.

At the same time, however, DoDDS has its own specific philosophy of education because the schools are located in foreign lands. Part of their function is to promote better understanding between people and nations and to utilize opportunities for students to learn firsthand about other ways of life. For 15 years, there has been an emphasis on host nation relations and language instruction. In keeping with their very different situations (located in over 20 different nations), each school tends to develop parts of its program differently to meet its individual needs. For example, holidays, art, music, and athletic activities all provide opportunities for combined programs with the host nation. The key resource person for teachers interested in taking advantage of unique educational opportunities while improving host nation relations often is the culture and host nation language teacher. This is an important part of the educational symbiotic relationship.

In recent years, an English as a Second Language (ESL) program has been developed in DoDDS. As students entering overseas dependents' schools are increasingly from backgrounds in which at least one parent, usually the mother, has been socialized in another cultural setting and speaks a language other than English, complications that occur in a home where two persons carrying often-contrasting cultures are coming together are frequently repeated in school.

In the Philippines, many of these students are children (of all ages) who have been adopted into recent cross-national marriages through their mothers or other female relatives who have married American servicemen or other DoD employees. Adoption of host national children by American parents is another major factor as the adoption process is legally quite easy.

As a consequence, the ESL program has become more important, and there has been a concentrated effort to identify students whose opportunity to succeed in school is hindered by their limited English proficiency (LEP students). This makes the ESL program especially important for such students. It also means that the program must be prepared to help in cultural transition as well as in English language development.

Approximately nine percent of the children in DoDDS are bilingual or multilingual. Of this group, from three to five percent need special teacher assistance to become

proficient in English so that they will be able to succeed in English-speaking classrooms. This special instruction in English for elementary and secondary schools is provided by teachers especially trained in ESL. The most frequent first languages of ESL students in DoDDS are German, Japanese, Spanish, a Philippine dialect, Korean, Thai, Italian, and French. Very few DoDDS students in ESL classes are Vietnamese. Since the fall of 1979, ESL teachers have been recruited to assist in helping students through ESL. In this and other ways, DoDDS provides direction for a quality curriculum that meets the program's goals and reaches every student (DoDDS Information Guide, 1984).

General Information about the Subic Naval Base Community

Location

Of course, the school's program, parts of the curriculum offered, and the philosophy reflect the influence of the local situation. This makes it important to know more about the base community in which George Dewey High School is located.

The community and schools are located on the Subic Naval Base in Zambalas and Bataan Provinces of the Philippines. The base is on the western size of Luzon Island on the South China Sea. It is about 50 miles northwest of Manila.

The present Subic Naval Base was established after World War II in 1946. A U.S.-Philippine status of armed forces agreement covering military bases is in effect until 1992.

As a result of a 1979 amendment to the base agreement, this large (36,000 acres) base is under the command of a Philippine base commander. This arrangement emphasizes Philippine sovereignty status and resolves problems related to continued use of the base by the U.S. facility under the control of the commander of U.S. Naval Forces-Philippines.

Training in jungle survival and warfare techniques is provided in the 9,000 acre jungle area that is the U.S. naval magazine at Subic Bay.

The base has one of the tightest security systems of any overseas base. Its three gates are guarded by teams of American and Philippine guards who check the identification of people entering and leaving the base as well as examining the personal possessions of those leaving the base. This reflects three major concerns: possible black marketing of American merchandise off-base, potential loss of parts and materials essential to the base's mission--materials which have a value in the black market, and the general security of the bases and its occupants.

Facilities

Complete support facilities are available at both the Subic Naval Station and the attached Cubi Naval Air

Station. There are two base libraries, five service clubs, one commissary, two main exchanges, banking facilities, a golf course, three movie theaters, three swimming pools, various hobby shops, and other facilities. There is also an 84-bed, full-service hospital in addition to a regional medical center.

History

The Spanish government constructed a naval station at Subic Bay in 1895. The base was ceded to the United States in 1898 and has been used by the U.S. since that time, except for Japanese occupation during World War II. In 1946, much of the land was returned to the Philippine government, leaving 36,000 acres designated as Subic Naval Base. Today the 15,161 acre U.S. facility at Subic/Cubi is operated under a military bases agreement with the Republic of the Philippines valid through 1991. U.S. naval facilities in the Subic Bay/Cubi Point area cover a total of 5,830 hectares (14,400 acres) of land.

The base is adjacent to Olongapo City which has an estimated population of 220,000 (1982 estimate).

On-Base Housing

There are 1,307 modern housing units for U.S. officers and enlisted personnel, DoD civilians, and their dependents at Subic Bay. Another 368 housing units are provided at Naval Communications Station-Philippines, San Miguel. In

Table 1.5
Approximate Subic Naval Base U.S. Population

Category	Population
U.S. military personnel	7,506 (51%)
U.S. civilians	737 (5%)
U.S. military and civilian dependents	6,483 (44%)
TOTAL:	14,726 (100%)

September, 1982, there was a total of 5,592 U.S. military people and their dependents residing in on-base housing.

Off-Base Housing

At the same time, some 4,868 U.S. military and DoD civilians and their families resided in housing off-base in September, 1982. Some people live off-base because no on-base housing is available, while others have been on-base for five years and are required to move off-base. Living off-base can be a great difficulty because there are few adequate houses with drinkable water, continuous electricity, or sufficient security.

The Impact of the Philippine Community

There is a continuous interaction between the naval base and the Philippine community near the base. An informal contact exists every time a U.S. sailor, Marine, or civilian leaves the base for shopping or recreation. Formal contacts occur when the base provides jobs for host

nation workers; provides related training for host nation employees, military personnel, community service workers, and others; and gives civil action assistance (see Table 1.6). In a number of ways, the base has a financial impact on the community and the society at large.

Table 1.6
Approximate Facility Employment Figures

Category	Work Force
U.S. military personnel	7,506 (24.7%)
U.S. civilians (appropriated funds and non-appropriated funds)	737 (2.4%)
Philippine nationals (direct)	13,799 (45.5%)
Philippine nationals (contractors)	4,560 (15.0%)
Philippine nationals (domestic workers)	3,145 (10.4%)
Philippine nationals (concessionaires)	613 (2.0%)
TOTAL:	30,360 (100%)

Source: Comusnavphil Command slide presentation, 10/21/82.

Training Programs Offered by the Base

The most extensive training program offered by the base is by the ship repair facility and the Public Works Center (PWC). They have graduated over 1800 highly skilled Philippine technicians from their four-year apprentice programs. In another program, the naval medical center also conducts valuable training sessions for Philippine doctors, laboratory and X-ray technicians. In addition,

the base exchange provides a wide variety of training programs for its employees whose jobs range from sales to accounting. Many other training programs also exist on a smaller scale for individuals working in different parts of the base community. This extends to training in fire and safety procedures for domestic employees.

Financial Impact

The money spent off-base is difficult to accurately determine, but it is estimated that about 66 million dollars are spent yearly by the nearly two million Navy men and Marines who are on liberty in the community. Almost another two million dollars are invested in the community by Navy civic action and community relations programs. When this amount is increased by the salaries of civilians and domestics, local contracts, and others, as well as by purchase of local materials (procurement), locally-made products, and off-base rents and utilities, there is a figure of approximately 168 million dollars spent. (This could be increased to nearly 185 million if the checks for military retirees living in the area are added (Comusnavphil Command slide presentation, 1982).

Schools

There are three schools on the Subic Naval Base, providing classes for students in grades K-12: Kalayaan Elementary School (K-3), Binictican Elementary School (4-6), and George Dewey High School (7-12). Kalayaan

Elementary (635 students) is located near the Kalayaan housing area. Established in 1959, the school, which is considered by many to be the most attractive DoDDS elementary school in the Pacific, has a staff of 27 educators. Binictican Elementary (445 students) was built in 1959 in the Binictican housing area. Consisting of seven modern buildings, it has a staff of 18 educators. George Dewey Junior-Senior High School (578 students) was designed and constructed in 1959. It has a staff of 28 full-time educators.

George Dewey High School was named after Commodore George Dewey who defeated the Spanish at the Battle of Manila Bay to end three centuries of Spanish rule in the Philippines in 1898. It has nine centrally-air-conditioned, one-story buildings with all classrooms opening out onto covered walkways. In addition to 29 classrooms, the school has a library, a modern gymnasium, a mini-theater, and a canteen. The school is set off the main road in a jungle area from which sometimes come unexpected intruders. For this reason, the school is guarded by host nation security guards. Besides the 28 full-time teachers, the school has a support staff of 1.5 counselors, a learning disabilities teacher, a reading improvement specialist, a teacher of the talented and gifted, a host nation teacher (who teaches mostly junior high classes in Philippine culture and language), a part-

time nurse, and a librarian (see Table 1.7 for student enrollment information).

Table 1.7
Enrollment of Secondary School Students, 1982-83

Grade	Boys	Girls	Total
7th	75 (56.4)	58 (43.6)	133 (100.0%)
8th	57 (48.7)	60 (51.3)	117 (100.0%)
9th	58 (56.9)	44 (43.1)	102 (100.0%)
10th	66 (62.3)	40 (37.7)	106 (100.0%)
11th	39 (60.9)	25 39.1)	64 (100.0%)
12th	23 (41.1)	33 (58.9)	56 (100.0%)
TOTALS:	318 (55.0)	260 (45.0)	578 (100.0%)

Source: Modified from 1983: Pathways (Yearbook)

When this study was done in 1982, the average period of time in the Philippines for a teacher at the school was 5.5 years, with the longest tenure being 17 years for one teacher. Four of the faculty were Americans who had cross-national marriages: two spouses from the Philippines, one from Japan, and one from Korea.

The average teacher would have from 100 to 120 students in classes during a typical school day. This

number varied from teacher to teacher, depending on subject matter and grade level taught. Junior high classes tended to be larger, with 30 students in some classes.

In terms of academic preparation, 80% of the faculty had Master's degrees, and many were taking graduate classes to qualify for Master's degrees, the Master's-plus-30 pay scale, or the doctorate degree. Graduate classes from Michigan State University were offered on base with tuition assistance, and a graduate program from a Philippine university was available with weekend classes in Manila.

The teachers displayed a sincere concern about the academic progress of all students, and many provided additional help for students having difficulty. With an excellent ESL teacher and counseling support, the ESL students were a major concern of the school.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

Introduction

The literature most appropriate to this study has the following themes.

1. It is from an overview of general culture orientation that we prepare to understand the concept of the third culture and third culture elements that relate to Department of Defense Dependent School students and their family backgrounds.

2. A study of the characteristics of teenagers is needed to gain a perspective from which to view the eighth grade students who are the subjects of this research and to better understand the related research on third culture factors in the school environment.

3. Teenage youth in an overseas military community must function under unique environmental conditions. Two major circumstances to which they must adapt are the high rate of family mobility and frequent separation from the father.

4. It is necessary to examine a military social system theory that can be applied to the overseas Department of Defense community.

Definition of Culture

It is important to begin with a clear understanding of some major definitions so that common agreement can be reached on what is to follow in this chapter. The obvious starting point is the definition of culture. Although many

definitions may be basically the same, different expert definitions of culture will provide the larger perspective that comes from considering each unique insight into the concept.

Herskovits provided the common base for definitions when he wrote that culture is the man-made part of the environment. This suggests that culture is basically the social environment that has been developed within the natural environment. This definition takes culture far beyond being a biological phenomenon (Herskovits, 1955).

Within Cultural Anthropology, Herskovits quoted E. B. Tylor defining culture as " . . . that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (Herskovits, 1955: 305).

In another definition, Hoebel identified culture as " . . . the integrated sum total of learned behavior traits which are manifest and shared by the members of a society" (Hoebel, 1971: 208). In emphasizing the importance of the factor of learned behavior, Hoebel carefully excluded instincts, innate reflexes, and other biologically inherited behavior forms. The resulting view of culture is that it is completely the result of social intervention which becomes the social heritage handed down from one generation to the next through laws and rules.

In their examination of non-literate, developing, and modern societies, Useem, Useem, and Donoghue gave attention

to the changing nature of culture in complex modern societies.

> Culture in complex, changing, accessible, large-scale, literate societies is still stored, learned, and shared but in quite different ways than is true for preliterate, small societies. At the risk of over-simplification, we might summarize a few of these differences by noting that culture themes become more explicit and abstract with greater latitude left to individuals and groups as to how these themes are interpreted and applied in changing situations . . . . in complex societies, culture norms and practices are more debated, discussed, reassessed as additional patterns are created to solve new problems. (Useem, Useem, & Donoghue, 1963: 3)

The historical aspect of culture becomes a vital characteristic as the shared behavior involved changes through learning to affect the way of life and become, as well, the basic nature of the group that comprises the culture. Each new generation picks up the customs and value systems of the past and refines them before passing them on to the next generation. This is accomplished from one generation to the next with assigned roles related to sex, age, occupation, and kinship within the society. Edward T. Hall referred to this generational transmission of tradition when he described the evolutional history during which the complex bases of human behavior were developed. He saw these bases as being primarily biological.

> There is an unbroken continuity between the far past and the present, for culture is bio-basic-rooted in biological activities. Infra-culture is the term which can be given to behavior that preceded culture as we know it today. (Hoebel, 1971: 208)

Ruth Benedict considered culture in terms of its impact on the individual.

> The life-history of the individual is first and foremost an accommodation to the patterns and standards traditionally handed down in his community. From the moment of his birth, the customs into which he is born shape his experience and behavior. By the time he can talk, he is the little creature of his culture, and by the time he is grown and able to take part in its activities, its habits are his habits, its beliefs his beliefs, its impossibilities his impossibilities. Every child that is born into his group will share them with him, and no child born into one on the opposite side of the globe can ever achieve the thousandth part. There is no social problem it is more incumbent upon us to understand than this of the role of custom. Until we are intelligent as to its laws and varieties, the main complicating facts of human life must remain unintelligible. (Benedict, 1934: 2-3)

Although Benedict wrote this almost 50 years ago, her advice about the need to understand the role of custom in different cultures still has special importance for a study of third culture peoples.

There are, of course, many definitions of culture. (Kroeber and Kluckhohn list over 160 different formal definitions.) Useem, Useem, and Donoghue felt that it is most simply defined as " . . . <u>the learned and shared behavior of a community of interacting human beings</u>" (Useem, Useem, & Donoghue, 1963: 2).

Culture Change

Any traditional institution is likely to change in form so that it becomes far different from the institution originally established by a group of people. Although the

change is often continuous and gradual, it can also be sudden and dramatic. George Murdock considered all of these possibilities when he described culture change.

> Changes in social behavior, and hence in culture, normally have their origin in some significant alteration in the life conditions of a society. Any event which changes the situations under which collective behavior occurs, so that habitual actions are discouraged and new responses are favored, may lead to cultural innovations. Among the classes of events that are known to be especially influential in producing cultural change are increases or decreases in population, changes in the geographical environment, migrations into new environments, contacts with peoples of differing culture, natural and social catastrophes such as floods, crop failures, epidemics, wars, and economic depressions, accidental discoveries, and even such biographical events as the death or rise to power of a strong political leader. (Murdock, 1971: 321-322)

From the types of events that produce cultural change, changes in the geographical environment, migrations into new environments and contacts with peoples of differing culture seem to relate directly to the experiences of families in the DoD overseas' community and the DoDD schools.

Murdock also identified four processes through which cultural change takes place: "innovation," "social acceptance," "selective elimination," and "integration." It is through innovation that cultural change first begins with an individual who introduces something new that is then either learned or accepted by the rest of the society. This may take the form of invention, variation, tentation (when a "new" solution to an unsolved problem is sought),

or cultural borrowing (when the innovator introduces a new idea or approach from another culture) (Murdock, 1971: 322-326).

This becomes a process that never ends as each innovation alters in some way the existing situation and leads to changes that, in themselves, are really new innovations that contribute to still more change and still more innovations as the process continues.

Herskovits stated that one must resolve the following seeming paradoxes in order to understand the basic nature of culture:

1. culture is universal in man's experience, yet each local or regional manifestation of it is unique;

2. culture is stable, yet is also dynamic, and manifests continuous and constant change; and

3. culture fills and largely determines the course of our lives, yet rarely intrudes into conscious thought. (Herskovits, 1969: 306)

In his 1971 presidential address to the Thirty-third Annual Meeting of the Ohio Valley Sociological Society, John Useem emphasized that the traditional definitions of culture make it difficult to fully understand the rapidity and extent of cultural change that is occurring today. He identified three historical periods in which the "developing interdependency between societies of the world" has evolved to the present situation with the accompanying shift in values and powers:

first period: 1850 to World War II --colonialism and para-colonialism characterized this period as " . . . selective elements of the culture of the dominant country were introduced into segments of the colonialized societies";

second period: the middle years of this century -- global interdependency developed as new nations were created from the old colonial world and the bi-lateral colonial ties were replaced by multi-lateral contacts. The fundamental concept of this period was that plans for economic development would be a strong foundation for building a strong nation and ensuring a good standard of living for the people. Culture was seen as man-made and, therefore, adjustable by the efforts of national planners, foreign consultants, and change agents; and

third period: the present time -- characterized by uncertainty over the discovery that interdependency has often meant increased dependency of the developing nations on developed nations and that the Western model of society is not always the best for emulation by developing countries. The new emphasis is on joint-participation in the creation of new cultural patterns to confront global problems that threaten all nations and peoples alike. At the present stage, agreements on how to proceed have yet to be developed as the older generation from the second period and the younger generation of the third period and their respective organizations must find ways to resolve their often opposing views of the world. (J. Useem, 1971: 7-9)

Although George DeVos felt that we tend to regard "culture change" and "social change" as almost interchangeable, at least a partial distinction can be made.

> The ethos of a culture is the characteristic spirit of prevalent tone or sentiment of a people, institution, or system . . . . ethos is, in effect, the emotional patterns reflected in cultural behavior. In situations of change,

> patternings in the emotional tone or implicit feelings underlying behavior may persist in spite of revision of legal or other externally sanctioned behavioral forms. (DeVos, 1976: 7)

The Concept of the Third Culture

Although it has already been presented in Chapter I, the prevailing definition of third culture by Useem, Useem, and Donoghue needs to be repeated here.

> The third culture is not merely the accommodation or fusion of two or more separate, juxtaposed cultures. As persons continue to associate across societies while engaged in common enterprises, they incorporate in the ethos of their ingroup, standards for interpersonal behavior, work related norms, codes of reciprocity, style of life, networks of communications, institutional arrangements, world views, and on the individual level, new types of selves. These composite patterns differentiate a third culture from the cultures it transcends. (Useem, Useem, & Donoghue, 1963: 2)

In describing the third culture more, John Useem identified five major characteristics of third cultures.

1. They are creative cultures. The main concern is future-oriented activities that will result in betterment of the culture for future generations.

2. They are mediating cultures. The need is for "men-in-the-middle" who can play a mediating role in the exchange between cultures and societies in the modern world.

3. They " . . . are cultures carried by very limited segments from the total populations of the connected societies and countries." These persons normally are mobile, highly educated individuals who have entered the third culture as adults working in occupations that are "part of the modernizing-developing-nation-building institutions."

4. They are rapidly changing cultures. Because of the rapid change, there are few

traditionally defined roles to pass on to a next generation. Instead, many roles are continuously being developed and defined by the individual in the process of trying to make his/her immediate world a better place. They are in a period of intense socialization.

5. They are cultures that " . . . depend for their existence and meaning on the larger collectivities of societies, countries, and the international world." By their nature, third cultures experience all of the shifts and changes in economic forces, political alignments, ideas and ideologies that occur in the modern global society. Thus while a third culture is in one respect a creator of new patterns, it also in another respect is a creature of the world conditions which prevail." (J. Useem, 1971: 14-16)

Third culture kids (TCK) have certain basic characteristics: they live outside their nations of citizenship with parents (usually fathers) whose employment take them beyond the status of tourists to that of official representatives of countries, commercial concerns, churches, military services, or other formal institutions. At the same time, the TCK is relating the cultures which s/he is experiencing (Useem & Downie, 1976).

Much of the research concerned with third culture children has utilized the categories identified by Useem:

1. long-time-outers: dependents of career-overseas parents. The most immediately noticeable characteristic of the children who have grown up in overseas areas is the presentation of self. They appear to be "little adults," more mature than stateside teenagers. Some sit quietly and move deliberately, act "mannerly" in the presence of their elders, get along well with adults, know how to greet strangers and do not attract attention to themselves. Others are more friendly and outgoing, but such surface congeniality gives no

more clues as to what they are experiencing and feeling than the behavior of those who are more wary.

Children who spend most of their preteen years overseas become self-directed, self-controlled, self-disciplined teenagers. The discipline imposed by others becomes self-discipline; the control imposed by others becomes self-control. In short, such a manner of presenting the self is unthinkingly internalized as the "normal" way to behave. They act elite, feel that belong to an elite community,a nd may associate in addition with local, national, or international elites.

A variant of this type is the overseas teenager who is sent to boarding school for most of his schooling . . . . In general outlines, the boarding school young people are much like the teenagers who reside with the families,with two interesting differences. Boarding school teenagers are closer in values to their parents; seem more immature in their relationships with members of the opposite sex, especially in terms of traditional American "dating patterns";

2. first-time-outers. ,They. . . . have been socialized all their lives, prior to their coming to the foreign situation, in the United States where they attended public school. They have not learned the language of respect which characterizes a highly stratified social system, but are more apt to express their emotions in superlatives, they have resented being pulled out of their peer group to be taken overseas, they are more dependent on their environment to excite their interest, they have fewer internal resources of reading, listening, writing, or musical and artistic talents. They are more adept at organizing others than organizing themselves, and they question the authority of anyone to tell them what to do without giving good and sufficient reasons;

3. safe-haven teenagers. In this instance, the husband is working in one country (e.g., Viet Nam, Indonesia), but his wife and children are living in another country (e.g., Philippines, Thailand, or Singapore). Although the husband has an overseas sponsor, the influence and control exerted by the sponsoring agency over the behavior of the dependents is not great, for the father's work reputation is neither enhanced nor damaged in the same way by the behavior of his wife and children. Sanctions can be invoked for

removal, but informal socialization to the norms is not easily attained. Lack of socialization is especially apparent in those instances where the dependents have gone "on their own" rather than having their overseas stay arranged by the sponsoring agency;

4. the hyphenated-American teenager. This type is the young adult in a country of his parent's ethnic derivation--for example, the Japanese-American in Japan; the Chinese-American in Hong Kong, Singapore, or Malaysia; the East Indian-American in India or Malaysia; the Afro-American in sub-Saharan Africa. This teenager is often in a dilemma.

Most American white teenagers, and these are the overwhelming majority of Americans overseas, learn to dislike or at best feel patronizing towards non-elite host nationals. Americans overseas invariably go up in status, are members of an elite and have special privileges vis-a-vis host nationals. The host nationals with whom teenagers are most likely to interact are lower status persons in a service relationship (servants in the home; maintenance personnel, drivers, guards at the school; tradesmen in the bazaar). In addition, in all of these countries there are increasing "nationalistic" movements and a growing expression of hostility against the powerful national elites and "rich foreigners." Teenagers are more vulnerable to attacks than are their parents.

The hyphenated-American is the "marginal man" under these circumstances. He hears derogatory or patronizing remarks made by his fellow white Americans about the racial identity which is his, and at the same time he cannot identify with the host national ethnic group of his racial identity--often he does not even know the language.

A special variant of this type is the child of a cross-cultural marriage, one of whose parents is of host national origin (this is a rare occurrence in the Embassy-related and missionary groups but more common in business and military groups). If the parent of host national origin is of elite status locally and English-speaking, the children of such a marriage encounter relatively few difficulties and are included in the third culture's international set. However, if the host national parent is of low origin and not English-speaking, the children encounter considerable difficulties in knowing

who they are and accepting and being accepted by the other youth; and

> 5. host nationals and third country nationals. There are two other types of teenagers in some of the American-sponsored schools overseas--"host nationals" and "third country" (that is, neither host nor American) nationals. A high proportion of the host nationals in Asia are of elite background and many of them have had their early education in Western countries where their parents had diplomatic assignments or were furthering their higher education. These teenagers share many of the outlooks, self-identities, and linguistic abilities of the long-term-out American teenager. The "third country" nationals have similar ways of behaving and thinking. (R. Useem, 1972: 129-133)

Also fitting into the third culture concept is the expatriate community as identify by Cohen (1977). Studies related to the expatriate often are concerned with the different communities in which they reside rather than the expatriate as an individual. Cohen made it clear that the old negative definition of an expatriate as one driven out of his/her native country is no longer used. Today's expatriates are often professionals in strategic positions in different host nations. It is difficult to develop a definition that accurately identifies this unique group of people. After explaining that the term does not include migrant laborers and foreign students (both of whom form large, distinctive groups with their own particular characteristics and problems, Cohen presented a rather detailed effort at definition.

> The term "expatriate" will here be used to refer to those voluntary temporary migrants, mostly from affluent countries, who reside abroad for one or several of the following purposes:
>
> 1. business -- private entrepreneurs, representatives, managers and employees of foreign and multinational firms, professionals practicing abroad;
>
> 2. mission -- diplomatic and other governmental representatives, foreign aid personnel, representatives of foreign non-profit-making organizations, military stationed abroad, missionaries;
>
> 3. teaching, research, and culture-- academics, scientists (e.g., archeologists, anthropologists, etc.) and artists; and
>
> 4. leisure -- owners of second homes abroad, the wealthy, the retired living abroad and other "permanent tourists," bohemians and drop-outs. (Cohen, 1977: 6)

Intercultural Marriage

Intercultural marriage patterns are of several types: cross-national marriages, cross-racial marriages (such as black and Caucasian), or cross-religious marriages (such as Christian and Buddhist). Often, of course, different marriage patterns are mixed together in a specific marriage. Intercultural marriage must be interpreted in the context of time, place, and cultural groups. In this study, the researcher classified different groups of students in the survey population according to the nationality differences of their parental backgrounds. As

a result, different family groups are classified as cross-national marriages.

With greater mobility made possible by modern technological developments, more and more people are marrying across national boundaries. The Health and Welfare Ministry in Japan went back into its records to survey international marriages of the past 19 years. The following are some of its findings.

1. The number of Japanese people who married foreigners reached the 10,000 yearly level in 1983.

2. In 1965 about 70% of all international marriages registered at local Japanese government offices were between Japanese women and foreigners. Over the past 18 years, there has been a marked change in this pattern. In 1983, 70% of the international marriages registered at local government offices were now between Japanese men and foreign women. Of these foreign wives, approximately
   --50% were Korean,
   --27% were Chinese,
   --four percent were American, and
   --the rest were from other nations.

3. In marriages involving Japanese women and foreign men, the approximate percentages in 1983 were:
   --50% Korean,
   --21% American,
   --nine percent Chinese, and
   --the rest from other nations.

In its analysis, the Ministry saw this changing marriage pattern as being the result of a rapid increase in the number of Japanese businessmen going abroad for extended periods (Passtime-Keystone News, 1985).

In intercultural marriages, the focus of researchers has frequently been on such significant aspects as values, beliefs, customs, traditions, style of life, and language. Rogers and McDermott described intercultural marriage from this perspective:

> . . . a husband and wife bring to their marriage their own particular personalities and combine to form a new mutual system in which each becomes a part of the self-system of the other . . . . the processes by which marriage partners from different cultures synthesize their individual values and attitudes and they convey a new cultural inheritance to their children.
> . . . . at the same time the interweaving of totally different threads in the warp and woof can lead to strange and lovely patterns, with a richness that outweighs the hazards of unrecognized clashes. (Rogers & McDermott in Tseng, 1977: viii-xi)

When two people marry, their motives for seeking a marriage partner usually complement each other. Char lists five motivations for intercultural marriage: love, chance and availability, the need to be different, practical reasons, and problems related to an "Oedipus complex." These should be considered in more detail:

1. love as a motive: although psychiatrists frequently warn that love is poor criterion for selection of a marriage partner because it may go against the need for clear thinking and logic in such an important decision, it can be a very important "glue" to hold together a marriage that is subjected to the additional stress that can exist in an intercultural marriage;

2. chance and availability: although this is an important factor in most marriages, it is especially so in the intercultural marriage. The people involved would not meet and marry if circumstances had not brought them

together at a certain time in their lives when marriage to a person from another culture was acceptable to them;

3. the need to be different: people who are more adventuresome are apt to step outside the rule of their cultural traditions and marry someone from a different culture. In some extreme cases, the marriage might be considered exhibitionism;

4. practical reasons: people may marry to improve their economic situations or social status or gain different individual advantages. In intercultural marriages, what seems to be a practical reason for marriage may turn out to be different when the couple moves to a different country; and

5. problems related to an "Oedipal complex": many psychoanalysts believe that extreme identification with or extreme rejection of the opposite-sex parent may result in a person deciding to marry someone who is very different from the opposite-sex parent. Marrying a person from another culture might fill this psychological need. (Char in Tseng, 1977: 34-35)

Problems in Cross-Cultural Marriages

Marriages in any culture encounter problems, and the degree of success or failure in resolving the problems varies in each different case. As some general types of problems are characteristic of different types of marriages, it should be possible to identify factors that frequently become the basis for problems in cross-national marriages. This section is concerned with three areas in which problems frequently develop: (a) communication, (b) values, and (c) child-rearing.

Communication

Language is an important channel of communication in any marriage, but it increases in importance in a cross-national marriage. Language should be the clearest channel of communication--the channel through which misunderstandings are commonly worked out and resolved. In a cross-national marriage, however, the ambiguities of language and related factors can become a serious problem. A word or an expression may have one denotative meaning for a person who is learning English as a second language at the same time it may have a series of different connotative meanings for the native speaker in the marriage. Often these contradictions can result in serious communication breakdowns and misunderstandings.

In an elaborate study of cross-national marriages conducted in 1972 at Yokosuka, Japan, by Charles Corwin of the USNR chaplain corps and Kazuo Hara, a psychologist from International Christian University, 327 couples responded to a questionnaire which had originally been sent to 1000 couples (a 33% response). Respondents had been married an average of 3½ years. In terms of language, 58% were using English, while 32% reported they were using one-fourth Japanese and three-fourths English. The interpretation of the researchers was

> . . . this indicates that the Japanese wives, for the most part, are converting to English rather than the husbands learning Japanese. However, whatever language was being used in the home, either all English, all Japanese, or

> various combinations of English and Japanese, there were no correlations between language per se and satisfaction and happiness. Moving from language to communication, "very significant" correlations were found between the degree of communication and satisfaction and happiness. (Corwin & Hara, 1973: 45)

The conclusion, then, is that the level of communication and not the language itself is the vital factor for success in marriage. Some statements from the respondents illustrate the point:

> The word advantage should not enter into it at all. Two people, no matter what their background might be, must be compatible. Communication is, to me, the most important aspect of any kind of relationship. Everything else is secondary. (Corwin & Hara, 1973: 44)

Of course, some respondents stated clearly their view that th^ wife had to master English to achieve successful communication.

> The most important thing is the language problem. If the wife comes to the States with little or no English background, all marriage problems are intensified . . . .
>
> I have been in America now for two years. I've gotten accustomed generally to both the language and customs. Of course, when people use difficult words, I don't understand. For this reason it is my opinion that people should marry within their own nationalities. That is how I feel about it. (Corwin & Hara, 1973: 44,45)

In another study, Dorothy Trebilcock reported on Korean wives and their American husbands in Michigan. She found that most of the wives felt that a major drawback in their marriages was their limitation in communicating their deepest feelings.

> I cannot explain many things which are deep down to my husband because I cannot use my words to tell him how I feel; he would not understand. Korean people do not like to show their feelings; they usually want to keep their emotions to themselves. They do not like to hug and kiss. (Trebilcock, 1973: 64)

Kite studied 67 cross-national marriages (of which 75% were comprised of a U.S. husband and Japanese wife) in 1978. He found there were no non-English speaking spouses even though many did come from non-English language countries. They all spoke English, although with varying degrees of proficiency (Kite, 1978).

Language is much more than a method to communicate ideas and thoughts. Language also determines the way a person thinks and sees the world. It is a key factor in the adaptation that must be made in a successful cross-national marriage and resulting family.

Values

Because cultures differ so widely in their value systems, trying to understand and resolve conflicting values in cultures is perhaps the most difficult task in an intercultural or cross-national marriage.

Kluckhohn pointed out that the impact of values is not always apparent, "'What must be done' is usually closely related to what is believed to be the nature of things; however, beliefs about 'what is' are often disguised assumptions of 'what ought to be,'" (Kluckhohn, 1960).

In her research on British-Asian couples in Britain, Cottrell found that several lower and middle class British women had adopted the Muslim or Sikh religions of their husbands. Not only did they adopt the diet, dress, and social codes of their new religions, but they limited much of their social contact to members of these religions. The impact this had on their values must have been great. Although religion and values are not the same, there is a strong relationship between the two.

Corwin and Hara reported on value conflicts. In their cross-national survey of young married couples (American husbands and Japanese wives) now living in the United States, they received the following responses: 56% of the couples reported a decrease in conflict after marriage, 13% reported an increase, and 31% reported no definite change in conflict. One of the respondents stated, "I don't believe it is good for all--only for those who have a similar view of life and those who love a rocky life full of challenge" (Corwin & Hara, 1973: 58). Related to this, one respondent wrote about the problems developing from cultural differences: "Small matters become big ones because of the difference in backgrounds" (Corwin & Hara, 1973: 66).

Trebilcock examined the role concepts of husband and wife and how these affected behavior in a cross-national marriage. Before their marriage, an American husband and Korean wife seemed to have almost the same ideas in terms

of role expectations. In the intense relationship of marriage, however, actual differences in role expectations become apparent. This seems to be most obvious in those situations where the wife acculturates the American way of life:

> . . . husband tends to keep wife submissive and isolated at first; wife is exposed to other concepts and husband is threatened. She may make more demands economically; he has had difficulties with new dependence of wife with language, culture limitations. Communication of these expectations may be limited by language. (Trebilcock, 1973: 71)

Husbands in many cross-national marriages may be in greater control because the wives are unable to function in the new culture without their husbands. As a wife comes to better understand her husband's culture and increases her ability to function in her second culture, her husband may feel threatened and frustrated because his wife is no longer so dependent. In a related sense, a husband may expect his wife to stay in the stereotyped female role of her culture with the husband in a dominant position. When the wife adapts to the American culture (especially after the family moves to the United States), the special relationship the husband wanted starts to disintegrate quickly, and the marriage can be in trouble. This is a different type of values conflict than that which exists when two different cultures with their inherently different values come together.

Child-Rearing Patterns in Different Cultures

Based on cultural norms and individual variations allowed within a particular culture, there is a great variation in the methods of child-rearing one observes in a multi-cultural/multi-national community such as a DoD community overseas.

Caudill and Weinstein, in their 1966 comparative study of maternal care and infant behavior in Japan and the United States, found that an American mother has greater verbal interaction with her infant and stimulates the child to greater physical activity and exploration than does a Japanese mother. On the other hand, a Japanese mother has much more bodily contact with an infant and soothes the child to obtain more physical calm and passivity than does an American mother. This second approach limits a child's exploration of his/her environment. The researchers felt that these patterns of learned infant behavior clearly affected different behavioral expectations in the two cultures as the children grew to adulthood (Caudill & Weinstein in Lebra, 1974).

While the American culture may work to develop a spirit of aggressive independence in children, Japanese child-rearing, with its emphasis on the constant presence of the mother, works to limit and discourage the development of such a spirit in a child. Wagatsuma (1973) saw this as being influenced by Japanese customs that increase one's consciousness of the pleasures of the body.

These range from bathing and massaging to the textural details of food. This also explains the way of disciplining a Japanese child.

> The child is disciplined by threats of isolation rather than by the inhibition of free movement. He learns to rely upon ready access to gratifications offered by his mother. He is not encouraged to physically separate himself from the mother or to seek independent means of coping with his environment as he is in Western socialization. He is encouraged to be sunao or obedient. In this context of dependency, the Japanese also develop a capacity, by passive means, to induce nurturant behavior toward themselves by others. (Wagatsuma in DeVos, 1973: 47)

Nydegger studied child rearing in the Philippine barrio (the smallest local political subdivision of the government--the neighborhood society). The Nydeggers reported that it was assumed a small child had very limited ability to learn and would increase in ability only with age. As a consequence, very few demands were made on a child. Even to push the child to walk and talk was not considered logical. A child progresses at an individual pace. Toilet training is gradual, starting when the child can walk. When toilet trained, a child is given clothing. At four, a child is becoming a thinking being and is ready to learn and be trained by age six. Formal schooling starts when the child is considered ready. After this point, the child increases participation and responsibility in family affairs until sixth grade is completed and childhood ends. During the early childhood period, the

child is protected and pacified rather than educated (Nydegger in Whiting, 1963).

Lapuz wrote about children from the perspective of the Philippine mother.

> Here again, folk fantasy and magical thinking obstruct reason and reality in the mainstream of thought and behavior. A baby, whether first or tenth, is an act of nature; the physiology of one's body is also part of nature. It would be unwise to interfere with the workings of nature. And who knows? This coming baby may be the couple's suerte (good luck); getting rid of it may be courting bad luck. The thought of children coming becomes practically synonymous with getting married. The couple who decide to wait two or three years or more before having their first one get impatient looks from their parents. "When the time comes for you to want babies, they may no longer be given to you" is a frequently heard remark, based on the same logic of unknown forces being in charge of one's life.
>
> There is little thought as to what care of a child entails. "God will provide because even beggars survive" is a common remark. The enormity and permanence of responsibility for rearing children either escape or fail to intimidate.
>
> Children are also expected to hold a marriage together. Their number increases its stability . . . . What is also in operation, of course, is that the Filipino woman needs children for herself for emotional reasons. There will never be anyone who will belong to her as much as her children do. They are extensions of herself. The need for emotional satisfaction and security in her relationship with her children becomes even more glaring when her unsureness about her husband is considered. (Lapuz, 1977: 114)

The information already presented indicates that there is considerable variation of child-rearing patterns among different cultural backgrounds. More importantly, beyond the practice of child-rearing are basic ideas and philosophies reflecting an emphasis on independence or

interdependence and individuality or group consciousness. Partly as a result of urbanization and industrialization, traditional processes have often been disrupted, altered, and modified.

Child-Rearing in Intercultural Marriage

As different cultural purposes and styles often focus on child-rearing patterns that may have contradictory aims from one culture to the next, it is likely that the couple in an intercultural marriage will find child-rearing a process characterized by challenge and stress. Mann and Waldron found that even the couple that has apparently worked out its cultural differences discovers that the arrival of the first child is apt to revive old cultural disagreements. Just discussing and planning for the childhood experiences of the baby may lead to emotional reactions that can surprise and overwhelm an intercultural couple (Mann & Waldron in Tseng, 1977).

Every stage of a child's development from the issue of dependency to skill mastery, sex identification, education, and peer relationships can easily become a source of conflict when parents want to follow very different philosophies and practices in child-rearing. At the same time, however, a child can benefit from the positive development of attitudes and skills that can come only from the experience of a cross-cultural family environment.

Corwin and Hara reported that 72% of the couples in U.S-Japanese marriages felt that children added much to the happiness of their marriages. One respondent reacted to the question of advantages in an intercultural marriage: "Advantages? The teaching of each other our different cultures and giving our children two cultures or ways of life" (Corwin & Hara, 1973).

Cottrell studied the child-rearing patterns of Indian-Western couples living in India between 1964 and 1966 and of British-Asian couples living in Britain between 1975 and 1976. The finding was that English was the dominant language for both groups, with many children able to understand a parental language other than English.

In terms of the socialization process, the group living in India was more apt to encourage both identification and understanding of both cultures (41%) while the group living in Britain was predominantly English rather than bi-cultural (78%). In terms of religion, less than half were raising their children in a single religion (32%, no religion; 31%, Christian; 19%, Moslem and Hindu), while 39% were not raising their children in any single religious tradition. Of the group in Britain, 64% did not play an important part in the religious life of their children (21%, Muslim or Sikhs; 14%, Christian) (Cottrell, 1976: 19).

In their study of American husband and Japanese wife cross-national marriage, Corwin and Hara reported that the

following statistics applied to men living in the U.S.: 38% "never attend church," 48% "seldom attend church," four percent "often" attend church, and 10% "frequently" attend church (Corwin & Hara, 1973: 69).

The vast majority of these children received a Western-oriented education. Even in India, children were educated in English language schools.

The Cultural Identity of Children of Cross-National Marriages

The question of identity formation in a cross-national marriage is not a well researched area.

Identity is examined carefully by Erikson:

> . . . identity formation employs a process of simultaneous reflection and observation, a process taking place on all levels of mental functioning, by which the individual judges himself in the light of what he perceives to be the way in which others judge him in comparison to themselves and to a typology significant to them; while he judges their way of judging him in the light of how he perceives himself in comparison to them and to types that have become relevant to him. This process is, luckily, and necessarily, for the most part unconscious except where inner conditions and outer circumstances combine to aggravate a painful, or elated, "identity-consciousness." (Erikson, 1968: 22-23)

Erikson also sees unbreakable linkage between the individual level and the larger social environment of which the individual is a part. Each helps define the other: personal growth and communal change; individual identity crisis and contemporary identity crisis in historical development (Erikson, 1968: 22). This can take on special

meaning for the racially mixed child who starts to confront in his/her first day of formal schooling the fact that society has a perception of him/her that does not always coincide with the self-image that his/her parents have fostered.

Mann and Waldron describe another problem encountered by children of cross-national marriages. A child who has identified with one parent (for whatever reasons) may find out later that the choice does not match well to social realities in terms of how society reacts to a particular racial, cultural, and/or nationality background. The child who discovers that s/he has two parts--one part belonging to a "superordinate" group and the other belonging to a "subordinate" group--may be willing to identify only with the supposedly "superior" part. However, this type of child is likely to be denied admission as an equal into the more esteemed group (Mann & Waldron in Tseng, 1977). In this way, the hyphenated-American teenager (especially the teenager) encounters the "marginal man" syndrome and often finds that s/he is cut from both of the originating cultures that make up his/her background.

Cottrell (1977) wrote about an American-Korean child as an example of a problem facing children of intercultural marriages.

> Amer-Korean children raised as Americans, without real knowledge of their Korean background, are particularly vulnerable to negative images of Korea, feeling these must apply to themselves. Such a problem could arise

> for the American socialized Amer-Korean child stationed in Korea, especially if, in an effort to be completely accepted by his friends, he has tried to be 100 percent American. If such a child dislikes what he sees in Korea he could easily experience a great deal of tension trying to resolve the conflict of disliking something to which he partially belongs. The characteristics he does not like about Koreans cannot be dismissed as the habits of a strange and foreign people; they are the characteristics of his people. He is confronted with that half of himself which he has worked to reject, forget or hide--he sees a side of himself he does not like. (Cottrell in Hunter, 1977: 76)

On the other hand, Cottrell does not feel this problem is as serious for Amer-Asian children with parents in the military.

> Children of cross-nationally married parents in the military will have less uncertainty or conflict regarding their identify than those who are not in the military. It is likely that growing up as a military dependent reduces, but does not completely eliminate, the Amer-Korean child's uncertainty regarding identity. Military affiliation provides an unquestionable, overriding identity similar to the certainty of religious, regional or occupational identities mentioned by British-Asian children in Britain--either you are a military dependent or you are not. (Cottrell, 1977: 72)

Teenagers

This study is on eighth grade students; therefore, the researcher feels it is necessary to examine and understand the characteristics of the developmental stage of the teenager. Erikson sees this stage as a special lifestyle that develops in the time between childhood and adulthood.

It is a stage that is probably expanding as technological developments tend to result in more time between this stage and the final entrance into the actual world of work. A sense of group consciousness results in a preoccupation with how one appears to the peer group and those skills one needs to develop to win this recognition. All of these circumstances combine to create a time of questions, problems, and crises that the teenager has to work through before b~ing ready to enter adult society. Erikson wrote about aspects of teenage or adolescent subculture that could be important in a DoDDS multi-national third culture setting:

> . . . On the other hand, clarification can also be sought by destructive means. Young people can become remarkably clannish, intolerant, and cruel in their exclusion of others who are "different" in skin color or cultural background, in tastes and gifts, and often in entirely petty aspects of dress and gesture arbitrarily selected as the signs of an in-grouper or out-grouper. It is important to understand in principle (which does not mean to condone in all of its manifestations) that such intolerance may be, for a while, a necessary defense against a sense of identity loss. This is unavoidable at a time of life when the body changes its proportions radically, when genital puberty floods body and imagination with all manner of impulses, when intimacy with the other sex approaches and is, on occasion, forced on a young person, and when the immediate future confronts one with too many conflicting possibilities and choices. Adolescents not only help one another temporarily through such discomfort by forming cliques and stereotyping themselves, their ideals, and their enemies; they also insistently test each other's capacity for sustaining loyalties in the midst of inevitable conflicts of values (Erikson, 1977: 114)

Do teenagers see high school as a social or an academic institution? Coleman studied 10 urban and rural high schools with enrollments from under 100 to 2000 in mid-Western states. He found that these students saw school as mainly a social environment which covered all elements from the age group's special symbols and language to special interests and activities.

> In every school the boy named as best athlete and the boy named as most popular with the girls were far more often mentioned as members of the leading crowd, and as someone "to be like" than was the boy named as the best student. And the girl named as best dressed, and the one named as most popular with the boys, were in every school far more often mentioned as being in the leading crowd and as someone "to be like" than was the girl named as the best student. (Coleman, 1960: 344)

According to Coleman, most adolescents felt that one's academic success was not very important in gaining membership in the leading crowd at school. Coleman's conclusions are substantiated by two other studies. In 1968 Cowelti asked the same questions to students in a suburban high school. In order, they responded:

1st - be remembered for popularity with others (54%)

2nd - be remembered for being a leader in activities (28%)

3rd - be remembered as a good student (18%) (Coleman (in Thornburg, 1971: 189)

In a 1972 study by Snyder, 320 high school juniors responded by listing personal qualities, material possessions, and social activities in that order of importance.

Teenagers' Experience in the Military

In the military system, the first goal has to be supporting the military task. A family has to support and contribute to the realization of this first goal. A second goal may then be the psychological welfare of the military family. It is a family responsibility that becomes a special responsibility for children as they grow up in a military community. Gross explains the situation in a way that is probably familiar to many military children: "How can a corporal or airman respect a sergeant if the sergeant's own children don't respect him?" (Gross, 1969: 39).

Hill explained in more detail how the military family is to be socialized:

> The military seeks to make the family instrumental to its mission of developing and maintaining an effective combat-ready body of fighting men, mobile enough to be deployed anywhere in the world when needed. Wives and children of married personnel, from the perspective of the military, should be socialized to subordinate their individual needs and desires to the "good of the service" and to minimize any family claims on the time and presence of the husband/father. The wife of a career military man . . . should definitely not embark on an independent occupational career incompatible with her responsibility as mother and military wife. Children should observe the rules of the military community lest the reputation of the military father be tarnished and interfere with his career. The family should be a morale builder for the military man, providing love and affection and a minimum of problems to distract him from his central task of serving the "cause." (Hill in McCubbin, 1976: 11)

A major characteristic of the military family is the father-dominated home. This results from the military work role of the father in a very disciplined setting. It is easy to understand that a father would carry this characteristic home with him after working hours (McIntire & Drammond in Hunter, 1978: 18).

At the same time, a military father's discipline and frequent absence are often seen as harmful contributors to a child's development of self-image. This is supported by the findings of Rosenberg that sons of fathers in such authoritarian-oriented occupations as military or police tend to be lower in self-esteem (McIntire & Drammond in Hunter, 1978: 18).

Paul Darnauer (1976) found that parents favored the unique characteristics of military life more than their children did.

> Over 80% of the parent responses were found to be at variance with those of their adolescent children. Congruence was highest on adolescent social behavior (dating, groups of friends, organizational membership), while discrepancies were greatest with regard to the nature of discussion with friends, army versus non-army extracurricular involvement, and academic performance. Parents appear to be in agreement with their adolescent children regarding issues over which they can exert influence, and they do more poorly in areas less subject to their parental control. (Darnauer in McCubbin, 1976: 63)

Although these military children can identify obstacles to both their personal development and social adaptation that they feel exist in the military system,

they do not consider their military family experiences to be unusual. They also recognize the importance of their role in their fathers' careers. In this all-important family support system, teenaged youth are a key part (Darnauer in McCubbin, 1976: 60-63).

Third Culture Children in the School Environment

The latitude of this portion of the review of literature related to the third culture factor has to be considered carefully as there are so many different and unique student populations and environmental circumstances. In some ways, the DoDDS system may share similarities with private international schools, but in other ways their situations are very dissimilar. As many excellent studies of third culture children have involved different international schools, selections from those studies are included in this review.

Frank Krajewski was concerned with U.S. university and college adjustment by American students who had one or more years in overseas secondary schools. He used parental background to group students as (a) business, (b) Department of Defense, (c) missionary, or (d) federal government/civilian. The following were his findings in the four groups:

1. business group: this group had the lowest records of achievement but had high aspirational and perceptual levels;

2. Department of Defense group: this group had a lower academic record that could not match their high aspirations and self-concepts;

3. missionary group: this group was the highest in achievement but the lowest in aspirations and self-concepts; and

4. federal/civilian group: this group had the best balance of academic record and self-concepts/aspirations. They appeared to be the best adjusted of the groups. (Krajewski, 1969)

In his study of American students with overseas experience in terms of worldmindedness and social adjustment, Thomas Gleason grouped business and missionary students together in their deeper and more continuous contact with the foreign community around them. At the same time, Department of Defense and federal/civilian groups of students were alike in many areas including their difference from the business and missionary groups. Gleason identified the following five variables as having an influence on social adjustment patterns and worldmindedness:

1. number of years overseas in 1st-7th grades and in 8th-12th grades,

2. reported change in religious attitude,

3. number of different countries in which the student has lived,

4. reported political party preference of the student, and

5. reported annual income of the family. (Gleason, 1969)

What impact does the cross-cultural/cross-national background of third culture students have on their academic

performance and self-image? In an effort to use objective tests, the Spaulding/Cantrell study of secondary students in the DoD high school at Yokosuka, Japan, explores the question in some detail. This study used the Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Quotient, the Test of Academic Progress (reading and mathematics sections), and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (self-criticism, total positive identity, self-satisfaction, behavior, physical self, family self, social self) to analyze the hypothesis, " . . . there is no significant difference in the educational growth among students of different cultural backgrounds." Elementary, middle, and secondary students were divided into four groups: (a) Amerasians who had always lived in Japan, (b) Amerasians who had four or more years of formal education in the United States, (c) Amerasians whose parents were both of Japanese heritage, and (d) Caucasian Americans who, along with their parents, had always lived in an American environment.

Although the tests revealed no significant difference in educational growth patterns related to parental rank or for those Amerasian students who had at least four years of education in the United States, there was a significant difference between the verbal and non-verbal SAT scores of the third group (Amerasians with both parents of Japanese heritage) and the first group (Amerasians who had always lived in Japan). Substantially lower scores at the verbal level indicated a major problem in forming and expressing

verbal ideas. Not only did this result in a failure to fully realize their academic potential, but it may help explain their high rate of delinquency problems in high schools (40% of the population accounted for 80% of the delinquency problems).

Spaulding and Cantrell identified characteristics of Amerasian students in high school that may have special relevance for this study:

1. no apparent distinction between being happy or being unhappy with a particular situation;
2. acceptance of communication from the person nearest to them at the present time;
3. reticence to ask for help, academic or personal;
4. seeming lack of self-confidence and a disregard for praise from anyone when they have done a job well;
5. no particular goal for the future except to attend college in the United States; and
6. an immediate agreement with any statement made by a parent, as long as the parent was physically present. (Spaulding & Cantrell, 1975: 343)

Academically these students were at two extremes: involved and very successful or disinterested and most unsuccessful.

In 1974, Chang also examined self-concept and school achievement of students of mixed nationality parents in comparison to children with two American parents. Most of the children involved were military dependents in Kansas. The children of mixed parents scored higher in both self-

concept and school achievement. (Cottrell in Hunter, 1978: 66).

High Rate of Mobility, Frequent Separation from Father, and Psychological Impact on Teenage Adjustment and Adaptation

Although economic and occupational pressures have slowed down movement in the last few years, there is clear statistical evidence indicating that the United States is a highly mobile society with 17% of the population changing residence between 1981 and 1982. (World Almanac and Book of Facts, 1985).

Rate of movement in the military is even greater. A normal overseas tour for a military family is from 24 to 36 months. As family tours in the Pacific are shorter, on the average, there are 30-40% of overseas Pacific military families making major international moves each year (Stars and Stripes, 1985). In contrast to what may be a relatively short and less complicated move within a state for a U.S. family, the military family making an international move faces a complicated and stressful experience that can be exhausting psychologically as well as financially and physically.

In the military, a father often has temporary duty in designated areas for some period of time. When this happens, his absence often results in a time of stress for his wife and children.

Definition of Mobility

The term mobility has two meanings that are important to this study: it has both vertical (socioeconomic) and horizontal (geographic) connotations. This study is concerned with social mobility and residential mobility. In describing these two aspects of residential and social mobility, Mildred Kantor explained the different aspects of residential mobility:

> With respect to residential mobility, there are variations in the time when the movement occurs, the distance which it covers, the direction of the movement, the characteristics of the participants, and the circumstances under which the movement occurs. (Kantor, 1965: 95)

Social mobility is seen by Henry as a process involving changes in the relationship of a person or family to other persons or to a social group. Social mobility must be characterized by a change that allows a person's social status to be evaluated differently. Some very specific changes include the following:

1. either "absolutely," as measured against indices of social status (ISC)--a social space change; and/or
2. psychologically, in the sense of the mobile individual's adopting (with or without awareness) goals and values generally thought characteristic of higher or lower social positions--a goal-oriented change; and/or
3. comparatively, as perceived by self or others in terms of "improvement" in the symbols of status--a life style change. (Henry in Kantor, 1965: 30)

Given enough time, in the ideal example of successful social mobility, an individual will change in terms of all

three of these specific changes. S/He will change by leaving behind the values and goals of a previous social position to assume the values and goals of a new social position. In so doing, the person begins to collect the objects that are symbols of the new social position. Another major change concerns changing or adjusting one's relationship to formal social institutions so that this relationship reflects the person's newly acquired social level. Changes in social level are reflected in a person's chosen social space, life style, and new goals.

Some researchers have used a social-psychological approach to study the impact of mobility on the geographically mobile military family. In a 1969 study, McKain studied army families who had been relocated recently and found a significant correlation between family problems in moving and a feeling of alienation (McKain in McCubbin, 1976).

In 1964, Pederson and Sullivan concentrated on the effects of mobility and parent personality factors on emotional disorders. Interestingly enough, the only significant factor they could isolate was the mother's attitude toward mobility. Mothers of disturbed children had a more negative attitude to the moving process (McKain in McCubbin, 1976).

Darnauer found that adolescents who moved infrequently or excessively performed less well than those who experienced a moderate rate of mobility. Poorer

performance was characteristic especially of those who moved infrequently. Darnauer felt that the findings were consistent with those of Kenny (1967) who reported higher school performance among students who were geographically mobile (Darnauer in McCubbin, 1976: 54).

Frequent Separation from Father

Frequent separation of a father/husband from his wife and children is certainly a contributing factor to family problems. Overseas assignments, temporary duty at other bases, and military training maneuvers frequently disrupt family relations. Some researchers (Parson & Bales, 1955; Zelditch, 1955) stress the importance of the father as children see him standing for the rules and principles of society as well as the one who teaches that delaying immediate gratification results in greater future rewards. Other scientists (Bandura & Walters, 1959; Billen, 1968; Mower, 1950; Sears, Rau, & Alpert, 1965) see the father as the masculine model in a home, important for both boys and girls' sex-role development.

McCubbin and Dahl (1976) explained that boys will display evidence of negative impact of a father's absence at an earlier age than will girls. At the time when a young boy is shifting from identification with his mother to masculine identification, the absence of his father can have an adverse influence (McCubbin & Dahl, 1976).

In 1977, Pierce, a school psychologist with DoDDS at Clark Air Base in the Philippines studied 52 children who had a mean age of 12.2 years. According to his research on absent parents using the Rorschach "T" response, children of an absent parent learn to achieve effective control through a form of guardedness based on defensiveness. They seem to pay for this effective control with a rejection of conventionality, a lack of organized responses, and a surplus of forces impinging on them or not working for them (Pierce in Hunter, 1978: 39-44).

Definition of Adaptation

Historically, humans have had to develop problem-solving skills as survival coping skills to develop behaviors necessary to adapt to ecological and social situations that could easily become life-threatening. In recent history, the human race has literally exploded in its power over the world. All technical and environmental conditions have dramatically changed because of this power. The human race that has developed all this power and created a new world, however, is still the product of the old world and is still, in many ways, the product biologically and socially of that old world (Washburn, Hamburg, & Bishop in Coelbo, 1974).

In addition to modern technological developments that have affected the exploration of space, development of weapons, increase in pollution, and explosion in

population, the tremendous increase in mobility for large numbers of people has meant a related dramatic increase in cross-cultural encounters. As each culture has its own unique social system, social structure, and dominant power hierarchy, we have come to regard the match between a person and the environment as the key to potential for adaptation (cultural) to a system. This increases the possibility that one will encounter cultural difficulty and be unable to behave as usual in a new cultural environment.

Mechanic identifies three capabilities that are necessary for an individual's successful personal adaptation:

> First, the person must have the capabilities and skills to deal with the social and environmental demands to which he is exposed. Such capabilities involve the ability not only to react to environmental demands, but also to influence and control the demands to which one will be exposed and at what pace.
>
> Second, individuals must be motivated to meet the demands that become evident in their environment. Individuals can escape anxiety and discomfort by lowering their motivation and aspirations, but . . . there are many social constraints against this mode of reducing stress. As motivation increases, the consequences of failing to achieve mastery also increase, and level of motivation is frequently an important prerequisite for experiencing psychological discomfort.
>
> Third, individuals must have the capabilities to maintain a state of psychological equilibrium so that they can direct their energies and skills to meeting external, in contrast to internal, needs. (Mechanic in Coelbo, 1974).

Mechanic believes that how well the social structure meets economic demands is the major determinant of successful social adaptation. As people are the product of

their culture, the culture base determines how effective a solution one is able to develop and the quality of skills that can be developed through educating or training institutions. Even one's psychological state of mind and sense of balance depend on the social support system available in the cultural environment (Mechanic in Coelbo, 1974).

The Military Social System

Because the majority of the teenaged youth studied have fathers who are career military personnel, the military social system needs special consideration. The main focus of this part of the review of literature is how, and to what extent, the military social system impacts on the experiences of teenaged youth.

The Department of Defense is one of the largest and most complex bureaucratic structures in the United States. The great rate of technological growth in the Department of Defense system has increased this complexity even more. Because it is so necessary to keep up with the rapid changes in such areas as weapons' systems, the Department has to have mechanisms built-in for constant technological change to produce related changing concepts of the science of warfare (Coates & Pellegrin, 1965).

> Technology has changed the military leader's environment in at least four ways. Weapons have changed enormously; people have changed; the military system itself has changed; and interactions with other organizations have become more complex. (Franklin in Toomay, 1978: 266)

However, Coates and Pellegrin (1965) indicate that despite the highly bureaucratic nature of the Defense Department, many of these bureaucratic characteristics are not obvious on the organizational or operational level. They see this as a formal and functional military unit with an organization that is streamlined by the demands of its unique mission. To be combat-ready, the formal military organization is characterized by a functional structure that is rationally designed and tightly controlled in terms of both its status system and its functional rules.

> Therefore, the four factors--a specialized dimension of labor (division of functions), a hierarchy of authority (hierarchy of status), a system of rules and regulations (control of functions) and a formal atmosphere of impersonal impartially (control of status) . . . are considered to be functional necessities rather than bureaucratic characteristics. (Coates & Pellegrin, 1965: 118)

When Serkesian (1978) studied military professionalism, he particularly focused on the values convergence and empathy between the military and society as well as how officers perceive the military institution and their profession. His analysis is that the military profession is generally conservative. He sees the military person as being committed to existing institutions, having a pro-military philosophy, and taking a "hard line" in terms of military matters. He also feels that this conservative philosophy increases as a person climbs up the rank ladder (Serkesian, 1978).

Many professional observers feel that the military institution demands an organizational behavior to encourage the development of "careerism," reduce individual ethics, erode professional ethics, and promote unquestioning agreement with institutional requirements without consideration of the impact or correctness of the requirement. Immediate obedience is important to the military. But this is a time when individual conscience cannot always accept the demands of an institution.

To help military men and women adjust more easily to a hierarchical social system, Service Etiquette is used as a basic text. It offers practical guidance in general manners, table etiquette, calls and calling cards, hops and dances, typing charts, weddings, salutes, flag etiquette, correspondence, military funerals, and the customs of each service branch (Harral & Swartz, 1959).

As a military family has to live under unique circumstances that involve both unusual demands on all members of a family as well as develop pressures that often mount over the years, special help is needed. To help a military wife/mother successfully cope with her unique situation and its demands, several books have been published to advise her about details which range from military social etiquette to arranging for frequent household shipments to raising children.

In one popular books series (Mrs. NCO, Mrs. Field Grade, and The Officer's Family Social Guide), the author,

Mary Preston Gross, covers both small details (such as having children address adults as "sir" and "ma'am" and rising when adults enter a room) and more philosophic statements about the military home:

> Because you are transferred more often in the service, special effort should be made to instill in your children the responsibility of contributing to the betterment of their home. Home is where their family and love are, even though their house may change frequently. (Gross, 1977: 58)

In another book (Fitting in as a New Service Wife), Mary Kay Murphy and Carol Bowles Parker offer more advice:

> But remember that the needs of service children are very special--and often very different--from the needs of other children. Because they don't have one community to identify with, one doctor to follow their growth and development, one church in which to grow spiritually, one school in which to make one set of friends, one home in which to experience family traditions and customs, they will need special help in becoming as flexible, adaptable, and elastic as is the way of life for service children.
>
> You will need to reflect a positive attitude toward the transient life and seek to create that attitude in your children. With the help of family customs, traditions, possessions, furnishings, seek to establish the stability and the permanency which their lives require. Often you will have to consider their needs above your own, their welfare before your own. As they grow older, prepare them for entering a new school, help them to know how to make new friends, show them ways in which their new home is better than the old one they just left. Point out to them the limitations of staying in the same place to live for 50 years.
>
> But most importantly, help them to recognize the underlying patterns of service life which you, as a new service wife, discovered. And as your children grow to adulthood, rejoice that their familiarity with many different places and people has guarded them against small-mindedness. Be thankful that their education has been

> broadened by exposure to many different method and ideas, and that it has been enriched by direct personal experience with geography, history, sociology, and the languages and dialects of the peoples your children have known personally and grown up with.
>
> Be proud of the poised, responsible, well-rounded, and open-minded citizens your children--service children--have the opportunity of becoming. (Murphy & Parker, 1966: 94-95)

The responsibility of the family to be supportive of a military man's career is also stressed:

> When a man enters the service, the government has gained not one, but two--the man and his wife. If the wife is well informed as to what is expected of her, the probability is greater that her husband will have an easier and more successful career. (Gross, 1969: 1)

The predominating attitude that the family centers around the husband/father's military career results in a social system that, in turn, influences the nature of the military family experience. The common lifestyle of military families overseas (and in the U.S.) becomes a unified culture and a social group consciousness. This makes a military base a community, both in a function and a psychological sense. Concerning this, Janowitz wrote:

> The realities of the profession pervaded family and social life, and, in turn, the military community was comprehensively organized to assist family relations. The result was not only relative social isolation, since military families tend to have more contact among themselves that with outsiders but also a powerful espirit de corps among professional officers. The problem of choosing between work and family life did not exist. (Janowitz, 1960: 178)

An American military base overseas is a self-sufficient community set apart from the affairs of U.S.

civilian community. Within this community, Darnauer stated that as a concept the military family can be viewed as part of a "supportive" subsystem. The performance of many military professionals would be adversely affected by the distance that separates them from those most important to them (Darnauer in McCubbin, 1976).

Summary

This review of literature has covered four basic areas.

1. The foundation concepts of culture, culture change, and third culture (with attention to the third-culture child) were defined and examined.

2. Intercultural marriage was examined in depth concerning the problems in such marriages as well as the practices and problems involved in child-rearing in such marriages.

3. Against the background of information on the teenager generally, the experience of a third-culture child was examined in terms of cultural identity and school environment.

4. The situation of a military family was examined from the perspective of the military social system and social pressures that are placed on a child by the social system generally as well as the circumstances of family mobility, frequent father absence, and the need to adapt to constantly changing situations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study has three major goals:

1. to develop a larger perspective from which to see the Department of Defense school system as a major educational system which utilizes a Stateside school approach with an emphasis on preparing students who are living with their families in unique circumstances overseas for their eventual return to study in U.S. schools and to fit into U.S. society,

2. to get new insights into teenaged third culture children who are in the DoD overseas community and the DoDDS system, and

3. to identify those factors that affect the academic and social success of students who come from diverse cultural backgrounds to the overseas military and civilian community served by DoDDs.

Research Procedure and Related Rationale

The procedure used in this study has involved the following steps:

1. a review of the formal documents and literature related to the historical development of the Department of Defense overseas;

2. a review of the literature concerned with the third culture child-national marriage, the high rate of family mobility, separation of the father, and teenagers' adaptation to the environment;

3. a review of the literature related to Department of Defense Schools in the Republic of the Philippines;

4. a review of available literature about the community and school at Subic Bay Naval Base, Philippines, the site of the study;

5. observation of the students involved in the study as well as the student body in general (as a visitor in class and as a substitute teacher);

6. based on the preceding, development of a questionnaire administered to a select group of eighth grade students who are the subject of this study; and

7. such other relevant information as could be obtained from interpersonal exchanges that occurred with the students being studied.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data for the study were obtained during the year the researcher had substituted in an eighth grade English class. In addition to the questionnaire, a two-part "family tree" was developed for the purpose of data collection. The family tree was used in class early in the year, and a follow-up card was used much later (see Appendix C). Some of the information obtained from the family tree included:

1. parents' nationality background,

2. child and parent relationship--own parents or adopted parents/stepchild status,

3. relationship with brother(s) and/or sister(s) in terms of own or half brother(s) and/or sister(s),

4. structure of the family unit, and

5. student's age and age of siblings.

Access to the classroom teacher's records of students' academic achievements provided a source of information

about grades. At the same time, observation of the students involved in the study as well as the student body in general plus informal conversations with these students provided further elaboration for this study.

The structured questionnaire (see Appendix D) was developed to obtain student responses related to major hypotheses. The questionnaire was divided into sections related to subhypotheses.

Variables were analyzed in relation to parents' nationality background, student gender, and father's position. Five other elements were sometimes used in analyses of variables: language spoken at home, child's status with parents, physical size, and length of father's absence.

The data collected were nominal and ordinal. Wherever appropriate, a chi-square test of significance of difference was selected for the analysis. In all tests for significance, the .05 level of confidence was used as a criterion for rejection of a null hypothsis. Observations and percentile comparisons were used in most analyses, and discussions of the situation were presented.

A statistical analysis of the data obtained from the questionnaires is the purpose of Chapter IV of this paper. In this study, the research is intended to examine the null hypothesis that there is no significant difference in social experiences/expectations and academic attitudes/-success when students from U.S. families are compared to students from different intercultural family backgrounds.

A structured questionnaire was developed to obtain student responses to questions related to the hypothesis as reflected in many subhypotheses intended to explore most of the larger hypotheses. These subhypotheses are presented in the following list.

Hypotheses

I. Academic achievement, extracurricular activities, career interests, and perceptions of parental concern

I-A. Teenaged youth's academic achievement

1. There is no significant different between family background and academic achievement in (1.1) English, (1.2) mathematics, and (1.3) social studies.

2. There is no significant difference between language spoken at home and academic achievement in (2.1) English, (2.2) mathematics, and (2.3) social studies.

3. There is no significant difference between a participant's father's position and academic achievement in (3.1) English, (3.2) mathematics, and (3.3) social studies.

4. There is no significant difference between own parents or adopted/stepchild status and academic achievement in (4.1) English, (4.2) mathematics, and (4.3) social studies.

5. There is no significant difference between genders in terms of academic achievement in (5.1) English, (5.2) mathematics, and (5.3) social studies.

I-B. Teenaged youth's perception of parental concern about social/academic success.

6. There is no significant difference between a participant's perception of parental interest in a child's social and academic success and the child's family background.

7. There is no significant difference between a participant's perception of parental interest in a child's social and academic success and the father's position.

I-C. Teenaged youth's involvement in extracurricular activities and future career interests.

8. There is no significant difference between family background and the selection of extracurricular activities.

9. There is no significant difference between the selection of extracurricular activities and the physical size of the participant.

10. There is no significant difference between family background and a participant's future career interests.

11. There is no significant difference between a father's position and a participant's future career interest.

12. There is no significant difference between genders and a participant's future career interests.

II. Teenaged youth's interaction and socialization in school and the family.

II-A. Teenaged youth's interaction with friends in school.

13. There is no significant difference between family background and a selected friend's nationality background.

14. There is no significant difference between genders and a selected friend's nationality background.

15. There is no significant difference between family background and the degree of parental influence on a child's selection of friends.

16. There is no significant difference between family background and sharing personal problems with friends.

17. There is no significant difference between genders and the sharing of personal problems with friends.

18. There is no significant difference between the nationality background of parents and which parent is perceived to be primarily responsible for the discipline of a child.

19. There is no significant difference between family background and a child's advice-seeking patterns.

20. There is no significant difference between genders and a child's advice-seeking patterns.

21. There is no significant difference between family background and the rate of a child's serious talks with parents.

22. There is no significant difference between genders and the rate of a child's serious talks with parents.

23. There is no significant difference between the position of a father and a child's motivation to practice good behavior.

III. Teenaged youth's frequent separation from his/her father and the high rate of family mobility.

III-A. Father absence and impact on student grades.

24. There is no significant difference between the length of a father's absence and the academic achievement of his teenaged youth.

25. There is no significant difference between family background and the impact of a father's absence on student achievement.

26. There is no significant difference between gender difference and the impact of a father's absence on student academic achievement.

III-B. Family mobility and impact on student grades.

27. There is no significant difference between the rate of family mobility and impact on student academic achievement.

28. There is no significant difference between family background and impact of family mobility on student academic achievement.

29. There is no significant difference between genders and impact of family mobility on student academic achievement.

IV. Family background and lifestyle.

IV-A. Parental background and career

30. There is no significant difference between a father's position and the nationality background of his wife.

31. There is no significant difference between a mother's nationality background and the type of work she is presently doing.

IV-B. Family nationality background and lifestyle choices

32. There is no significant difference between family background and the choice to live off-base.

Some assumptions were the basis for the rationale which determined the procedures and timing of the approaches used in this study.

1. The third culture factor must be considered throughout the study to better understand the different groups of students who share a common grade level within a school. This would provide some sense of a common base against which to examine the diversity of the group and the impact this diversity might have on their individual perceptions, attitudes, behavior, academic performance, and life goals.

2. The DoDD schools and community should be seen within the broad perspective of the development of the overseas military community and its impact on children. This includes the mobile nature of the family, its separation from the father, its contact with the host nation, and its adaptation to a unique situation.

3. In all of these considerations, the major emphasis is on the family in terms of its background and the way in which it shapes the character of the child within the third cultural setting.

Description of the Sample

This study was limited to 83 students in the eighth grade out of a total population of 117. The sample students represented three groups: (a) one consisting of students with mothers and fathers from the United States, (b) one consisting of students with mothers and fathers from the Philippines, and (c) one consisting of students with mothers from the Philippines and fathers from the United States. A fourth group of students whose parents came from backgrounds different than any of the other three

was called "other." These groups were subdivided in different ways: by gender, degree of academic success in school, occupation and position of father, perceptions of parental attitudes, extracurricular activities, relationships to friends, future plans, etc.

This study was an in-depth examination of students, their involvements in schools, their related experiences, and their perceptions related to these experiences in schools and their perceptions related to their home environnments rather than extend to attitudes and perceptions of the students by their parents, teachers, peers, and larger community group.

Limitations of the Study

This study was limited to a time span of one school year in which the research was conducted. Because of the great differences that exist from one situation to another, it is questionable as to how far the findings in one situation can be projected as representative of students from a different intercultural family background in the DoDDs system. Despite this limitation, however, a major concern of this research was to attempt to develop a holistic overview of DoDDS and to study a specific group of students against the background of that overview. It especially concerns the impact of the widely different backgrounds of the variety of "third culture children" in the DoDDs system, and it involves the search for some

discernible pattern related to different intercultural, experiential, socio-economic, and sex role concepts to which its students relate.

Although it is important to be careful about the temptation to generalize too much from one situation and to see global implications that may not exist, it does seem reasonable to hope that this study will add another dimension to the growing body of research concerned with third culture children. In this way, it is hoped that this study might, in some small way, assist in the continuing effort to make DoDDS an appropriate quality educational experience for all students in its system.

Selection of the Research Site

Although each of the DoDD schools around the world is unique in some aspects of the third culture experience involved, the selection of a secondary school in the Philippines involved several considerations.

1. The researcher and her family lived for two years in the Republic of the Philippines. This gave her the opportunity to both observe and work within the schools at Subic Bay Naval Base.

2. The researcher had an opportunity to take a counseling class at the Family Advocacy Center and then work as a volunteer at the Center. The experiences in this center provided another perspective from which she viewed the third culture dimension of the base society and the school.

3. A unique dimension of the situation at Subic Bay is the adoption of older children who come directly from Philippine communities (often rural areas) into the DoD base

> community and DoDD schools. For these students, the third culture experience involves not only relating to persons from two different societies, but also developing proficiency in English (especially challenging for teenagers who speak no English) and in some cases adapting to a demanding system of formal education after limited experiences in formal education in the Philippine society.

The cases of three students in the group studied help illustrate this situation. In the first case, a girl who had been adopted by her mother's new American husband was near tears as her family prepared to leave the Philippines. She explained, "I will never see my (natural) father again." She felt especially close to her own father.

In the second case, an American sergeant and his wife had left their two-year old daughter with her Philippine grandmother when his military duty caused them to leave the Philippines. Eleven years later he was assigned to Subic Bay, and the daughter was brought there to live on base with the parents she had not seen for such a long time. She was in a situation where she would have to adapt to a DoDD school before her family left the Philippines within the next two years. After several unsuccessful attempts, she ran away and disappeared into the city by the base just before her family was to leave for Japan.

In the third case, a twelfth grade boy acquired a junior high school sister when his father married a Philippine wife and adopted her teenaged daughter. Although the young man assumed a brotherly responsibility

for his new sister and did much to help her adapt to the eighth grade, he found life off-base to be a lonely time with no friends available.

Of the three reasons for selecting a school site, the location in which the researcher lived and the opportunity to have close contacts with the school and its students were the major determining factors in the selection of a site.

It should be noted that although they share some common characteristics that are the basis of the TCK (third culture kid) definition, each group of third culture children has unique characteristics that are not duplicated anywhere else. For this reason, it may not be necessary or profitable to go through an elaborate process to select one school as being more representative than another. The assumption in this dissertation is that the most important thing is to select a school setting that provides the best opportunity to do an in-depth study and then concentrate on that first. The relationship of this school situation to all DoDDs-Pacific schools or to other TCK situations would be considered after this first objective was met.

Preparing for On-site Research

The proposed study was discussed with the principal of the school early in the school year. When the more formal

part of the study developed, the principal referred the researcher to seek approval from the chief school administrator for DoDDS-Philippines. All materials to be used in the questionnaire, a copy of the MSU-approved dissertation proposal, and a cover letter (using the format requested by the administrator) were submitted to the Chief Schools Administrator (CSA) Philippines office for review and approval. The CSA then sought approval from the DoDDs-Pacific Regional Office. Soon after that, the CSA called to indicate that permission had been granted to proceed with the formal questionnaire and the rest of the study. Since that time, the DoDDS-Pacific regional evaluation coordinator has requested information on the progress of the study (see Appendix E).

Design of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was based on earlier observations and contacts with the study body to be studied as well as a review of related literature. The questionnaire dealt with student study patterns, social interactions, and family background (in terms of nationality orientation, langauge, mobility, and support for academic activities).

The questionnaire does not stand alone. It is a part of the larger research which includes observation of the student group in addition to a review of literature and a study of the community. These observations of students occurred over an eight month period when the researcher

visited classes as an observer or, more often, took the role of substitute teacher for periods of up to 10 days while the regular classroom teacher was absent. These situations provided the researcher with a unique opportunity to observe and interact with the students for a period of time and then withdraw to more objectively review her experiences, impressions, and observations.

Because of the nature of the contacts with students, the researcher chose not to use formal interviews either with students or parents. The researcher felt that actual contacts and observations were adequately extensive and that her relationship with students as a substitute teacher would tend to compromise her effectiveness as an interviewer.

The actual questionnaire administered by a classroom teacher (following the researcher's directions) and the forms were presented as part of a graduate student's university study approved by DoDDS with individual student participation a voluntary matter. As the regular teacher's established program included units in genealogy and the development of a positive self-image, the classroom teacher felt the research instruments were consistent with the class program and did not distract from the class schedule or the spirit of the class.

The actual data obtained through the questionnaire consisted of three things:

1. background data on students related to family structure, mobility, cultural background, language(s) used, and educational experiences;

2. a brief family tree that concentrated not on names but on national origins going back three generations; and

3. a questionnaire soliciting information on study procedures, family attitudes toward a child's student role, social interactions within the school environment, attitudes related to school, and its impact on the family.

The Relationship of the Hypotheses to the Questionnaire

Although the entire questionnaire is presented in its original form in Appendix D, this section presents the four major parts of the hypotheses list and the questions that are used to explore each part.

Part I. Academic achievement, extracurricular activities, career interests, and perceptions of parental concern.

5. What language do you speak when you are talking with your: close friends?_____ father?_____ mother?_____ brother(s) and sister(s)?_____

10. I usually do my best in (A) mathematics, (B) English, (C) science, (D) social studies.

11. What is/are your extracurricular school activity(ies)? _____

_____

12. What is/are the major reason(s) for your selection of this/these activity(ies)?

_____ _____

19. What is your interest in a future career/job right now? _____

23. I feel that my parents are most interested in (A) grades, (B) happiness, (C) friends, (D) behavior in school, or (E) assuming responsibility?

24. How important is the quality of your school work to your family? (A) very important, (B) somewhat important, or (C) not important at all.

25. How often do your parents (A. father, B. mother) push you to do your homework? (A) often, (B) sometimes, (C) seldom, or (D) never.

Part II: The teenaged youth's interaction and socialization in school and the family.

13. When do you get together with other students who are in this/these activities?

--during school (such as eating lunch together):
(A) often (B) sometimes (C) never
--after school
(A) often (B) sometimes (C) never
--during weekends
(A) often (B) sometimes (C) never

14. My best friend is (A) male, (B) female.
age:_____ origin:_____

15. I can talk with him/her about personal problems bothering me. (A) yes (B) no

16. How much influence does your family have on your choice of friends?
(A) very much (B) some (C) none

17. How often do your friends come to your house to visit?
(A) often (B) sometimes (C) never

18. What kind of people or group do you usually avoid? _____

20. When I have to decide my future, I think I will get the most important advice from (A) my parents, (B) my friends, (C) my teachers, (D) other _____

26. Who is in charge of discipline in your home?
(A) father (B) mother (C) grandfather
(D) grandmother (E) other_____

27. At what time does your family expect you to go to bed? (A) before 8pm (B) before 9pm (C) before 10pm (D) any time I want

28. Are you assigned household chores or work to do in your home? (A) yes (B) no

29. How often do you have serious talks with your father/mother in a typical week? (A) often (B) sometimes (C) never

35. Which is the best reason for you to avoid getting into trouble on base? (A) It may harm your father's career. (B) It would cause your friends to look down upon you. (C) It would cause you to look down upon yourself.

Part III: The teenaged youth's frequent separation from the father and the high rate of family mobility.

8. How many times have you changed schools? (A) 1 (B) 2 (C) 3 (D) 4 (E) 5 (F) 6 (G) 7 (H) more than 7 times

9. When you change schools, do your grades usually (A) go up? (B) stay the same? (C) go down?

21. How long is your father usually away from home on duty? (A) never (B) a few days a month (C) a week a month (D) two weeks a month (D) more than two weeks a month (E) other _____

23. When your father is away, do your grades usually (A) go up? (B) stay the same? (C) go down?

Part IV: Family background and their lifestyle

2. Your age: (A) 13 (B) 14 (C) 15 (D) other _____

3. Where do you life? On base in _____ Off base in _____

4. Do you have other close relatives with whom you sometimes live or whom you often visit? (A) yes (B) no

6. What does your mother with whom you are living do?
(A) full-time housewife and mother
(B) part-time work as a _____ (give name of job)
(C) full-time work as a _____ (give name of job)

7. If you have lived outside the Philippines, please answer this question. In what foreign countries have you lived before you came to the Philippines? List the countries and tell what you liked/disliked about going to school in each country.
--did you go to a DoDD school?
--in which country did you live?
--why did you like the school? why do you miss the school?
--what did you dislike about the school?

_____
_____
_____

If you have never lived outside the Philippines, answer the following: would you like to live or go to school in the U.S. or go to a military base school other than a military base school in the Philippines?
(A) yes which country?_____
(B) no why?_____

30. Do you often spend your holidays with your family?
(A) often (B) sometimes (C) never

31. Which holidays do you celebrate?
(A) none (B) only American holidays
(C) only my origin country's _____ holidays (D) American holidays and my origin country's _____ holidays

32. How often do you watch television?
(A) I don't watch TV (B) 1 hour a day
(C) 2 hours a day (D) 3 hours a day
(E) 4 hours a day (F) more than 4 hours a day

33. What are your favorite TV programs? (Please list them in order.)
1st_____
2nd_____
3rd_____
4th_____

34. I eat mostly (A) American style foods
(B) Oriental foods (C) Mexican foods
(D) other_____

Supplementing the Questionnaire

Additional information on the base and school in terms of both history and demographics as well as operating philosophies was taken from publications and briefing documents to provide a background against which to consider the data collected from the questionnaire and observations. Data on academic performances were also reviewed for this research. They appear as one of the dimensions in the tables presented in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter covers the major categories identified in Chapter II, Review of the Literature. These categories include teenage academic achievement, socialization in school and family, environmental conditions such as separation from the father and family mobility, the impact of the military social system on the experiences of teenaged youth, and the third culture factor in all areas.

In the four parts that constitute the rest of this chapter, the results of the questionnaire and related studies are presented. These results will be examined in terms of the hypotheses which were developed to explore the categories listed above. Wherever appropriate, hypotheses were subjected to a chi-square test to see if the distribution could be attributed to chance alone. Discussions of the situations are presented.

Teenaged Youth: Academic Achievement, Extracurricular Activities, Career Interests, and Perceptions of Parental Concern

This part of the chapter is divided into three subgroups for detailed analysis: (a) teenaged youth's academic achievement; (b) teenaged youth's perception of

parental concern about grades, behavior, happiness, etc.; and (c) teenaged youth's involvement in extracurricular activities and future career interests.

Academic Achievement

The question with which the study was concerned in this part was whether or not participant's academic achievement was differentiated based on parents' nationality background, language spoken at home and with friends, sponsor rank, participant's adopted or stepchild status, and sex difference.

The dependent variable of academic achievement in the subject's study of English, mathematics, and/or social studies was measured by two grade groupings of A/B/C (representing strong or adequate academic performance) and D/F (representing weak or inadequate academic performance). The academic achievement record was based on the grades reported for the first semester of the 1982-83 school year.

Academic achievement was analyzed using the following independent variables:

1. participant's parents' nationality (refers to nation of origin rather than current citizenship) background (mother and father--USA, mother and father--Philippines, mother--Philippines and father--USA, or other) (see Tables 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3);

2. language spoken at home and at school (English or other (Japanese, Samoan, Spanish, Vietnamese, Tagalog, or other Philippine dialect, etc.)) (see Tables 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8);

3. father's position (officer, civilian, or enlisted) (see Tables 4.9, 4.10, and 4.11);

4. participant's adopted/stepchild or natural status (adopted/stepchild or own parents) (see Tables 4.12, 4.13, and 4.14); and

5. gender (boy or girl) (see Tables 4.15, 4.16, and 4.17).

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between family background and academic achievement in English, mathematics, and social studies.

For the data given in Tables 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3, using a distribution of grades by parents' nationality background, the distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.1
Family Background and Academic Achievement in English

		Grades/English			
Parents' Nationality Background	Total	A	B	C	D/F
Mother and father--USA	40	9	13	14	4
Mother and father--Philippines	9	4	4	1	0
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	20	4	4	5	7
Other	13	3	4	5	1
TOTALS:	82	20	25	25	12

Table 4.2
Family Background and Academic Achievement in Mathematics

		Grades/Math			
Parents' Nationality Background	Total	A	B	C	D/F
Mother and father--USA	38	6	7	10	15
Mother and father--Philippines	9	4	2	2	1
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	20	0	5	5	10
Other	13	0	5	4	4
TOTALS:	80	10	19	21	30

Table 4.2
Family Background and Academic Achievement in Social Studies

		Grades/Soc.Stud.			
Parents' Nationality Background	Total	A	B	C	D/F
Mother and father--USA	39	9	12	16	8
Mother and father--Philippines	9	4	4	1	0
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	18	1	7	2	8
Other	13	1	6	4	2
TOTALS:	79	15	29	17	18

The following should be noted. When the total mean percentages for combined grades A/B/C and combined grades D/F in the three areas are considered for each nationality background group, the following scores result:

Group	Combined Grades in English, Math, and Social Studies A/B/C	D/F
Mother and father--USA	77%	23%
Mother and father--Philippines	96%	4%
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	56%	44%
Other	82%	18%

The most significant difference between these proportions concerns the two groups with at least one Philippine parent. The "mother and father--Philippine" students are at the extreme of disproportionately high grades with the highest A/B/C grade average (96%) and the lowest D/F grade average (4%). In the families where both parents were from the Philippines, the children may have a special sense of security because they are living in their own nation and have the support of their extended Philippine family.

At the same time, the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" students are at the extreme of disproportionately low grades with the lowest A/B/C grade average (56%) and the highest D/F grade average (44%). Why should students who come from a somewhat common nationality background be almost mirror images of each other in their school grades? The following comments may provide some insights into the situation.

The "mother and father--Philippines" group may be in a stronger position than any other group in the school in terms of security in the situation and family support. Each of these students has one parent who is a full-time employee of the DoD (and most likely an American citizen) who has one of the most secure financial situations in the Philippines. At the same time, the student is most familiar with and comfortable in his/her home culture with the emotional security and support that comes from the extended family in the Philippines. The same is often not true for the student from the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group. Often these students are older children who have been recently adopted by their American stepfathers and brought into an American school where they do not understand the language, American culture, or the American educational system. They are trying to adapt quickly to an often-threatening situation--especially if they face the prospect of leaving the Philippines in the next year or two and never returning.

Of the participants in the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group, 25% were enrolled in the schools ESL (English as a second language) program (see Tables 4.4 and 4.5). This enrollment compares to no ESL enrollment in either the "mother and father--Philippines" group or the "other" group. A low 2.5% ESL participant enrollment existed in the "mother and father--USA" group.

The ESL program participants in the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group's 55% D/F grades in English compared to 30% D/F grades in mathematics and 37.5% D/F grades in social studies. The ESL background of participants in this group had the most significant impact on achievement in English.

Table 4.4
Academic Achievement in English, Mathematics, and Social Studies by the Six Eighth Graders Enrolled in English as a Second Language

Subject	Total	A	B	C	D	F
English	6	0	0	1	3	2
Mathematics	6	0	0	2	2	2
Social studies	6	0	0	1	4	1

Table 4.5
Background Information on the Six Eighth Grade English as a Second Langauge Participants

Parents' nationality background	
Mother and father--USA	1 participant (adopted Korean)
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	5 participants
Language spoken at home	
English	1 participant
Other	5 participants
Father's position	
Enlisted	4 participants
Officer	1 participant
Civilian	1 participant
Adopted/stepchild status	
Own parents	0 participants
Adopted/stepchild	6 participants
Gender	
Male	3 participants
Female	3 participants

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between language spoken at home and academic achievement in English, mathematics, and social studies.

The data given in Tables 4.6, 4.7a, and 4.8 about the distribution of numbers of grades for students who speak English at home and the distribution of numbers of grades for student who speak a different language at home (i.e., Japanese, Samoan, Vietnamese, Tagalog or other Philippine dialect, etc.) was used with a chi-square test for significance. The results indicated that the two groups did not differ significantly in academic achievement in English (X^2 = 4.17, df = 3, p > 0.05), mathematics (X^2 = 0.09, df = 2, p > 0.05), and social studies (X^2 = 1.50, df = 3, p 0.05). Hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

Table 4.6
Language Spoken at Home and Academic Achievement in English

		Grades in English			
Language	Students	A	B	C	D/F
English	61	15	18	21	7
Other	21	5	6	4	6
TOTALS:	82	20	24	25	13

X^2 = 4.17 df = 3 = 7.82 p > 0.05

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented for academic achievement in mathematics. Table 4.7 is a distribution of grades used as a basis for the

observations and discussion of the hypothesis. Table 4.7a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis.

Table 4.7
Language Spoken at Home and Academic Achievement in Mathematics

		Grades in Math			
Language	Students	A	B	C	D/F
English	59	8	13	16	22
Other	21	2	6	5	8
TOTALS:	80	10	19	21	30

Table 4.7a
Language Spoken at Home and Academic Achievement in Mathematics (chi-square analysis)

		Grades in Math		
Language	Students	A/B	C	D/F
English	59	21	16	22
Other	21	8	5	8
TOTALS:	80	29	21	30

$X^2 = 0.09$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

Table 4.8
Language Spoken at Home and Academic Achievement in Social Studies

		Grades in Soc.Stud			
Language	Students	A	B	C	D/F
English	59	12	22	13	12
Other	21	3	7	4	7
TOTALS:	80	15	29	17	19

$X^2 = 1.50$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. When the total mean percentages for combined grades A/B/C and combined grade D/F in the three subject areas are considered for the "English spoken at home" group, the following scores result:

	Combined Grades in English, Math, and Social Studies	
Group	A/B/C	D/F
English spoken at home	77.1%	22.9%
Other language spoken at home	66.7%	33.3%

The overall grade distribution was quite similar in every subject in both groups.

Of the participants in the "other language" group, 28.6% were enrolled in the school's ESL program. This compared to no ESL enrollment in the "English at home" group. ESL program participants in the "other language" group had

an English D/F grade of 83% in comparison to D/F grades of 50% in mathematics and 71% in social studies. The ESL characteristic of participants in this group had the most significant impact on achievement in English.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between a participant's father's position and academic achievement in English, mathematics, and social studies.

The data given in Tables 4.9, 4.10a, and 4.11 show the distribution of numbers of grades by father's position (officer, civilian, or enlisted). A chi-square test for significance indicated that the three groups did not differ significantly in academic achievement in English (X^2 = 2.60, df = 6, $p > 0.05$), mathematics (X^2 = 1.56, df = 4, $p > 0.05$), and social studies (X^2 = 4.25, df = 6, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 3 was not rejected.

Table 4.9
Father's Position and Academic Achievement in English

		Grades in English			
Father's Position	Students	A	B	C	D/F
Officer	24	6	7	7	4
Civilian	25	5	10	7	3
Enlisted	33	9	7	11	6
TOTALS:	82	20	24	25	13

X^2 = 2.60 df = 6 = 12.59 $p > 0.05$

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented for academic achievement in mathematics. Table 4.10 is a distribution of grades used as a basis for the observations and discussion of the hypothesis. Table 4.10a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis.

Table 4.10
Father's Position and Academic Achievement in Mathematics

		Grades in Math			
Father's Position	Students	A	B	C	D/F
Officer	24	2	5	8	9
Civilian	25	5	5	5	10
Enlisted	31	3	9	9	10
TOTALS:	80	10	19	22	29

Table 4.10a
Father's Position and Academic Achievement in Mathematics
(chi-square analysis)

		Grades in Math		
Father's Position	Students	A/B	C	D/F
Officer	24	7	8	9
Civilian	25	10	5	10
Enlisted	31	12	9	10
TOTALS:	80	29	22	29

$X^2 = 1.56$ $df = 4 = 9.49$ $p > 0.05$

Table 4.11
Father's Position and Academic Achievement in Social Studies

		Grades in Soc.Stud			
Father's Position	Students	A	B	C	D/F
Officer	24	4	8	8	4
Civilian	25	6	8	5	6
Enlisted	30	5	13	4	8
TOTALS:	79	15	29	17	18

$X^2 = 4.25$ df = 6 = 12.59 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. When the total mean percentages for combined grades A/B/C and combined grade D/F in the three subject areas are considered for each group, the following scores result:

	Combined Grades in English, Math, and Social Studies	
Group	A/B/C	D/F
Officer	76.4%	23.6%
Civilian	74.7%	25.3%
Enlisted	74.5%	25.5%

The overall grade distribution was quite similar in every subject among the three groups.

Of the participants in the "enlisted" group, 12.1% were enrolled in the school's ESL program. This compared to 4.2% ESL enrollment in the "officer" group and 4.0% enrollment in the "civilian" group.

Table 4.4 indicates that no ESL students received A/B grades in any of the three subject areas. Despite this fact, the three groups (officer, civilian, and enlisted) are very close in their overall academic achievement.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between own parents or adopted/stepchild status and academic achievement.

The data given in Tables 4.12, 4.13a, and 4.14 on the distribution of numbers of grades in the "own parents" group in comparison to the "adopted/stepchild status" group and the chi-square test for significance indicated that a significant differences was demonstrated between the two groups in academic achievement in English ($X^2 = 14.87$, df = 3, $p > 0.05$). However, the two groups did not differ significantly in academic achievement in mathematics ($X^2 = 6.21$, df = 3, $p > 0.05$) or social studies ($X^2 = 5.48$, df = 2, $p > 0.05$). Thus in terms of English, the hypothesis was rejected while in mathematics and social studies, the hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 4.12
Own Parents and Adopted/Stepchild Status and Academic Achievement in English

		Grades in English			
Child's status	Students	A	B	C	D/F
Own parents	53	17	18	15	3
Adopted/stepchild	29	3	6	10	10
Total:	82	20	24	25	13

$X^2 = 14.87$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented for academic achievement in mathematics. Table 4.13 is a distribution of grades used as a basis for the observations and discussion of the hypothesis. Table 4.13a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis.

Table 4.13
Own Parents and Adopted/Stepchild Status and Academic Achievement in Mathematics

		Grades in Math			
Child's status	Students	A	B	C	D/F
Own parents	51	9	14	13	15
Adopted/stepchild	29	1	5	8	15
Total:	80	10	19	21	30

Table 4.13a
Own Parents and Adopted/Stepchild Status and Academic Achievement in Mathematics (chi-square analysis)

		Grades in Math		
Child's Status	Students	A/B	C	D/F
Own parents	51	23	13	15
Adopted/stepchild	29	6	8	15
TOTALS:	80	29	21	30

$X^2 = 5.48$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

Table 4.14
Own Parents and Adopted/Stepchild Status and Academic Achievement in Social Studies

		Grades in Soc.Stud			
Child's status	Students	A	B	C	D/F
Own parents	52	12	21	10	9
Adopted/stepchild	27	2	8	7	10
Total:	79	14	29	17	19

$X^2 = 6.17$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

In terms of English, the percentage of A/B/C grades of the "own parents" group (A/B/C = 94.3%, D/F = 5.7%) was much higher than the "adopted/stepchild group" (A/B/C = 65.4%, D/F = 34.5%). This significant difference was indicated by the chi-square test for significance.

At the same time, in terms of mathematics, the percentage of A/B/C grades of the "own parents" group (A/B/C = 70.6%, D/F = 29.4%) and the "adopted/stepchild" group (A/B/C = 48.3%, D/F = 51.7%) is not indicated as being significantly different. It may be that mathematics does not require the same English skills. There is also no significant difference in the social studies' grades of the "own parents" group (A/B/C = 82.7%, D/F = 17.3%) when compared to the "adopted/stepchild" group (A/B/C = 63%, D/F = 37%).

In terms of grade point averages in each subject area, the following scores result.

English

Parental Group	Grades (Grade Points) A(4)	B(3)	C(2)	D(1)	F(0)	Ttl Pts	Ave. Pt/Gr
Own parents	17 (68)	18 (54)	15 (30)	3 (3)	0 (0)	53 (155)	2.92 /C+
Adopted/ stepchild	3 (12)	6 (18)	10 (20)	8 (8)	2 (0)	29 (58)	2.0 /C-

Average grade in English: 2.6/C

Mathematics

Parental Group	Grades (Grade Points) A(4)	B(3)	C(2)	D(1)	F(0)	Ttl Pts	Ave. Pt/Gr
Own parents	9 (36)	14 (42)	13 (26)	6 (6)	9 (0)	51 (110)	2.16 /C-
Adopted/ stepchild	1 (4)	5 (15)	8 (16)	7 (7)	8 (0)	29 (42)	1.45 /D

Average grade in mathematics: 1.90/D+

Social Studies

Parental Group	Grades (Grade Points) A(4)	B(3)	C(2)	D(1)	F(0)	Ttl Pts	Ave. Pt/Gr
Own parents	12 (48)	21 (63)	10 (20)	6 (6)	3 (0)	52 (137)	2.63 /C
Adopted/ stepchild	2 (8)	8 (24)	7 (14)	9 (9)	1 (0)	27 (55)	2.03 /C-

Average grade in social studies: 2.43/C

It is clear that the grade point average for all students in English was the highest (English--2.6, mathematics--1.9, and social studies--2.43), while the "own parents" group also had the highest score in English (English--2.92, mathematics--2.16, and social studies--

2.63). It appears that the high English grade for the "own parents" group was the reason for the rejection of Hypothesis 4 in terms of English grades.

The high average grade for the "own parents" group may reflect the advantage these students would have in English class where a large percentage of the students were new to American schools and had little, if any, background in the formal study of English as conducted in American schools.

Of the participants in the "adopted/stepchild" group, 20.7% were enrolled in the school's ESL (English as a Second Language) program in comparison to no ESL enrollment in the "own parents" group. This is understandable in terms of the fact that many of the "adopted/stepchild" group are Philippine children who are entering American schools (and encountering the need to speak, read, and write in English) for the first time. This ESL background would be related to lower grades in English.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between genders in terms of academic achievement in English, mathematics, and social studies.

The data given in Tables 4.15, 4.16, and 4.17 about the distribution of numbers of grades according to gender (boy or girl) and the chi-square test for significance indicated that the two groups did not differ significantly in academic achievement in English ($X^2 = 2.80$, $df = 3$, $p > 0.05$), mathematics ($X^2 = 3.24$, $df = 3$, $p > 0.05$), and

social studies ($X^2 = 3$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

Table 4.15
Gender and Academic Achievement in English

		English Grades			
Gender	Total	A	B	C	D/F
Boy	45	8	15	15	7
Girl	37	12	9	11	5
TOTALS:	82	20	24	26	12

$X^2 = 2.80$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

Table 4.16
Gender and Academic Achievement in Mathematics

		Mathematics Grades			
Gender	Total	A	B	C	D/F
Boy	44	6	12	8	18
Girl	36	4	7	13	12
TOTALS:	80	10	19	21	30

$X^2 = 3.24$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

Table 4.17
Gender and Academic Achievement in Social STudies

		Social Studies Grades			
Gender	Total	A	B	C	D/F
Boy	45	9	19	8	9
Girl	34	6	10	9	9
TOTALS:	79	15	29	17	18
$X^2 = 2.02$	df = 3 = 7.82	p > 0.05			

When the percentages of boys and girls falling into the combined A/B/C grades and the combined D/F grades in the three subjects areas are considered, the following scores result:

	Combined Grades in English, Math, and Social Studies	
Group	A/B/C	D/F
Boy	74.6%	25.4%
Girl	75.7%	24.3%

The overall grade distribution between the two groups was similar in every subject.

Of the participants in the "girl" group, 8.1% were enrolled in the schools' ESL program, and 6.7% of the participants in the "boy" group were enrolled in the schools' ESL program.

Perception of Primary Parental Concern about Social/Academic Success

The question with which the study is concerned in this part is how participants perceive primary parental concern in terms of grade, happiness, friends, behavior in school, and assumption of responsibility. How are these perceptions differentiated based on the nationality background and position of parents?

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between family background and a participant's perception of parents' primary interest in the child's (a) grades, (b) happiness, (c) friends, (d) behavior in school, or (e) assuming responsibility.

The data given in Table 4.18 is a distribution of numbers of participants' perceptions of parents' most interest in children's social/academic success (grades, happiness, friends, behavior in school and assumption of responsibility) by parents' nationality background. The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.18
Family Background and Primary Parental Interest in Social and Academic Success

Family Background	Total	A*	B*	C*	D*	E*
Mother and father--USA	38	26	5	0	2	5
Mother and father--Philippines	9	7	1	0	0	1
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	8	5	0	4	2
Other	13	7	2	0	0	4
TOTALS:	79	48	13	0	6	12

*KEY: All columns refer to social and academic success
A = grades
B = happiness
C = friends
D = behavior in school
E = assuming responsibility

Among the percentages for the distribution of number of participants' perceptions of parental interest in the child's social and academic success by total number of participant choices, the following results may be important.

In each group, the most frequent perception of parental primary concern was grades, while interest in friends was not mentioned at all.

In the "mother and father--Philippines" group, the highest percentage of perceived primary parental interest in grades was reported (77.8%) while the lowest percentage

of interest in grades (42.1%) was in the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group. These results relate directly to the grade distribution reported in Tables 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3. The "mother and father--Philippines" group obtained the highest mean percentage of A/B/C grades in English, mathematics, and social studies, while the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group obtained the lowest mean percentage in the A/B/C grade distribution.

Participants of the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group scored the highest among the four groups in their perception of the importance of primary parental concern about happiness and behavior in school (47% opposed to 24% for all students).

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference between father's position and a participant's perception of primary parental interest in a child's social and academic success (grades, happiness, friends, behavior in school, and assuming responsibility).

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. The data given in Table 4.19 are about distribution of numbers of participants' perceptions of primary parental interest in a child's social and academic success (grades, happiness, friends, behavior in school, and assuming responsibility) by father's position (officer, civilian, or enlisted). Table 4.19a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. The chi-square test for significance (Table 4.19a) indicated that the three groups did not differ significantly about the perception of

primary parental interest ($X^2 = 0.68$, df = 21, $p > 0.05$).

Hypothesis 7 was not rejected.

Table 4.19
Father's Position and Primary Parental Interest in Social and Academic Success

Father's Position	Total	A*	B*	C*	D*	E*
Officer	24	16	2	0	2	4
Civilian	23	13	6	0	0	4
Enlisted	32	19	6	0	3	4
TOTALS:	79	48	14	0	5	12

*KEY: All columns refer to social and academic success
A = grades
B = happiness
C = friends
D = behavior in school
E = assuming responsibility

Table 4.19a
Father's Position and Primary Parental Interest in Social and Academic Success (chi-square analysis)

Father's Position	Total	Grades	Other*
Officer	24	16	8
Civilian	23	13	10
Enlisted	32	19	13
TOTALS:	79	48	31

$X^2 = 0.68$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

* Other refers to: happiness, friends, behavior in school, and assuming responsibility.

However, the following could be noted. Among the percentages for the distribution of numbers of participants' perceptions of primary parental interest in a child's social and academic success by total numbers for each father's position, the following scores result.

Each group's highest percentage was interest in grades. For the officer group, the percentage was 66.8%. The civilian group's percentage was 56.5%, and the enlisted group's was 59.4%. The lowest interest was concern about friends, 0% for all groups.

The officer group had the highest percentage of the three groups in concern about grades (67%) and the lowest percentage in concern about happiness (8.3%).

The civilian group scored the highest percentage in perception of primary parental concern about happiness (26.1%) and about assuming responsibility (17.4%) in comparison to the other two groups.

Involvement in Extracurricular Activities and Future Career Interests

The question with which the study was concerned in this part related to the selection of extracurricular activities and future career interests. What relationship do these selections have to family background, father's position, and the gender identity of a participant? Extracurricular activities were categorized as being sports and non-sports. Future career interests were categorized by the level of education they might require (college

education, high school education, mastery of special skills, or none of the above). All of this was then differentiated on the basis of parent's nationality background, father's position, and the participant's gender.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between family background and the selection of extracurricular activities.

The data given in Table 4.20 are distribution of numbers of the selection of extracurricular activities (sports, including cheerleading, and non-sports) by the parents' nationality background group. The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Among the percentages for the distribution of numbers of the selection of extracurricular activities by total participant numbers for each parent's nationality background group, the following scores result.

Except for the "mother and father--Philippines" group, the rest of the three groups of participants' selection of extracurricular activities was higher in sports than in non-sports. The "mother and father--USA" group was highest in the selection of sports (79.5%), while the "mother and father--Philippines" group did not select sports (0%).

Table 4.20
Family Background and the Selection of Extracurricular Activities

Parents' Background	Total	Extracurricular Activities	
		Sports	Non-sports
Mother and father--USA	39	31	8
Mother and father--Philippines	7	0	7
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	17	11	6
Other	11	8	3
TOTALS:	74	50	24

The "mother and father--Philippines" group was much higher in the selection of non-sports (100%) than the average for all groups (32%) or the next highest selection of non-sports, "mother--Philippines and father--USA" (35%).

Although it is difficult to identify exactly why the "mother and father--Philippines" group did not identify sports as an extracurricular activity, there are several speculations to be considered. First, these students perform academically well above the average. It may be that they choose to give their out-of-class attention to homework and other study activities related to the goal of academic achievement. Second, these students, especially the boys, often appear to be smaller than average eighth

graders. This could limit their interest in activities where success is often related to size (see Hypothesis 9). Third, incentive for American children to participate in sports often comes directly or indirectly from their American parents. In the Philippine culture, parental pressure to be involved in sports may not be as strong.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference between gender and the selection of extracurricular activities.

The data given in Table 4.21 about the distribution of numbers of the selection of extracurricular activities (sport and non-sport), by gender (boy or girl) and the chi-square test for significance indicate that boys and girls do not differ significantly about the selection of extracurricular activities ($X^2 = 0.86$, df = 1, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 9 was not rejected.

Table 4.21
Gender and the Selection of Extracurricular Activities

		Extracurricular Activities	
Gender	Total	Sports	Non-sports
Boy	45	26	19
Girl	38	18	20
TOTALS:	83	44	39

$X^2 = 0.86$ df = 1 = 3.84 $p > 0.05$

Among the percentages for distribution of numbers of the selection of extracurricular activities by gender groups, the overall selections in both sports and non-sports were quite similar. However, boys did have a higher percentage in sports (58% compared to 47% for girls).

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference between the selection of extracurricular activities and the physical size of a participant.

The data given in Table 4.22 are a distribution of numbers of physical size (short, medium, and tall) by the selection of extracurricular activities (sports and non-sports). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.22
Selection of Extracurricular Activities and Physical Size

Extracurricular Activities	Total	Physical Size		
		Short	Medium	Tall
Sports	53	10	21	22
Non-sports	21	7	13	1
TOTALS:	74	17	34	23

Among the percentages for the distribution of numbers of physical sizes related to the selection of extracurricular activities, the following scores result.

In the extracurricular category of sports, sports was the most frequently preferred extracurricular activity for tall participants (41.5). The second highest preference for sports was from medium height participants (39.6%), while the lowest frequency of choice was by shorter participants (18.9%).

In the non-sports extracurricular category, medium height participants had the highest frequently of selection (61.9%). Short participants were second (33.3%), and tall participants were last (4.8%) in the selection of non-sports extracurricular activities.

Although it would require more detailed study to determine the exact reasons for the relationship between height and choice of extracurricular activities, it seems appropriate to speculate that the following factors could influence choice. First, there is a tendency for larger students (especially boys) who are enjoying related success in sports to be encouraged to concentrate their extracurricular time in sports. Second, to the extent that recently-adopted Philippine students are smaller than average, their limited involvement in any extracurricular activity (whether because of shyness in language and culture, transportation limitations, family pressures, etc.) could have a considerable impact on the statistics.

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference between family background and participants' future career interests.

The data given in Table 4.23 are a distribution of numbers of participants' future career interests which require a specific level of education (college education, high school education, special skills, or none of the above) by parents' nationality background. The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.23
Family Background and Future Career Interest

Family Background	Total	A*	B*	C*	D*
Mother and father--USA	33	17	6	9	1
Mother and father--Philippines	6	3	1	1	1
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	13	9	2	0	2
Other	9	4	2	3	0
TOTALS:	61	33	11	13	4

*KEY: All columns refer to education required for future career interests
A = college education
B = high school education
C = special skills
D = none of the above

Among the percentages for the distribution of number of future career interest by family's nationality background, the following scores result.

The "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group scored the highest in expectations of college education (69.2%). This seems to be an unrealistic result when compared to Hypothesis 1, family nationality background and academic achievement, where this group scored lowest among the four groups in actual academic achievement (D/F--44%).

The "mother and father--Philippines" group scored second to lowest in expectations of college education (49.9%). This would appear to be a contradiction as the group scored highest in actual academic achievement when the four groups were compared.

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference between father's position and a participant's future career interest (college education, high school education, special skills, and none of the above).

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. Table 4.24 is a distribution of participants' future career interests in terms of level of education desired (college education, high school education, special skills, or none of the above) by different father's position groups. Table 4.24a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. The chi-square test for significance indicated that the three groups did not differ significantly in their future career interests ($X^2 = 1.33$, $df = 2$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 12 was not rejected.

Table 4.24
Father's Position and Future Career Interest

Father's Position	Total	A*	B*	C*	D*
Officer	19	11	5	3	0
Civilian	15	10	2	3	0
Enlisted	27	13	4	7	3
TOTALS:	61	34	11	13	3

*KEY: All columns refer to education required for future career interests
A = college education
B = high school education
C = special skills
D = none of the above

Table 4.24a
Father's Position and Future Career Interest (chi-square analysis)

Father's Position	Requires College Education?		
	Total	Yes	No
Officer	19	11	8
Civilian	15	10	5
Enlisted	27	13	14
TOTALS:	61	34	27

$X^2 = 1.33$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. Among the percentages of participants' future career interests when a comparison of different father's position groups is made,

civilians scored the highest (66.7%) in college expectations. At the same time, the enlisted group scored the lowest (48.2%) in career expectations that require a college level education, while scoring the highest in special skills (26%) and none of the above (11%).

Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference between gender and a participant's future career interest (college education, high school education, special skills, and none of the above).

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. The data given in Table 4.25 distributes participants' future career interests as reflected in level of education desired (college, high school, special skills, or none of the above) by gender (boy or girl). Table 4.25a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. A chi-square test for significance indicated that the two groups did not differ significantly in future career interests ($X^2 = 0.003$, $df = 1$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 13 was not rejected.

Among the percentages for the distribution of numbers of participants' future career interests as reflected in desired level of future education by boy and girl groups, overall future career expectations (and related career interests) were quite similar. Boys did have a higher percentage of interest in high school education (24% compared to 12% for girls) while girls had a higher percentage of "none of the above" (12% compared to 0% for boys).

Table 4.25
Gender and Future Career Interest

Gender	Total	A*	B*	C*	D*
Boy	29	16	7	6	0
Girl	33	18	4	7	4
TOTALS:	62	34	11	13	4

*KEY: All columns refer to education required for future career interests
A = college education
B = high school education
C = special skills
D = none of the above

Table 4.25a
Gender and Future Career Interests (chi-square analysis)

	Requires College Education?		
Gender	Total	Yes	No
Boy	29	16	13
Girl	33	18	15
TOTALS:	63	34	28

$X^2 = 0.003$ df = 1 = 3.84 $p > 0.05$

Teenaged Youth's Interaction and Socialization in School and Family

Part II is divided into two subsections for detailed analysis: (a) teenaged youths' interaction with friends in school and (b) teenaged youths' interaction and socialization with parents. Each of these subsections will be

examined in relation to the statistical analysis of that phase of the study appropriate to the section.

Interaction with Friends in School

The issues with which the study was concerned in this part were (a) whether or not a participant's selected friend's nationality background and gender were different from those of the student participant, (b) the degree of parental influence on a child's selection of friends and whether or not this influence was differentiated based on the parents' nationality background, and (c) whether or not sharing personal problems with friends was differentiated based on parents' nationality background and the student's gender. The dependent variable of a selected friend's nationality background was identified by the terms "same nationality" and "different nationality."

Selected friend's nationality background was analyzed using the independent variable of participant's parents' nationality background (mother and father--USA, mother and father--Philippines, mother--Philippines and father--USA, or other) and gender (boy or girl).

The dependent variable of degree of parental influence on a child's selection of friends was identified by the terms "very much," "some," and "none." The degree of parental influence on a child's selection of friends was analyzed using the independent variable of participant's parental nationality background.

The dependent variable of sharing personal problems with friends was differentiated by the responses "yes" and "no."

The degree to which personal problems were shared was analyzed using the independent variable of a participant's parental nationality background and the participant's gender.

Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference between family background and a selected friend's nationality background.

Table 4.26 give the distribution of selected friend's nationality background (same or different) by parent's nationality background. A chi-square test indicated that the three groups did not differ significantly in selection of friends by parents' nationality background ($X^2 = 0.79$, $df = 2$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 14 was not rejected.

Table 4.26
Family Nationality Background and Selected Friend's Nationality Background

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Friend's Nationality Background	
		Same	Different
Mother and father--USA	42	25	17
Mother and father--Philippines	9	5	4
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	9	10
TOTALS:	70	39	31

$X^2 = 0.79$ $df = 2 = 5.99$ $p > 0.05$

Among the percentages for distribution of numbers of selected friend's nationality background by total participants' numbers for each parents' nationality background group, the following result occurred. The "mother and father--USA" group scored the highest in selection of same nationality background friends (59.5%), and the "mother and father--Philippines" group scored the second highest (55.6%). This appears to indicate that participants of similar nationality backgrounds tend to stay together socially. It can be speculated that the result of participants seeking safe social culture groups with commonality of culture and language background ensures that they will be accepted and understood by their peers. Wright (1979) also found that students establish friendship associations characterized by homophilous factors as they seek out those areas frequented by their homophilous peers.

These findings seem to be in contrast to findings in Darnaur's doctoral dissertation, "The Adolescent Experiences in Career Army Families." In this 1970 study, Darnauer reported that 75% of the students did not feel that race was important in their personal choice of friends. The same percentage responded that race, rank, and religion were not important in the friend-selection considerations of most army youth (Darnauer in McCubbin, 1976).

However, it might be that the results reflect the type of questionnaire used. Two different approaches could lead

to possible differences in statistical results. If questions are asked on a conceptual level, the respondent is more likely to answer in an egalitarian manner. The questionnaire used in the present study was aimed at the present reality level. It asked students to think about their actual friends as of today and then identify them by background. Although there is a difference in time, place, and people questioned, it may be that the difference in questioning style is a major factor in the different responses from the two groups.

Hypothesis 15: There is no significant difference between genders and selected friend's nationality background.

The data given in Table 4.27 about the distribution of numbers of the selection of friend's nationality background (same or different) and by gender (boy or girl) and a chi-square test for significance indicated that boys and girls differed significantly in the nationality background of their selected friends ($X^2 = 4.64$, $df = 1$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 15 was rejected.

Among the percentages for the distribution of numbers of selected friend's nationality background by total participant numbers from the boy and girl groups, the following results are important. Boys scored much higher in the selection of friends from the same nationality background (61.6%) compared to girls (35.3%). It would seem that girls are more socially exploratory than are boys at this

Table 4.27
Gender and Selected Friend's Nationality Background

Gender	Total	Friend's Nationality Background	
		Same	Different
Boy	36	22	14
Girl	34	12	22
TOTALS:	70	34	36

$X^2 = 4.64$ df = 1 = 3.84 $p > 0.05$

age level. It may be that boys and girls are already into cultural gender roles that permit women to explore contacts with persons of other backgrounds and even change their nationality allegiance through marriage while the same freedom is not allowed males. The very survival of a male-oriented culture might require that the male be pressured to maintain his original cultural identity.

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant difference between family background and the degree of parental influence on a child's selection of friends.

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. The data given in Table 4.28 uses the distribution of numbers of participants' perceptions of parental influence on the selection of friends ("not at all, "some," "very much") by different parental nationality background groups ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--

USA," "other"). Table 4.28a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. A chi-square test for significance indicated that there is no significant difference in the degree of influence which the four different family backgrounds had on a child's selection of friends to the extent that such an influence is perceived by the children involved ($X^2 = 7.81$, $df = 6$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 16 was not rejected.

Table 4.28
Family Background and Influence on Child's Selection of Friends

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Influence		
		None	Some	Very Much
Mother and father--USA	40	16	19	5
Mother and father--Philippines	9	4	5	0
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	4	11	4
Other	13	6	3	4
TOTALS:	81	30	38	13

Table 4.28a
Family Background and Influence on Child's Selection of Friends (chi-square analysis)

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Influence: None	Influence: Some/Very Much
Mother and father--USA	40	16	24
Mother and father--Philippines	9	4	5
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	4	15
Other	13	6	9
TOTALS:	81	30	51

$X^2 = 2.90$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. The "mother and father--Philippines" group was the only one that had no reports of "very much" influence on selection of friends.

The majority of respondents felt their families did try to influence them. When the two responses which indicate a parental effort to influence the selection of friends ("some" and "very much") are combined, the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" background group tries to influence most the selection of friends (79%) with the "mother and father--USA" background group second (60%).

Hypothesis 17: There is no significant difference between family background and sharing personal problems with friends.

The data given in Table 4.29 uses the distribution of numbers concerned with participants' responses to the question of whether they share personal problems with their friends (yes or no) according to participants' parents' nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--USA," "other"). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.29
Family Background and Sharing Problems with Friends

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Sharing Yes	Sharing No
Mother and father--USA	39	31	8
Mother and father--Philippines	9	4	5
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	16	3
Other	13	10	3
TOTALS:	80	61	19

The following could be noted. The group that shared personal problems least with friends was the "mother and father--Philippines" group ("yes"--44%) while "other" was second ("yes"--77%). Insight into this situation may come from the book General Sociology Focus on the Philippines by

Panopio, Codero, and Raymundo. They described the Philippino as having a strong "desire for smooth interpersonal relations" that govern much of an individual's behavior. Shame (hiya) is a major influence:

> The Philippino is also "shame" (hiya) oriented, that is, the major concern is social approval and acceptance by a group. His behavior is generally dependent on what others will think, say, or do. His desires and ambitions will depend on what pleases or displeases others. Hiya still controls much of the Philippino's behavior
>
> Amor propio is high self-esteem and is shown in the sensitivity of a person to hurt feelings, insults, real or imagined. This is manifested in hiya, utang na loob and SIR ("desire for smooth interpersonal relations"). Persons resort to SIR patterns such as the use of polite language, soft voice, gentle manner, and indirect approaches like employing intermediaries, and euphemisms and ambiguous expressions, all of which are intended to avoid directness or frankness. (Panopio et al., 1978)

This information may help explain why students who are from the most completely Philippine family nationality background would be most likely to avoid the directness or frankness of sharing personal problems with friends. This would be combined with the attitudes of a predominantly American setting in which mixed marriages sometimes have a pejorative status. On the other hand, students from the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" background were most likely to share personal problems with friends ("yes"--84.2%, "no"--15.8%). This would seem to be in disagreement with the observations above; however, this is a unique group for which no detailed analysis is available. it may be that the students in this group tend to come together in

the school and military community environment because of their unique background and the unique problems they share in common as they try to adjust to a situation in which they are receiving conflicting signals from their parents. If this is the case, personal problem-sharing would be a likely characteristic of their friendships.

It would seem likely that these students would share with their parents the adaptation process of the cross-national family (often recently formed) (see Table 4.32, Family Background and Influence on Child's Advice-seeking). This might also mean intense (possibly conflictive) intra-family communications.

Hypothesis 18: There is no significant difference between gender and the sharing of personal problems with friends.

In Table 4.30 is a distribution of participants sharing personal problems with friends by the independent variable of gender (boy or girl). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.30
Gender Differences and Sharing Problems with Friends

		Sharing	
Gender	Total	Yes	No
Boy	43	28	15
Girl	37	34	3
TOTALS:	80	62	18

When percentages for the two groups are compared, girls much more often share personal problems with friends than do boys (91% compared to 65%), although the vast majority of both do share personal problems. As Hypothesis 17 ("There is no significant difference between family background and sharing personal problems with friends.") was supported by the statistical analysis, it might be that sharing of personal problems with friends is more likely to be influenced by perceived male and female roles or characteristics that exist at the junior high level when girls are frequently more verbal than boys. Certainly, these results seem to agree with the popular stereotype of the self-contained male and the sharing female in American society. It is conceivable that the concept of these roles at this age level in a basically military third culture environment would overpower contradictory other-culture characteristics--especially for young males.

Interaction and Socialization with Parents

The issues with which the study is concerned in this part are (a) whether or not cultural background affected the approach to discipline, (b) what impact family background has on advice-seeking patterns, (c) what factors influence the rate of serious talks with parents, and (d) what impact a father's position has on a child's motivation to practice good behavior.

Hypothesis 19: There is no significant difference between family background and which parent is perceived to be primarily responsible for the discipline of a child.

In Table 4.31, the distribution of numbers of the dependent variable of discipliners (father, mother, or both parents) is grouped according to the independent variable of parents' nationality background (mother and father--USA, mother and father--Philippines, mother--Philippines and father--USA, or other). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.31
Family Background and Influence as to Which Parent Disciplines a Child

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Who Disciplines		
		Father	Mother	Both
Mother and father--USA	39	19	8	12
Mother and father--Philippines	8	4	2	2
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	18	11	4	3
Other	13	8	1	4
TOTALS:	78	42	15	21

The following should be noted. A mother in charge of discipline was much lower in the "other" nationality background (7.7% in comparison to an average of 19.2% for all groups).

In the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" family background group, it appeared that either one parent or the other was in charge of discipline. The group had the lowest percentage of both parents disciplining (16.7% in comparison to an average of 26.9% for all groups).

In each group, the father tends to be more the discipliner. Because the military holds the primary employer responsible for the behavior of children, the discipliner role of the father is stressed more.

Hypothesis 20: There is no significant difference between family background and from whom (parents, friends, teachers, others) the students thought they would get the most important advice on the future.

In Table 4.32, the distribution of numbers of the dependent variable of sources from whom advice is sought (parents, friends, teachers, or other) is grouped according to the independent variable of parents' nationality background (mother and father--USA, mother and father--Philippines, mother--Philippines and father--USA, or other). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.32
Family Background and Influence on Child's Advice-seeking

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Sources of Advice			
		Parents	Friends	Teachers	Other
Mother and father--USA	39	30	0	4	5
Mother and father--Philippines	9	7	1	0	1
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	16	0	2	1
Other	13	11	1	1	0
TOTALS:	80	64	2	7	7

However, the following could be noted. Friends were not identified as significant sources of advice for any group (less than three percent in total). This might appear to be in contrast to the assumptions we make about the influence of friends at this age level as well as the large percentage of students in Table 4.29 who indicated that they share personal problems with friends (76%). Persons identified for sharing personal problems and for seeking advice may also be seen as two different groups of people.

Although students from the "mother and father--Philippines" background have been very successful academically (see Hypothesis 1), they were the only group that never identified teachers as a source of advice. This may reflect the fact that most teachers in DoDD schools are Americans who are often not familiar with the Philippine culture and who may, at the same time, seem to be unapproachable from the perspective of a cultural background that stresses paternalism in formal organizations and a shame-oriented consciousness related to approval or acceptance by the group (Panopio et al., 1978). In a larger sense, a relationship with an American teacher may be confused by the quasi-colonial relationship between the Philippines (as a developing country and a former colony of the USA) and the United States (as the dominant role model of modern culture and the dominant economic force in the Philippines) (Constantino, 1978). There may be a subtle

sense of a subordinate position and a confused sense of national identity that would influence even a young student as a compromising factor in an effort to communicate with an American classroom teacher.

Hypothesis 21: There is no significant difference between gender and from whom (parents, friends, teachers, others) the students thought they would get the most important advice on the future.

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. In Table 4.33, the distribution of numbers of the dependent variable of sources from whom advice is sought are grouped against the independent variable of gender (boy or girl). Table 4.33a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. A chi-square test for significance indicated that there is no significant difference in the advice-seeking patterns of boys and girls ($X^2 = 5.64$, df = 3, $p>0.05$). Hypothesis 21 was rejected.

Table 4.33
Gender and from Whom Most Important Advice Would Be Sought on the Future

		Sources of Advice			
Gender	Total	Parents	Friends	Teachers	Other
Boy	42	30	2	4	6
Girl	38	34	0	3	1
TOTALS:	80	64	2	7	7

Table 4.33a
Gender and from Whom Most Important Advice Would Be Sought on the Future (chi-square analysis)

		Sources of Advice	
Gender	Total	Parents	Others
Boy	42	30	12
Girl	38	34	4
TOTALS:	80	64	16

$X^2 = 4.06$ df = 1 = 3.84 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. Girls were more likely to seek advice from parents than were boys (girls--89%, boys--71%).

Boys were more likely than girls to seek advice from others (boys--14%, girls--3%). When Table 4.32 is considered, it is obvious that all or almost all these boys are from the "mother and father--USA" background. Examination of Table 4.21 makes it apparent that these boys are also likely to be involved in sports programs where they meet men coaching sports who are likely to be the "others" mentioned in Table 4.33. On the other hand, girls are less likely to have the same or similar opportunities for such significant contacts with others in a structured setting.

Hypothesis 22: There is no significant difference between family background and the rate of serious talks with parents.

In Table 4.34, the distribution of numbers of the dependent variable of serious talks with parents (never, sometimes, often) is grouped according to the independent variable of parent's nationality background (mother and father--USA, mother and father--Philippines, mother--Philippines and father--USA, or other). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the tables provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.34
Family Background and Influence on Serious Talks with Parents

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Rate of Talks		
		Never	Sometimes	Often
Mother and father--USA	40	13	24	3
Mother and father--Philippines	9	1	7	1
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	5	13	1
Other	13	4	7	2
TOTALS:	81	23	51	7

However, the following could be noted. The "mother and father--Philippines" group had the lowest rate of never having serious talks with parents (11%), while the "mother and father--USA" group had the highest rate of never having

serious talks with parents (32%). This would seem to be consistent with observations for Hypotheses 17 and 20. At the same time, however, it does seem in conflict with the data in Table 4.32 where a high percentage of the "mother and father--USA" group indicated their parents as their major source of advice (77%).

The "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group had the lowest percentage in often having serious talks with parents (five percent), followed by the "mother and father--USA" group (7.5%). While the "mother and father--USA" group could be expected to have enough experiences in an American school and community environment to be able to identify sources outside the home, it is more difficult it imagine other adult sources available for serious talks with a child from the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" family. For this child, an American school and community are often unfamiliar territory.

Hypothesis 23: There is no significant difference between gender and the rate of serious talks with parents.

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. In Table 4.35,, the distribution of numbers of the dependent variable rate of serious talks with parents (never, sometimes, often) is classified according to the independent variable of gender (boy or girl). Table 4.35a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. A chi-square test for significance did not show a significant

difference in the rate of serious talks with parents (X^2 = 1.7, df = 2, p>0.05). As a result, Hypothesis 23 was not rejected.

Table 4.35
Gender and Influence on Serious Talks with Parents

		Rate of Talks		
Gender	Total	Never	Sometimes	Often
Boy	43	16	24	3
Girl	38	9	26	3
TOTALS:	81	25	50	6

X^2 = 1.7 df = 2 = 5.99 p > 0.05

Table 4.35a
Gender and Influence on Serious Talks with Parents (chi-square analysis)

		Rate of Talks	
Gender	Total	Never	Sometimes/Often
Boy	43	16	27
Girl	38	9	29
TOTALS:	81	25	56

X^2 = 1.69 df = 1 = 3.84 p > 0.05

However, the following could be noted. Although boys and girls had the same rate of often having serious talks with parents (7% to 7.9%), boys had a higher rate of never having serious talks with parents (37.2% to 23.7%).

Hypothesis 24: There is no significant difference between a father's position and the motivation of a child to practice good behavior.

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. In Table 4.36, the distribution of numbers of the dependent variable of a child's motivation to practice good behavior ("might harm father's career," "friends might look down on me," "I might look down on myself") are grouped according to the independent variable of father's position (officer, civilian, enlisted). Table 4.36a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. A chi-square test for significance indicated that there is no significant difference in a child's motivation to practice good behavior and a father's position ($X^2 = 6.76$, df = 4, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 24 was not rejected.

Table 4.36
Father's Position and Child's Motivation to Practice Good Behavior

Father's Position	Total	Motivation A*	B*	C*
Officer	22	17	0	5
Civilian	23	21	0	2
Enlisted	30	21	3	6
TOTALS:	75	59	3	13

*KEY: A = might harm father's career
B = friends might look down upon me
C = I might look down upon myself

Table 4.36a
Father's Position and Child's Motivation to Practice Good Behavior (chi-square analysis)

Father's Position	Total	Motivation A*	Motivation B*/C*
Officer	22	17	5
Civilian	23	21	2
Enlisted	30	21	9
TOTALS:	75	59	16

$X^2 = 3.547$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

*KEY: A = might harm father's career
B = friends might look down upon me
C = I might look down upon myself

However, the following could be noted. The only group that indicated concern about how friends might see them as a motivation for good behavior was from the enlisted background (10%).

The civilian group was much more concerned about the effect of their behavior upon their fathers' careers (civilian--91%, officer--77%, enlisted--70%). This might reflect that many civilians (including retired military personnel) in the Philippines have purchased homes and will be in their specific communities much longer than military personnel who will be rotating out on a specific schedule in a matter of a few years. The child of a civilian, therefore, has to realize that a child's behavior can have

great consequences in terms of a family's social status and father's career.

The civilian group seemed much less concerned about how they viewed themselves (civilian--9%, officer--23%, enlisted--20%) as a motivation for good behavior. When considered with the greater concern about father's career mentioned above, these results may reflect more concentration on the family unit and less on self.

There is much more agreement between the two military background groups (officer and enlisted) when compared to the civilian group. This may reflect the difference between military and civilian groups in more ways than simply length of residence in a community environment. For example, it might reflect the larger military organization within which a family and individuals might feel more secure in comparison to the civilian environment.

It seems possible that the military system emphasizes status-oriented behavior rather than function-oriented behavior (which places greater stress on a participant's sense of self-esteem).

Teenaged Youth's Frequent Separation from Father and High Rate of Family Mobility

Part III is divided into two subsections for detailed analysis: (a) teenaged youth's academic achievement and how it is affected by father's absence, and (b) teenaged youth's academic achievement and the impact of family mobility. Each of these subsections will be examined in

relation to the statistical analysis of that phase of the study appropriate to the section.

Father's Absence and Its Impact on Student Grades

The question with which the study is concerned in this part is how a father's absence affects a participant's academic achievement from the perspectives of length of father's absence, family background, and participants' gender. The three major categories of impact on academic achievement were student grades: "go down," "stay the same," or "go up."

Hypothesis 25: There is no significant difference between the length of a father's absence and the academic achievement of teenaged youth.

Table 4.37 is a distribution of the numbers of the impact on student grades ("go down," "stay the same," or "go up") and by length of father's absence (0 days, 2-3 days a month, 4-7 days a month, 8-14 days a month, or more than 14 days a month). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.37
Length of Father's Absence and Impact on Student Grades

Length of Absence	Total	Impact		
		Go Down	Stay Same	Go Up
0 days	27	5	22	0
2-3 days/ month	29	3	24	2
4-7 days/ month	8	1	7	0
8-14 days/ month	7	2	4	1
More than 14 days/ month	8	2	5	1
TOTALS:	79	13	62	4

The two categories representing the greatest length of father absence (8-14 days a month--29%, and more than 14 days a month) were proportionately higher in reports of grades that go down than the average for all categories in reporting that grades go down (27% compared to 16%). This would seem to indicate an increased negative influence on grades when father's absence goes beyond one week a month.

Seventy-eight percent of the students reported that their grades were unaffected by father's absence. Although no statistics are available, many teachers have voiced the belief that father absence has a definite negative impact on student attitude and academic achievement. It would be worthwhile to see if a study of a larger student sample

supported this belief or if there are some who are so affected but not others and why.

Hypothesis 26: There is no significant difference between family background and the impact of father's absence on student achievement.

The data given in Table 4.38 are a distribution of numbers of the impact on student grades ("go down," "stay the same," or "go up") and parents' nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--USA," "other"). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.38
Family Background and Impact of Father's Absence on Student Academic Achievement

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Impact		
		Go Down	Stay Same	Go Up
Mother and father--USA	39	5	30	4
Mother and father--Philippines	9	2	7	0
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	18	3	15	0
Other	13	2	11	0
TOTALS:	79	12	63	4

The "mother and father--USA" group was the only one to report that grades go up during father's absence (10%). Whether this indicates that some fathers have a negative impact on studies while they are at home (as in the case of a socially active family) or that the ritual of accounting to a returning father has special importance to a student or that different unique circumstances exist in each individual family is impossible to determine. It is clear in Table 37 that length of father's absence is not a consistent determiner of the category in which grades go up.

Hypothesis 27: There is no significant difference between gender and the impact of father's absence on student academic achievement.

The data given in Table 4.39 are a distribution of numbers of the impact on student grades ("go down," "stay the same," or "go up") and gender (boy or girl). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.39
Gender and Impact of Father's Absence on Student Grades

		Impact		
Gender	Total	Go Down	Stay Same	Go Up
Boy	41	7	32	2
Girl	38	5	31	2
TOTALS:	79	12	63	4

However, the following could be noted. Father's absence seemed to have more impact on the grades of boys who reported that grades go down more frequently during father's absence (boys--17%, girls--13%).

Family Mobility and Impact on Student Grades

The question asked is, "Does amount of family mobility have an influence on student academic achievement?" The dependent variable of impact on student grades was identified by the terms "go down," "stay same," and "go up."

Impact on student grades was analyzed using the independent variables of rate of family mobility during student's lifetime (0-3 times, 4 times, 5 times, 6 times, and 7 or more times) and parents' nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--USA," "other").

Hypothesis 28: There is no significant difference between rate of family mobility and impact on student academic achievement.

The data given in Table 4.40 are a distribution of numbers of impact on student grades (A, B, C, D/F) and rate of family mobility during a student's lifetime (0-3 times, 4 times, 5 times, 6 times, and 7 or more times). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.40
Family Mobility and Impact on Student Academic Achievement

Rate of Mobility	Total	Grades A	B	C	D/F
0-3 times	7	2	2	1	2
4 times	16	2	4	6	4
5 times	14	2	6	4	2
6 times	15	3	6	5	1
7 or more times	22	7	5	5	5
TOTALS:	74	16	23	21	14

Average students have moved and changed schools 5.4 times by age 14. If this remained consistent, the same students would move and change schools approximately seven times by the time they graduated.

The group that moved most (7 or more times) had the highest achievement A grades (32%). This supports other research cited by Darnauer (Keeny, 1967; Partin, 1967; Snyder, 1967), all of which reported higher school performance among geographically mobile students (Darnauer in McCubbin, 1967).

Hypothesis 29: There is no significant difference between family background and impact of family mobility on student academic achievement.

The data given in Table 4.41 are a distribution of numbers of the impact on student grades ("go down," "stay the same," or "go up") by parental nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--USA," "other"). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

However, the following could be noted. The "mother and father--USA" group reported the highest percentages of grades that go down because of family mobility (40%), with the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group second (26%). This may correlate with the results related to Hypothesis 13 about family background and selected friend's nationality background. The "mother and father--USA" group scored the highest in selection of same nationality background friends (69.4%) and the "mother and father--

Table 4.41
Family Background and Impact of Family Mobility on Student Academic Achievement

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Impact		
		Go Down	Stay Same	Go Up
Mother and father--USA	38	15	21	2
Mother and father--Philippines	9	1	5	3
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	5	9	5
Other	13	1	8	4
TOTALS:	79	22	43	14

Philippines" group scored the second highest (55.6%). This might indicate that those students who need the security and stability of membership in a like-background group are most likely to have their grades go down until they reestablish such membership in a new location.

The "mother and father--USA" group reported the lowest percentages of grades going up (five percent), while the "mother and father--Philippines" group reported the highest percentage (33%). The average of all groups combined was 18%. The determining factor may be the most recent move in the student's experience--to the Philippines. For the student whose parents are both from the Philippines, this is more likely to be seen as a move to home (for some it may actually be home) to family and to the type of security

that this represents. For the student whose parents are both from the USA, this is apt to be seen as nearly the opposite--a move away from family, home, and a sense of security. It is easy to understand that the first group of students would be more inclined to do well in school and to remember this experience as the basis for answering the question. It is also easy to understand that the second group of students would not have the same successes to report. In addition, they would have the excitement of a new place and the tension of adapting to distract from getting into the routine of school and studying.

The percentage of grades that stay the same ranged from 47% for the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group to 62% for the "other" group.

The "mother and father--USA" group was the only one that reported more grades going down (40%) than grades going up (five percent).

Hypothesis 30: There is no significant difference between gender and impact of family mobility on student academic achievement.

The data given in Table 4.42 (Gender and Impact of Family Mobility on student Academic Achievement) of the distribution of numbers of the impact on student grades ("go down," "stay same," "go up") and gender of students (boy or girl) and a chi-square test for significance indicated that the gender of a student does not have a

significant impact on student grades (X^2 = 1.41, df = 2, p> 0.05). Hypothesis 30 was not rejected.

Table 4.42
Gender and Impact of Family Mobility on Student Academic Achievement

		Impact		
Gender	Total	Go Down	Stay Same	Go Up
Boy	43	10	26	7
Girl	38	11	18	9
TOTALS:	81	21	44	16

X^2 = 1.41 df = 2 = 5.99 p > 0.05

However, the following could be noted. Family mobility seems to have more effect on females in the sense that their reported grades go down and go up more often than the reported grades for males do at the same time the extremes seem more balanced for the females. The following percentages for Table 4.42 illustrate this:

Gender	Total	Go Down	Stay Same	Go Up
Boy	43	23.3%	65.5%	16.3%
Girl	38	28.9%	47.4%	23.7%

Teenaged Youth's Family Background and Lifestyle

Part IV is concerned with different characteristics of an overseas family and impact of these characteristics on family lifestyle in the military community at Subic Bay. This is divided into two subsections for detailed analysis:

(a) relationship of a cross-national marriage to parents' career (father's position and mother's work), and (b) relationship between family nationality background and the choice of a place to live, holidays to celebrate, and diet to follow. Both of these subsections will be examined in relationship to the statistical analysis of that phase of the study appropriate to the section.

Parental Background and Career

The question with which the study was concerned in this part was how father's position was related to involvement in cross-national as opposed to same-national marriages. On the other side, the question concerned the relationship of mother's nationality background to her present work situation.

Hypothesis 31: There is no significant difference between father's position and types of marriage.

The data given in Table 4.43 of the distribution of numbers of marriage types (cross-national or same-national) and father's position (officer, civilian, or enlisted) and a chi-square test for significance indicated that father's position does not have a significant impact on type of marriage ($X^2 = 1.31$, $df = 2$, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 31 was not rejected.

Table 4.43
Father's Position and Type of Marriage Patterns

Father's Position	Total	Type of Marriage: Cross-national	Type of Marriage: Same-national
Officer	24	8	16
Civilian	24	8	16
Enlisted	35	17	18
TOTALS:	83	33	50

$X^2 = 1.31$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. Although the officer and civilian groups had exactly the same marriage patterns (cross-national--33.3%, same-national--66.7%), the enlisted group entered into more cross-national marriages (cross-national--48.6%, same-national--51.4%). Although many different factors could be pointed out, two points might be made here. First, the enlisted group is younger and more likely to come to overseas military bases unmarried and, therefore, without families. Second, this group is probably less educated beyond high school and comprised of more individuals who are still making major decisions about their future lives and career choices. This may be the time when they are most open to major transitions from the cultural background they have known. All of this makes the enlisted group the ideal choice for young

females from a developing nation who are interested in marriage to Americans.

Hypothesis 32: There is no significant difference between mother's nationality background and the type of work she is presently doing.

In relation to this hypothesis, two tables are presented. The data given in Table 4.44 are a distribution of numbers on mother's work schedule (housewife, part-time work, or full-time work) and mother's nationality background (USA, Philippines, or other). Table 4.44a is a distribution appropriate for chi-square analysis. A chi-square test for significance indicated that mother's nationality background did have an impact on the type of work she was presently doing ($X^2 = 10.26$, df = 2, $p>0.05$). Hypothesis 32 was rejected.

Table 4.44
Mother's National Background and Present Type of Work

Mother's National Background	Total	Work Schedule		
		Hswife.	Part-tm.	Full-tm.
USA	41	20	8	13
Philippines	27	23	2	2
Other	12	9	1	2
TOTALS:	80	52	11	17

Table 4.44a
Mother's National Background and Present Type of Work (chi-square analysis)

Mother's National Background	Total	Work Schedule	
		Housewife	Part/Full-Time
USA	41	20	21
Philippines	27	23	4
Other	12	9	3
TOTALS:	80	52	28

$X^2 = 10.26$ df = 2 = 5.99 $p > 0.05$

In examining the percentages for the distribution of numbers of different types of work by total participant numbers for each background group, we can see that mothers from the USA national background are much more likely to have part-time or full-time jobs than to be full-time housewives than would mothers from either the Philippine or "other" nationality background. Of the USA group, 19.5% were involved in part-time work in comparison to 7.4% of the Philippine group and 8.3% of the "other" group. In terms of full-time work, the difference in the situations of the USA group (31.7%) and the Philippines group becomes even more obvious, while the "other" group is close to the middle between the two extremes (16.7%).

Why is the USA background mother so much more often employed either part- or full-time? Several factors need to be considered that could help answer this question.

A person from the USA would have an advantage in communication skills with no major language barrier if the work in on base.

The USA group is more likely to have members who have the training and general background for clerical and similar positions which are available on a military base. For those with more extensive education and specialized preparation, there are openings in such areas as medicine and education. It is likely that the Philippine group will not have as extensive an educational background or have had the same opportunities to gain prior work experience.

U.S. citizenship requirements for many jobs could be a barrier.

Family Nationality Background and Lifestyle Choices

The question with which the study was concerned in this part was how family background affected three choices related to lifestyle: the choice of whether to live off-base, the choice of holidays to celebrate, and the choice of children's diet.

Hypothesis 33: There is no significant difference between family background and the choice to live off-base.

The data given in Table 4.45 are a distribution of numbers on living off-base or on-base and parents' nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--

USA," "other"). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.45
Family Background and Living On-Base or Off-Base

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Living Off-Base	Living On-Base
One or both parents from the Philippines	28	9	19
Neither parent from the Philippines	54	2	52
TOTALS:	82	11	71

An examination of the percentages for the numbers of distribution of the two types of living locations by total participant numbers for each background group indicates that those families which contain a Philippine spouse more often live off-base than those families which do not have a Philippine parent (families with Philippine parent living off-base--32%, families without Philippine parent living off-base--4%). The following observations seem to apply here.

Purchase of land and houses in the Philippines can be inexpensive. Such purchases are possible and practical if one of the parents is a citizen of the Philippines. They

are difficult and very limited if neither parent is a citizen of the Philippines.

The Philippines has been an attractive site for retired military personnel to settle--especially if the wife is from the Philippines. Her citizenship makes it possible to own commercial property and have a business to operate. Sometimes the children of this type of family are still attending school after their fathers retire.

For those people unfamiliar with the Philippines, the prospect of off-base living can be frightening, and the opportunity for five years in good quality on-base housing can be most attractive.

Some families may want to stay in the Philippines as long as possible, and the primary employer may be successful in staying beyond the five years during which on-base housing is provided. For such families, off-base living is part of their choice to stay longer. For reasons such as those listed above, such a family is likely to contain a Philippine spouse.

The importance of an extended family in the Philippines and the desire for close contact with that extended family can influence both the choice to live off-base and the choice to stay longer in the Philippines. While the desire of a Philippine wife for this situation is more obvious, the situation of an American husband could motivate him either to want to leave or to stay. Some husbands may be anxious to get away from such potentially

demanding inlaws, while others may want to stay near their new families which treat them with special respect because of their large incomes and their American identity.

Hypothesis 34: There is no significant difference between family background and choice of holidays to celebrate.

The data given in Table 4.46 are a distribution of numbers of choice of holidays to celebrate ("only American" or "both") and parents' nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--USA," "other"). The distribution did not meet the basic assumptions for chi-square analysis; however, the statistical data presented in the table provides the basis for observations and discussion of the hypothesis.

Table 4.46
Family Background and Choice of Holidays to Celebrate

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Choice of Holidays: Only American	Both
Mother and father--USA	38	35	3
Mother and father--Philippines	8	3	5
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	17	6	11
Other	13	8	5
TOTALS:	76	52	24

An examination of percentages for the numbers of distribution of the two response choices of holidays to celebrate indicates that the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group is more likely to celebrate both American holidays and origin or host country holidays (65%). the second highest group was the "mother and father--Philippines" group (63%). The following observations would seem to apply in this situation.

The on-base community and official government calendar promote celebration only of American holidays. To become familiar with and actually celebrate host nation holidays would require a special interest and a special effort. For the family with "mother--Philippines and father--USA" parents, there would be a special motivation to celebrate both nations' holidays since they identify with each country.

For the family from the "other" culture background, it would seem difficult to do more than celebrate American holidays in the sense that special foods and materials would not be easily available at the same time that the official government calendar would not provide time off.

The "mother and father--USA" group would be unlikely to be sufficiently familiar with host nation holidays for many to celebrate them.

Hypothesis 35: There is no significant difference between family background and a child's diet.

The data given in Table 4.47 of the distribution of numbers on different food styles selected for a child's diet (U.S., Oriental, Mexican, Philippine, or other) and parents' nationality background ("mother and father--USA," "mother and father--Philippines," "mother--Philippines and father--USA," "other") and a chi-square test for significance indicated that parental national background did not have a significant impact on a child's diet ($X^2 = 5.88$, df = 3, $p > 0.05$). Hypothesis 35 was not rejected.

Table 4.47
Family Background and Influence on Child's Diet

Parents' Nationality Background	Total	Food Styles in Diet: American	Both
Mother and father--USA	40	33	7
Mother and father--Philippines	9	5	4
Mother--Philippines and father--USA	19	12	7
Other	13	7	6
TOTALS:	81	57	24

$X^2 = 5.88$ df = 3 = 7.82 $p > 0.05$

However, the following could be noted. Although the "mother and father--USA" group had the highest rate of choosing American-style foods (82.5%), American-style foods were the first choice of all groups (70.3% combined). This could reflect the fact that quality American foods are

available at reasonable prices through the base commissary, and this would tend to dominate food choice.

Philippine foods were chosen by only a small percentage of the families with a Philippine parent (7.1%). This could reflect not only the commissary situation mentioned above, but also the status given to things American both in school and the community.

The global food phenomenon has resulted in a marketing situation where people are able to obtain international foods almost any time and anywhere.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary

Review of the Study

The Department of Defense Dependents Schools are an important part of almost every American overseas military base community. Because of the many international and intercultural families that exist in such communities as well as the overseas settings of the bases, the schools are also the sites of continuing cross-cultural encounters and the key meeting place for third culture kids (TCK). Although the composition of each military community is unique to itself, at the same time it shares certain common characteristics with and contributes to the total DoDDS system.

George Dewey High school at Subic Bay Naval Base, Republic of the Philippines, is no exception. Both the unique nature of the school and the common DoDDS elements were the concern of this study of eighth grade students at the school during the 1982-83 school year. The intention of the study was to find out how the family backgrounds and experiences of different groups of students affected their

academic achievement and social interaction in school in this unique, military, third culture setting.

Nature of the Study

The study focused on the academic achievement, social interaction and adaptation, and lifestyle based on four different family background groups of students who were enrolled at the DoDD high school at Subic Naval Base, Republic of the Philippines. The impact of military family mobility, separation from father, and gender of student were examined with respect to academic achievement.

In many ways this was an exploratory study designed to examine dimensions of the third culture student's experience in the DoDDS environment that have not been examined previously. From another perspective, it is a part of the series of studies that have examined different aspects of overseas schools--including DoDDs--and related experiences of third culture children in these different schools.

Methodology

The nature of this study is a combination of exploratory study and research methodology focused on data collected through use of a questionnaire. The exploratory study involved three stages. The first stage involved developing a theoretical base for the study through a review of professional literature related to intercultural and third culture studies. The second stage involved

research to gather information about the DoDDS system, Subic Naval Base, and George Dewey High School. The third stage involved observation and interaction with students who were to be the target group for the study. The third stage was achieved in the researcher's roles as observer and substitute teacher in the school. Other schools in which the researcher was also substituting at the same time provided a greater sense of perspective for the experience in the high school.

Out of these three stages of the exploratory study, the researcher developed the final form of the questionnaire to be used as the major data collecting instrument. It was intended to obtain data which could be analyzed to explore how the characteristics of the third culture family in an overseas military community relates to the academic achievement and lifestyle of the students involved on a junior high level. The data collected were nominal and ordinal. Wherever appropriate, the hypotheses were subjected to a chi-square test to see if the distribution could be attributed to chance alone. The .05 level of confidence was used to determine rejection of a null hypothesis. Observations, percentile comparisons were used in most analysis, and discussions of the situations were presented.

Population

The school selected for this study was George Dewey High School located at Subic Naval Base, Subic Bay, Republic of the Philippines, a 7th-12th grade school with approximately 500 students. The actual population selected for the study were the 83 eighth graders who constituted 73% of the eighth grade class. They were in three of the four heterogeneously grouped English 8 classes.

The major variables related to this population are displayed graphically below.

Family Nationality

Parents	Students
M--USA F--USA	41
M--Phil. F--Phil.	9
M--Phil. F--USA	20
Other	13
TOTAL:	83

Father's Position

Position	Students
Officer	24
Civilian	25
Enlisted	34
TOTAL:	83

Gender	Students
Boys	45
Girls	38
TOTAL:	83

School Policies

The policies of individual schools in DoDDs reflect the intention to provide an education that is comparable to that which is obtained in a fully-accredited U.S. public school. This determines the qualification requirements for educational staff, grading, attendance, discipline, content

of curriculum, and extracurricular programs. In fact, the normal periodic evaluation of individual schools (elementary and secondary) by the North Central Accrediting Association from the United States ensures that this compatibility with stateside schools is maintained.

Academic Achievement

In terms of academic achievement, classes in English, mathematics, and social studies were selected as the common subject areas taken by all eighth grade students and thus a base for comparison of academic achievement. The grade groupings using in the comparison were A, B, C, and D/F (unsatisfactory).

Extracurricular Activities

In the area of extracurricular activities, the emphasis was on the many activities sponsored by the school after the school day ended. These included all sports offered, cheerleading, yearbook, drama, and other programs identified by individual students.

Findings of the Study

The questions upon which the hypotheses were based fall into four general categories. These categories and the findings are described in the following sections. In all cases where it could be appropriately used, a chi-square analysis was employed. Where a chi-square could not

be used, the statistical data were examined in terms of proportions and discussed.

General Findings Related to Family Background

General Hypothesis 1 examined the relationship between a student's family background and academic achievement, participation in extracurricular activities, career interests, and perceptions of parental concern about their child's behavior.

Student academic performance in English, mathematics, and social studies separately and combined were cross-tabulated with (a) family background, (b) language spoken at home, (c) father's military rank or status as a civilian, (d) being a natural child or stepchild/adopted, and (e) gender. In some of these comparisons, the appropriate statistical analysis revealed that such distributions could have occurred by chance alone with the exception of a table relating being a natural child or adopted/stepchild to performance in English. In this comparison, the adopted/stepchild category had a significantly larger proportion of those who did poorly in English than could be expected by chance alone. This is understandable in terms of the 21% of the students in the adopted/stepchild group who were enrolled in ESL and still adapting to the new experience of attending an English-speaking school.

Thus students who came from a family in which both parents were of Philippine origin performed better academically than any other group in the combined grade point average for the three subjects (English, mathematics, and social studies) with a GPA of 3.2 while the students from the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" performed more poorly academically (GPA: 2.0).

It appears that the students of the "mother and father--Philippine" group's successful academic achievement positively related to the highest percentage of perceived parental interest in grades (see Table 4.18).

It has been noted that the Philippine-Philippine marriage is likely to be a first marriage with the added advantage of living in the home nation with the security of the supportive extended family and a favorable employment situation. At the same time, some American-Philippine marriages are recent marriages in which children reared in the Philippines have been adopted or declared dependents and dropped into the unfamiliar world of the English language, the third culture, and the DoDD school.

Eighty-three percent of the students who were enrolled in the ESL (English as a Second Language) program were from the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" group. Certainly this situation has had an impact on the total academic performance of the group. These ESL students were newly arrived in American schools.

Students of the "mother and father--USA" group coming from a developed country could find being in a developing country a unique experience. Despite the potential for culture or transition shock, students of this group responded to their new location and school with generally acceptable grades.

In terms of language spoken at home and academic achievement, 28.6% of the participants in the "other language" group were enrolled in the school's ESL program. This compared to no ESL enrollment in the "English spoken at home" group. These ESL students had significantly low academic achievement. The impact of this langauge background is evident in the total grade difference between the "English spoken at home" group (GPA: 2.5) and the "other langauge spoken at home" group (GPA: 2.2).

In terms of father's position and academic achievement, there was no evidence of a significant impact. However, there was evidence of a relationship between the degree of a child's perception of parental interest in grades. The "mother and father--Philippines" group reported the highest percentage of perceived parental interest in grades, and the students of this group obtained the highest grade point average of any of the four family groups (GPA: 3.2 compared to a 2.6 average for all students). At this stage, students perceived considerable parental concern about their academic success in school (61%). These parents tended to see success in high school

as the key to success in life. Certainly, eighth grade marks are an important indication of how well students will do in high school.

The adopted/stepchild group showed a significantly lower achievement in English compared to the "own parents" group; however, no significant differences were found in mathematics and social studies. About 21% of the adopted/stepchild group were ESL students who had been brought into American schools where they were obviously unfamiliar with the English-speaking, American cultural environment.

The overall grade distribution for boys and for girls was very similar in every subject. In terms of the controversy about gender differences and abilities related to mathematical and verbal skills, this study showed little relationship between gender and academic performance in these areas for this specific group of eighth graders.

A student's selection of extracurricular activities related to family nationality background (with more involvement in school sports for students with both parents from the USA). Student's physical size, family background, and father's position did not have a significant influence on a student's future career interests.

There did seem to be a consistency in the continuing pattern of student perceptions of concern in families where both parents were of Philippine background. After citing academic achievement as the major concern of parents,

students did not identify sports as a selected extracurricular activity. Although the generally smaller size of boys from this group might be one reason for their selections, the time demands of sports might conflict with time available for homework (a major concern of a group where the emphasis is on academic performance). For boys particularly, physical size seems to be an important element related to the development of a positive or negative self-image. For example, taller boys tend to assume leadership roles while smaller boys often see their size as a disadvantage. Girls, on the contrary, may find it a social disadvantage to be too tall. Although growth patterns vary with each individual child, at this age level, one's height seems to become very important to self-identity.

At the same time, American parents tend to see involvement in sports as a major aspect of the high school experience. This might be especially important to fathers in American military families who see sports' success as an avenue to winning acceptance and developing better self-concepts when success is difficult or impossible to obtain in academic competition.

One unusual result in this area is the tendency of Philippine-American background students, who received the lowest mean grade in academic performance, to score highest in terms of future career interests that would require college educations while academically successful children

of both Philippine parents placed themselves among the lowest in college level career expectations. This may reflect an American assumption that there is education beyond high school available to everyone.

General Hypothesis 2 examined the relationship of family background and gender difference to student interaction and socialization in school and family.

It was found that when the area of student interaction and socialization in school and family was considered, gender had an influence on both a selected friend's nationality background and the sharing of personal problems. Fifty-six percent of the total students tended to have same cultural background friends.

The "mother and father--USA" group scores highest in selection of same nationality background friends (69.4%), and the "mother and father--Philippines" group scored second highest (55.6%). This appeared to indicate that students of similar nationality backgrounds tend to stay together socially. This could be a student seeking a safe social culture group with commonality of culture and language background which ensures acceptance and understanding from peers. Wright's (1979) findings support this: students establish friendship associations characterized by homophilous factors as they seek those areas frequented by their homophilous peers.

Girls were more apt to select friends from different nationality backgrounds and more likely to share their

personal problems. This appeared to result from girls' tendencies to be more socially explorative and more verbal than boys. However, close to half the students were interacting with different nationality background friends. This could be interpreted as indicating that student nationality background is not a restricting factor in the choice of friends. In a military setting and school, there is an emphasis on team sports and school projects that bring students together more on the basis of interests and skills than on the basis of nationality background. These friendships formed in team sports or the sharing of other special interests are an integration of all culture backgrounds. This is also reflected in the military concept of an integrated community that extends back to 1947. This is in keeping also with the reality of a constantly changing community in which few in-groups could become permanent and in which friendships must be formed quickly.

Seventy-six percent of the students reported they shared personal problems with friends. At this age level and in this type of third culture environment, such sharing becomes extremely important. The groups that shared personal problems least with friends was the "mother and father--Philippines" group. Panopio (1978) described the Filipino as having a strong "desire for smooth interpersonal relations" that control much of the Philippine behavior. This would be most likely to avoid

the directness or frankness of sharing personal problems with friends. On the other hand, students from the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" background were most likely to share personal problems with friends (84%). Although this seems to be in conflict with the Panopio explanation, it might be explained by the availability of a similar background, supportive subculture at a time when there is no place else to turn.

Students' interaction and socialization with parents was an area of hypothesis that involved no rejections related to which parent disciplined, a child's advice-seeking patterns, rate of serious talks with parents, and children's motivation to practice good behavior in school. The father was identified as the primary source of discipline except in the "mother--Philippines and father--USA" background family which varied from parent to parent with the lowest percentage of both parents disciplining. This may result from two different cultural concepts of child-rearing which limit common agreement on procedure. At the same time, the highly mobile nature of the third culture population may be reflected in the fact that no group identified friends as a significant source of advice. There was some difference in that students whose parents were both from the Philippines were the only group never to identify teachers as a main source of advice. This could reflect both the fact that most teachers are from different cultural backgrounds and the desire to avoid possible shame

(hiya) by sharing personal problems with someone outside the family (Panopio, 1978). this group did have the highest rate of serious talks with parents.

General Hypothesis 3 examined the relationship between family background (type of marriage, mother's work, choice of a place to live, holidays to celebrate, and diet) and father's military rank or civilian status.

The statistical analyses did not reveal a significant difference in regard to father's position and types of marriage (cross-national or same-national). No significant differences existed among the officer, civilian, and enlisted groups. However, the enlisted group entered into more cross-national marriages (48.6%) than the officer group (33.3%) or the civilian group (33.3%). this could be related to the fact that members of the enlisted group are younger and more likely to come to an overseas military base unmarried. Many of these marriage situations may be cases of "chance and availability" from Char's (1977) list of five motivations to inter-cultural marriage. Char cites as an example a situation in which "a white American soldier stationed in Vietnam may marry a Vietnamese girl simply because of the factor of availability and propinquity in a setting where it seems appropriate. If he were not a lonely GI stationed in Vietnam for a year, he would never have an exogamous marriage" (Char in Tseng, 1977: 34).

Subic Naval Base in the Philippines seems to have many such situations and marriages. One chaplain who has studied cross-national marriages in Subic Bay explained that after a long sea-duty, a young sailor is often lonely and homesick. Within one or two weeks of arrival, young sailors have found Philippine girls they want to marry immediately. They are in romantic love stages and are not aware of the long-term realities of marriage. Despite counseling by their officers and chaplains to wait, many of these young men rush into marriage.

In terms of mother's nationality background and her work (housewife, part- or full-time work), there were major differences in their employment. A mother from the USA was much more likely to have a part-or full-time job (51%) than a mother from the Philippines (15%) or one from the "other" group (25%). This may not reflect a major language barrier. Career preparation, U.S. citizenship requirements for better jobs, different cultural concepts of a woman's role, and ages of the children could be the major factors.

The data collected indicated that a parent's nationality background does have a great influence on whether the family lives off-base or on-base. Families which contain Philippine parents more often live off-base (32%) than those families which do not have a Philippine parent (four percent). This could be explained by the importance of the extended family in the Philippines and

the desire for close contact with the extended family which can be more easily satisfied while living off-base.

General Hypothesis 4 examined the relationship of frequent separation from the father and high rate of family mobility in the military to the academic performance of students.

No significant differences existed in terms of academic achievement based on the length of father absence, family background differences, or gender differences. However, there were indications that extended father absences have a more negative impact on academic achievement and that boys' grades were more apt to go down. At the same time, the group with both parents from the USA was the only one with some students who reported that their grades tended to go up during father absence (10%). Whether this indicated that some fathers have a negative impact on studies when they are home (as in the case of a more socially active family) or that the ritual of accounting to a returning father has special importance for a student or that other unique circumstances exist in each individual family is impossible to determine.

The study indicated that family mobility did not have a major influence on student academic achievement from the perspectives of rate of mobility, family background, or student gender. There were some indications of patterns that did become evident, however. Students whose families moved seven or more times were found to have the highest

percentage of academic achievement (32%) in terms of A grades. This result, in some respects, has a positive correlation to the findings of Darnauer, Keeny, Partin, and Snyder (1976). Their research reported higher school performance among geographically mobile students (Darnauer et al. in McCubbin, 1976).

At the same time, grades of girls tended to be affected more at both extremes--going up and going down--as a result of family mobility. Mobility itself is stressful for teenagers because, along with being forced to leave one's friends and school behind, the teenager also gets a strong feeling that s/he is not in control of his/her life. This comes at a time when adolescent development is already making great demands on the teenager, both physically and mentally.

McKain (1967) cites studies by Pederson and Sullivan (1964) which found that children were affected significantly by parental attitudes about mobility. A child tends to have a strong identification with the way a parent adapts to stressful situations. The adaptation of a child parallels the adjustment of the parent (McKain in McCubbin, 1967: 70).

Observations Related to the Findings

These observations fall into two basic groups: (a) those that relate to the experiences and interactions of students within the school environment, and (b) those that

relate to the general sense of relationship between the base and the neighboring host community.

Observations Related to Experiences and Interactions of Students within the School Environment

Because many recently adopted students enter school with little knowledge of English, there can be a langauge barrier that tends to limit their social contacts to other students which whom they can speak in their first language. Students adopted into recent Philippine-American marriages are often separated from important family members with whom they have lived in the host nation prior to this time. Avoiding a long-term development of resulting problems has to be an important concern of the administration and school staff working in many ways to promote a healthy integration of students.

Not all adopted ESL students could be said to make successful transitions during their time at school. The movement of a family may come before a student has enough time in school to make the transition to functioning academically and socially.

Although many times an entire family leaves together for the U.S. or another overseas base, there are occasions where a departing family may leave a child behind to return to his/her relatives in the host country. As a consequence, a child adopted into a recent Philippine-American marriage could easily have a sense of insecure

future that could hinder his/her effort to adapt to school and the DoD base community.

Observations Related to the Relationship Between the Base and the Neighboring Host Community

As has happened in other military settings, the off-base host nation community near Subic is often considered to cater economically to the baser interests of the military community.

Many of the host nation people with whom the DoD on-base community comes in contact are semi-skilled laborers--often domestic workers. Conversations and observations confirm that resulting stereotyped images of host nation people often tend to carry some connotation of inferiority. Out of these experiences and perspectives can come a view of the host nation and host national people that makes it easy to stereotype students of host nation origin. An unhealthy consequence of this can be the resulting inclination to avoid getting to know and appreciate such students as individuals.

A constant concern about theft also tends to distort one's view of the people and the host nation. This extends from off-base onto the base when break-ins occur in on-base quarters and other buildings.

A sense of physical danger can be overpowering for individuals who cannot put the base warnings about

poisonous snakes and rabid animals as well as rumors of violence in the host community into perspective.

Partly because of the nature of a base community and partly because of the conditions and views mentioned above, the base community has many recreational facilities and other services which permit people to meet all of their needs without leaving the base.

Conclusions

The findings showed that there is no significant difference in regard to student academic achievement on the basis of family background, father's position, or gender difference.

The results of this study indicate that George Dewey High School at Subic Naval Base, Republic of the Philippines, has an adequate educational program with a well-qualified and understanding teaching staff ready to educate military children under the complex circumstances of this third culture environment which has a high proportion of students of diverse nationality backgrounds complicated by the military system's demands upon the school and family system.

Thirty-five percent of the total sample was comprised of children in the adopted/stepchild group, and 21% of this group was enrolled in the ESL program. There appeared to be a problem in the lower achievement levels in English by students who were new to American schools and who had

little, if any, background in the formal study of English as conducted in American schools. Thus, language limitations did prove to be a major barrier in terms of academic performance.

In terms of the DoDDS ESL program, the academic performance of ESL students should be carefully followed in an attempt to help students and to prepare them to be able to adjust to American schools. Part of this preparation would involve a curriculum plan carefully tailored to their needs.

Although students of similar nationality backgrounds do sometimes come together during the school day, almost half of these students reported close friendships in other groups. This indicates that despite the security offered by one's same language and culture groups, the long-term military emphasis on an integrated community is successful.

While teenaged students are making the adjustment to a very different language and cultural environment, the security that a supportive original language social group can provide may be the key to a successful transition. This leads to a conflicting view which may need special attention: it is the assumption of some teachers and parents that students must not be allowed to speak anything but English while they are on school grounds. It may be necessary to promote an understanding of the cultural nature and need for collectivity that may fill a vital

psychological need that outweighs the delay in mastering English.

In regard to family lifestyle, this study indicated a significant difference based on family background in the choice of where to live and which holidays to celebrate. Those families with one or both Philippine parents more often lived off-base than did families with no Philippine parents. At the same time, the tendency to take things from both cultures was most apparent in the choice of holidays to celebrate with cross-national families most inclined to observe both sets of national holidays.

The findings of this study emphasized that view of culture that Hoebel (1971) described as being the integrated sum total of learned behavior traits which are manifest and shared by members of a society. A functional understanding and acceptance of this view of culture by the members of a school system and military community is needed. Such an awareness could be a key to future curriculum development in DoDDS.

Another major issue in this study was the characteristically high rate of military family mobility and a frequent separation of the father and the impact these had on student academic performance. The study results indicated that there was not significant difference in academic achievement based on the length of father absence, family background, or gender. It is clear that the objectives of the military mission come before

consideration of the military family. At the same time, however, the findings of this study suggest that problems associated with frequent family mobility are alleviated by a conscious effort to create an atmosphere which enables the child and the family to gain quick acceptance into their new third culture military community and school. This is a special strength of the military community and the DoDDS network of schools that provides a family a sense of continuity as they go through the adjustment and adaptation process.

It is clear in this study that DoDDS teachers are in a challenging setting with the unique characteristics of a mobile community, different student subgroups that comprise the student body, and other features of individual third culture settings. These teachers must be aware not only of the wide range of student backgrounds but of the third culture situation generally. It is a situation in which teachers must assume the seemingly contradictory tasks of presenting and preserving the traditions of a nation and society at the same time that they must be innovative to meet the unique needs of their different students.

Although DoDDS teachers generally have a wide range of experiences and awareness and a strong concern for individual students, they need even more background knowledge and understanding of the third culture situation generally. In addition, this third culture background awareness needs to be continuously updated in this time of

constant change. Teachers provide not only stability but also provide a force for positive change. Brembeck (1966) says, ". . . the teacher must be closely identified with his culture, know its content well, and then be prepared to give both shape and direction to its future" (Brembeck in Hansen & Brembeck, 1966: 230).

In the effort to conclude with a larger perspective, it should be reported that, based on this study, the Department of Defense community and school represent a unique dimension of the third culture experience. They possess the following characteristics.

1. Seventy-nine percent of the students are concerned about the effect (especially possible harm) of their behavior on their fathers' careers. This clearly reflects the nature of the Department of Defense overseas community as a formal and functional military unit which gives first priority to meeting the demands of its unique mission. The common lifestyle of military families overseas becomes a third culture with its new norms, values, and patterns of behavioral expectations and a social group consciousness. Within this community, the military family can be viewed as part of a "supportive" subsystem. This results in a commonly agreed-upon type of social solidarity and family role definition in the military community.

2. The military family often experiences a great geographical mobility. Because of this mobility, the Department of Defense overseas schools are designed to take care of the educational needs of dependents of families, both parents of which are from the United States, as well as dependents of military and civilian employees who have spouses from other nationality backgrounds. The number of these students of cross-cultural marriages is considerable and growing.

In spite of the many different cultural backgrounds and differences in original languages of students, the cultural background has not been a restricting factor in terms of academic achievement and the child's inter-personal and social relationships. This may reflect success in realizing related educational tasks identified by DoDDS. These educational tasks which DoDD schools are trying to achieve include the following major goals:

a. present education to prepare students to succeed in an American educational setting,

b. promote students' cross-cultural awareness, and

c. increase teacher awareness of the third-culture factor.

3. The military overseas communities develop, or are endowed with, an institutional system of their own which serves to satisfy the greater part of the personal, social, and cultural needs of their members. The system is generally exclusive of members of the host society. The services which normally are offered by the private sector in a stateside civilian community are the responsibility of the base overseas. Recreational facilities, food services (sometimes offered through arrangements with major food franchises from the United States), stores, churches, and schools--all of these facilities and related services are under the central base control in the military community.

4. Relationships have developed between base communities and host nation communities in which the two perform certain functions for each other. The base community depends on the host community to provide certain goods and services (often including a host nation work force). Because of the nature of the military self-support system, people who live on base have little motivation to adapt to the host society.

The children in these communities and schools, of course, are not totally isolated from the host nation culture, and indeed some of the third culture children have familial

> ties through their mothers to host nationals. Cultural interactions on and off base are conditioned by the organized efforts to ensure that the primary purpose of the military for being inside a foreign country is not jeopardized. This is not a return to the dominating colonial arrangement of the past, but it may be a growing dimension of the third culture experience of the future. Although the DoD community may seem an extreme example of this trend, it is a good place in which to study the influence of such an organized effort to increase the TCK's ties ot the originating nation (in this case, the USA) while living abroad.

Recommendations for Future Study

This study was an attempt to learn more about students who attended a Department of Defense Overseas School in the Philippines. Special attention was given to the areas of students' academic achievement, students' interaction in school and with their parents, and lifestyle under the typical military environment with its high mobility and frequent separation from father.

While the results of this study have provided descriptive data regarding those students' parents' national background categories, the following are the researcher's further recommendations.

1. It should be noted that this study contains two different elements: objective information about students and their actual recorded performances and, at the same time, information about the perceptions of these students as they look at themselves, their family and friends, and their school situation. Certainly, student perspectives and objective data do not always agree, but student perceptions deserve consideration as an important element reflected in the results of the study.

2. Because of the nature of the DoD school, with its varying multi-national backgrounds of different families and children involved, it is recommended that future studies be conducted which examine individual students' backgrounds in-depth at the same time that students are viewed from a longitudinal perspective. This would result in more valuable insights into the impact of different variables on students.

3. Because the family unit is often placed under unique pressures by different living conditions overseas, studies need to be conducted that examine carefully parental attitudes and the consequent impact of these attitudes on a student's school experience.

4. The adaptation of students and their families to a series of moves to different locations is the key to understanding students and prescribing success ingredients that should exist in every school. Accordingly, a careful study of families and their adaptation patterns in different settings should be conducted and the results made available to school administrators.

5. Studies related to fathers' absence and students' academic and social performance in school should examine in detail the impact on students before, during, and after actual absence.

6. In addition to studying the third culture background of students, studies are needed to examine the background of teachers who are working with these students in overseas schools. In addition to information on teacher preparation and professional qualifications and years of experience in overseas schools, teacher-student interactions in the classroom need to be observed and analyzed.

Implications

Living in an overseas military community is a unique experience. However, the symbiotic relationship with the host community can also contain stressful aspects of cross-

cultural relations. Under these circumstances, the addition of the nature of the military mission, lack of stability that accompanies many family moves, and the frequent absence of father all have a great impact on the task and function of the family. Military children (or military third culture children) must encounter and be able to adapt to complex and unique social and cross-cultural settings. Particularly for teenagers, who are in the most important stage of pre-entry into adulthood, the psychological and biological demands of such change are great.

The findings of this study show that these military community third culture children indicated that length of father absence did not have a significant impact on student grades. At the same time, however, the greatest length of father absence did have more negative impact on academic achievement. The study also indicated that there was no significant impact on student academic achievement from the perspective of rate of family mobility. However, on a less than statistically significant level, students whose families moved less (1-3 times) were more apt to have grades drop as a result of a move. It may be that during the first moves, it is especially hard for students to adjust to the change and adapt to new circumstances.

The implication is that both the community and the school need to concern themselves especially with these circumstances and make special efforts to provide

understanding and help for TCKs during these times of special stress. This could take the form of a school and community establishment of adjustments to new location programs.

The findings of the study also showed that the family background difference, the language spoken at home difference, father's position difference, and gender difference do not have a significant impact on academic achievement in English, mathematics, and social studies. At the same time, however, findings did indicate that the adopted/stepchild group's academic performance was very low compared to the performance of the rest of students. Language disability can adversely affect the child's sense of personal value, attitude, and behavior. The adopted/stepchildren were enrolled in the ESL program--a program which is a major concern of DoDDS. Children of cross-national marriage, particularly with mothers from host-nations, usually comprise the largest percentage of the student body with academic problems. Some of these children may be culturally-deprived in that they come from rural areas which provide little contact with modern technology and life or even education. The study also indicated that students from similar nationality backgrounds tend to stay together in their interaction or socialization process which could adversely affect English language acquisition. Before determining or revising an educational philosophy or school plan, these types of

findings should be presented and implications considered in the planning stage.

A school staff should be exposed to and examine the third culture concept to understand that an overseas military community is a composition of variant third culture factors. These factors include the third culture concept of students' associating across societies and cultures while engaged in the common enterprise of school and developing the characteristics of an evolving new (third) culture with its unique new standards, norms, lifestyle, communications, perspectives, and types of self.

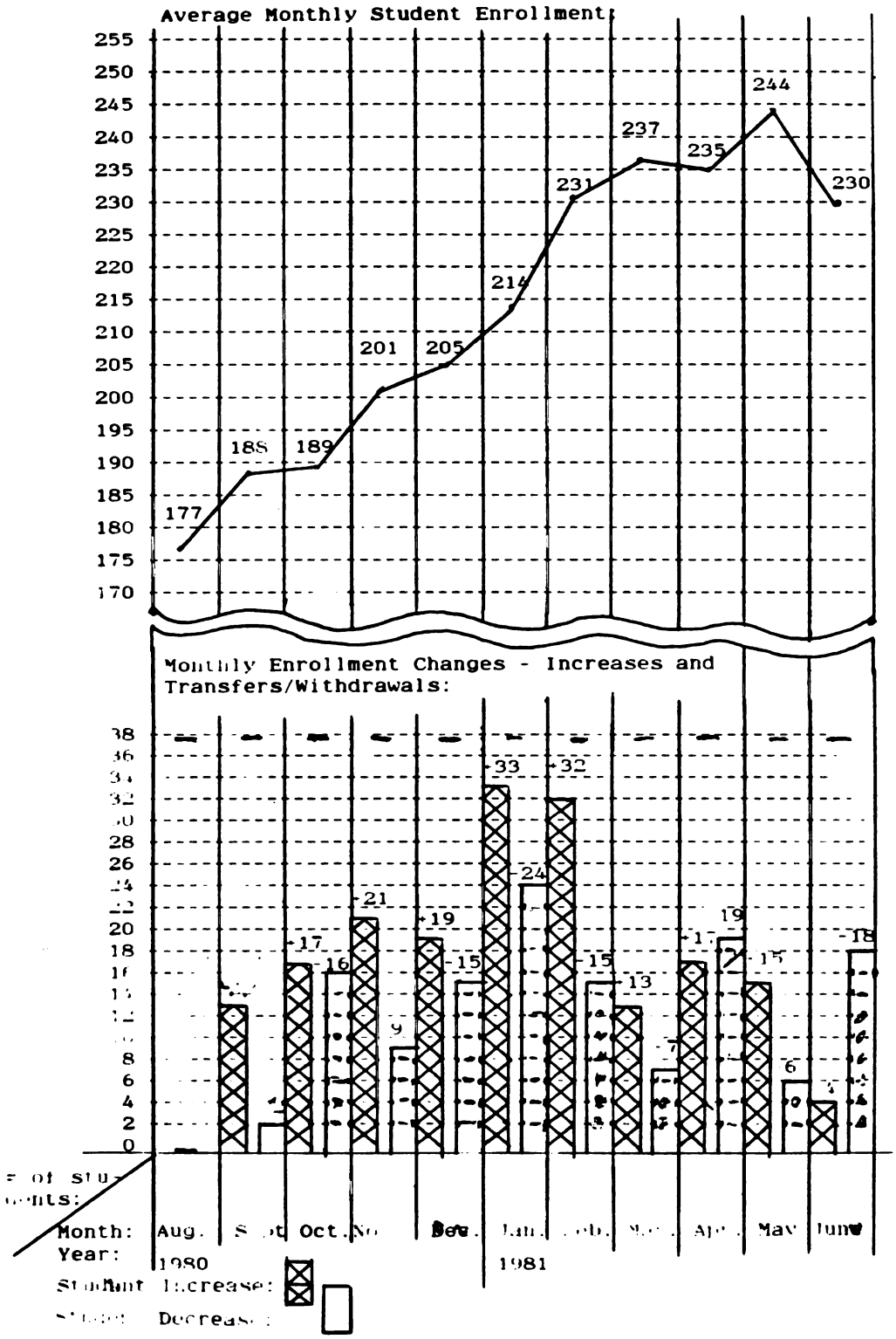
It is important to conclude with a reminder of the unique nature of each third culture setting. The relationship between the host nation and the military base has a special impact on the individual school on that particular base. Each location has a different quality that reflects the host national and local community's economic, political, social, and other cultural factors.

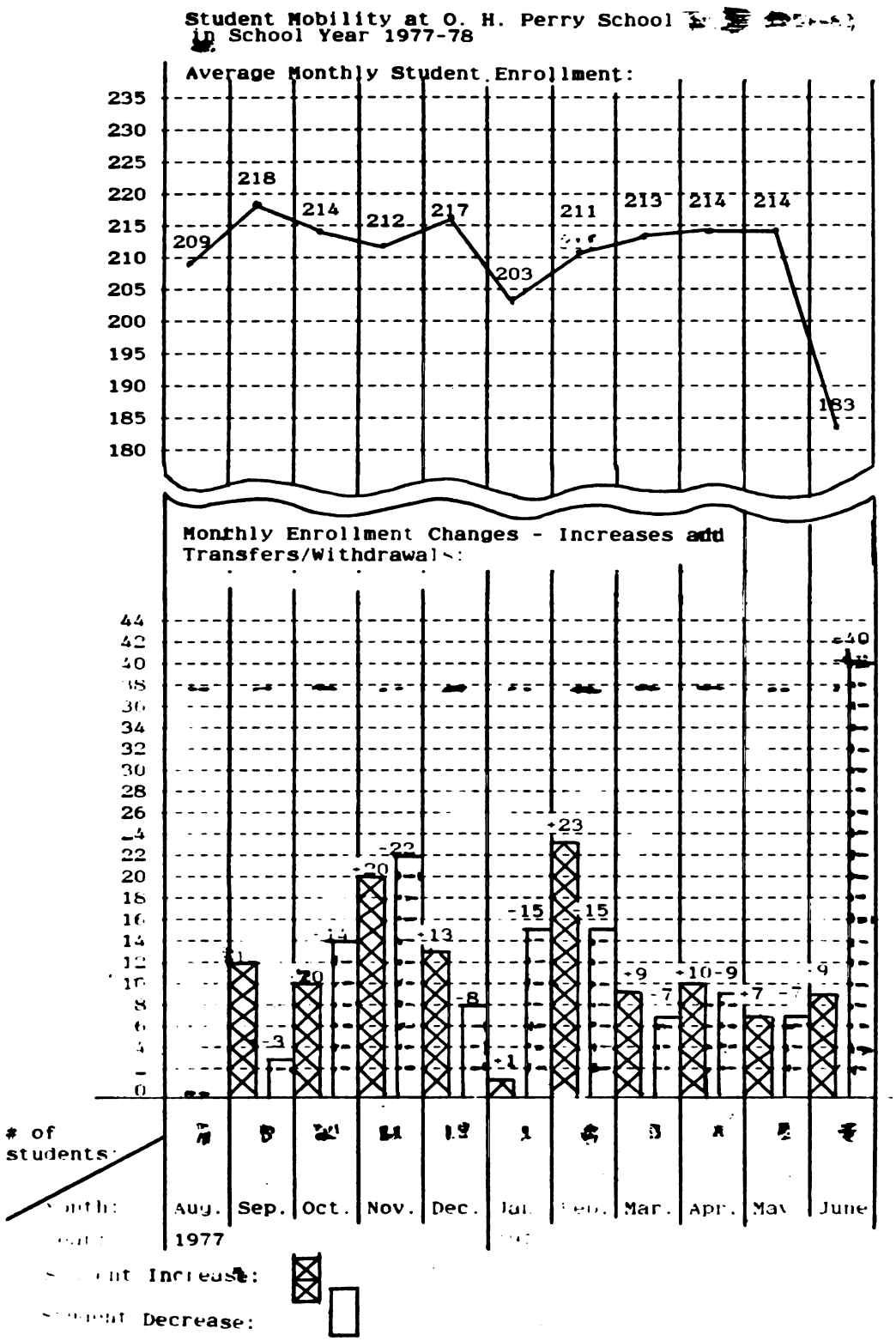
APPENDIX A

ENROLLMENT GRAPHS

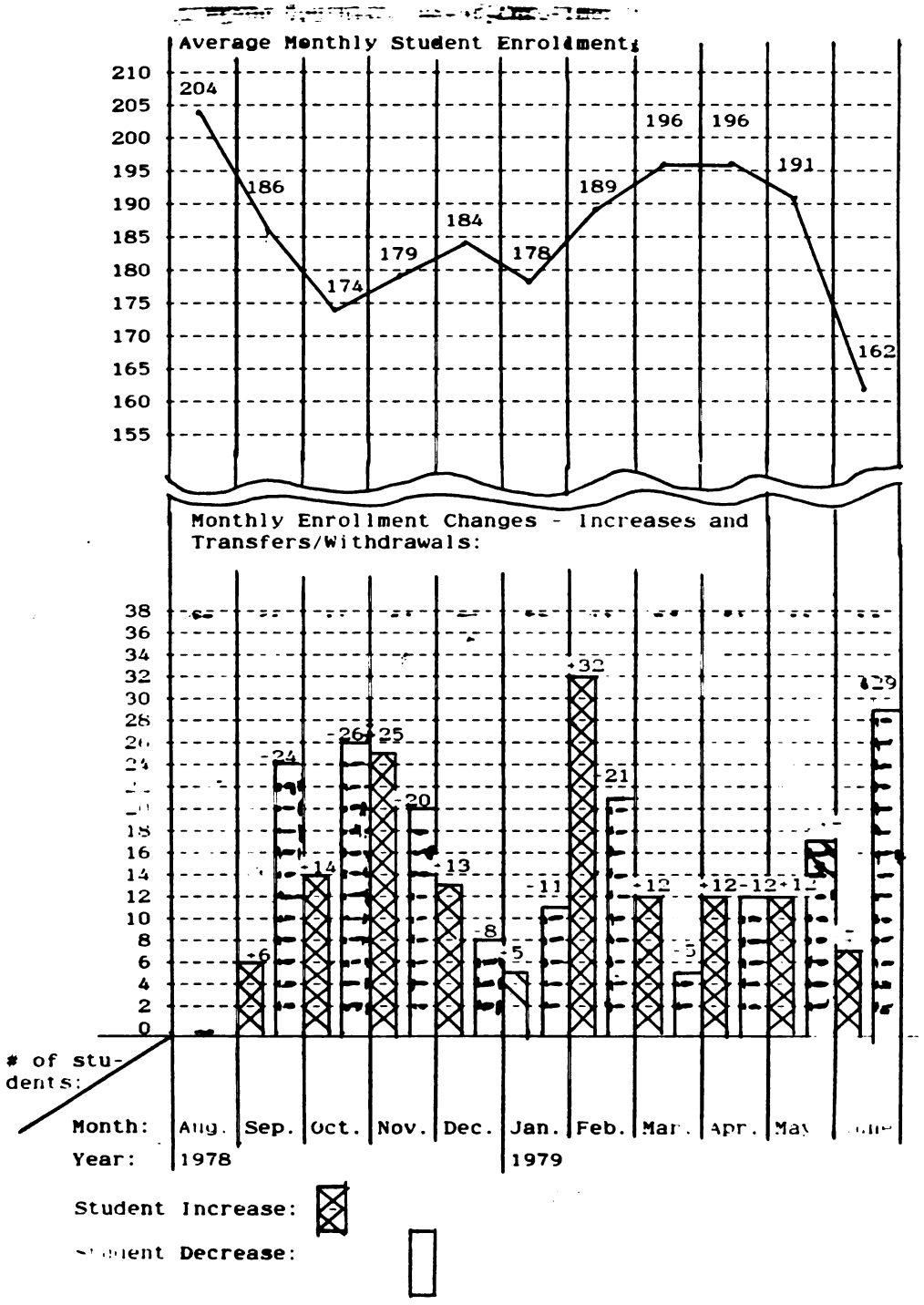
NOTE: These graphs were developed using enrollment figures supplied by Oliver Hazard of Perry School at San Miguel, Republic of the Philippines

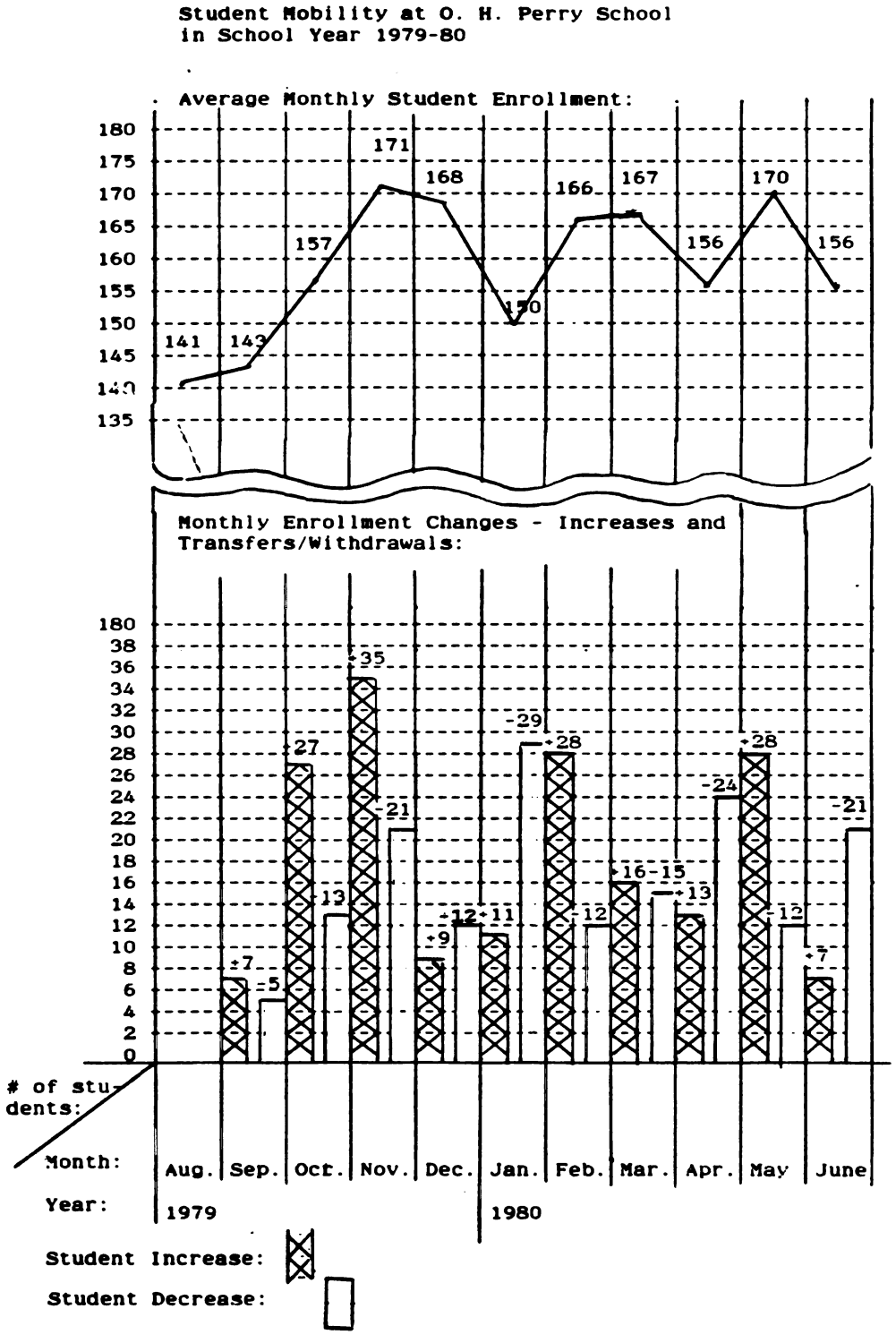
Student Mobility at O. H. Perry School in School Year 1980-81




Student Mobility at O. H. Perry School
In School Year 1977-78
Average Monthly Student Enrollment:
235
230
225
220
215
210
205
200
195
190
185
180
209
218
214
212
217
203
211
213
214
214
183
Monthly Enrollment Changes - Increases and Transfers/Withdrawals:
44
42
40
38
36
34
32
30
28
26
24
22
20
18
16
14
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
+1
-3
+20
-14
-20
-22
-13
-8
-1
-15
+23
-15
+9
-7
+10
-9
+7
-9
+40
# of students:
Month:
Aug.
Sep.
Oct.
Nov.
Dec.
Jan.
Feb.
Mar.
Apr.
May
June
1977
Student Increase:
Student Decrease:

Student Mobility at O. H. Perry School
in School Year 1978-79




Student Mobility at O. H. Perry School
in School Year 1979-80
Average Monthly Student Enrollment:
180
175
170
165
160
155
150
145
140
135
141
143
157
171
168
150
166
167
156
170
156
Monthly Enrollment Changes - Increases and
Transfers/Withdrawals:
180
38
36
34
32
30
28
26
24
22
20
18
16
14
12
10
8
6
4
2
0
+7
-5
+27
-13
+35
-21
+9
-12
+11
-29
+28
-12
+16
-15
+13
-24
+28
-12
+7
-21
# of students:
Month:
Aug.
Sep.
Oct.
Nov.
Dec.
Jan.
Feb.
Mar.
Apr.
May
June
Year:
1979
1980
Student Increase:
Student Decrease:

APPENDIX B

HISTORICAL ASPECTS OF THE AMERICAN MILITARY BASE AND DoDD SCHOOLS' DEVELOPMENT IN THE FAR EAST

Historical Aspects of the American Military Base and DoDD Schools Development in the Far East

Because of the unique backgrounds of the military families involved and the development of the DoDD schools, it is important to review and understand the related histories of the overseas military family and the overseas school-- especially since World War II. Most of the third culture children in DoDDS who are from intercultural marriages are the offspring of U.S. military and civilian personnel who have married host nation spouses while stationed on U.S. bases overseas. Although the original base may be closed and the host nation may no longer contain U.S. bases. the parent is still employed by DoD and the child is an important member of the DoDD schools whose cultural roots are a concern of this study. At the same time, the history of DoDDS is important if we are to understand the school system that exists today.

The creation of the present DoDD Schools system might be traced back to the period immediately after World War II when dependent families were able to join their spouses stationed in the occupation forces in Europe, and it became necessary to build a school system to meet the needs of school age dependents living overseas. As the U.S. occupation forces around the world increased and the number of school age dependents also increased, more and more dependent schools were needed.

Today, the DoDDS system consists of approximately 270 schools in more than 20 countries around the world. Approxi-

mately 136,000 students (grades K-12) are now in the DoDDS system (according to 1984 statistics). This is in contrast to the less than 2,000 students in the schools located in Europe in 1946. (DoDDS Summary of Progress, 1980:2)

Japan

After its defeat in World War II, Japan became an occupied nation on 14 August 1945. Not only had the nation been physically destoryed, but there was spiritual, social and economic destruction also. Edwin O. Reischauer describes this situation (Reischauer, 1970:218):

> Some 2 million of her people had died in the war, a third of them civilians; 40 percent of the aggregate area of the cities and been destoryed, and urban population had dropped by half; industry was at a standstill; even agriculture, short of equipment, fertilizer, and manpower had declined.

When the American troops first arrived in Japan on 27 August 1945, they represented the force that would govern Japan for nearly seven years. "In those years, 120,000 Americans would serve in Japan as part of the Occupation forces (as well as 40,000 members of the British Commonwealth)." (Peffer, 1958:455)

The specific objectives of the occupation were stated in the Initial Post Surrender Policy. The major objectives were to be certain that Japan would no longer be a threat to peace and to promote the development of a more democratic style government in which the people would have a voice. Despite the movement toward this goal, America, through its directives to General MacArthur, continued to play a predominant role.

The new Constitution of 1947 was basic to establishing a

democratic system. It gave women the legalization of equality and greater opportunities to work. (In fact, the U.S. bases and the occupation forces meant thousands of jobs for the Japanese people.) Although some Japanese women began to have cross-cultural contacts with the men in the American occupational forces, the Japanese people developed a closed social attitude toward these women. This attitude continues to some degree to the present. Certainly one factor in this attitude is the maintaining of the national and racial homogeneous characteristics. At no time have foreigners been fully accepted into Japanese society.

Since World War II and the end of the occupation, the U.S. military bases and DoDD schools in Japan have been reduced in number; however the following schools are still in operation in 1984:

BASE:	SCHOOL:	
Atsugi (Naval Air Facility)	Shirley Lanham El. School	466 students
Camp Zama (Army Base)	J.O. Arnn El. School	578 students
	Zama Middle School	261 students
	Zama High School	345 students
Iwakuni (Marine Corps Air Station)	M.C. Perry School	515 students
Misawa (Air Base)	Sollars El. School	888 students
	R.D. Edgren High School	406 students
Sasebo (Naval Base)	E.J. King American School	150 students
Yokohama (Naval Base)	R.E. Byrd El. School	200 students
Yokosuka (Naval Base)	Sullivans El. School	1260 students

	N.C. Kinnick High School	716 students
Yokota (Air Base)	Yokota East El. School	1025 students
	Yokota West El. School	492 students
	Yokota High School	804 students

Okinawa

Okinawa also came under American rule as a consequence of World War II. It was under the control of U.S. forces until 1969. It continues to be a strategic base for the United States. In 1958, 60,000 out of the base population of only 80,000 people were employed by the American military bases.

Ryukyu Islands, often identfied as Okinawa - the name of the largest island - reverted to Japan on 15 May 1972. This return to prefecture status was a return to the Japanese control over Okinawa that had existed from 1609 until World War II. Before 1906, both Japan and China had exerted considerable influence on the Ryukuyan kingdom. (Clayton, 1973:7-9

After the 1972 reversion to Japan, the government started a large scale rebuilding program. This program has continued into the 80's.

The following is a listing of military bases and DoDD schools in Okinawa today.

BASE:	SCHOOL:	
Kadena (Air Base)	Amelia Earhart Intermediate School	807 students
	Bob Hope Primary School	1099 students
	Kadena El. School	1155 students
	Stearley Heights El. School	662 students

	Kadena High School	1115 students
Camp Foster (Marine Corps)	Zukeran El. School	967 students
	Kubasaki High School	1247 students
Makiminato Housing Area (Naha)	Makiminato El. School	456 students
	Makiminato Middle School	238 students

Korea

From 1894 to 1945, Korean territory had been seized and colonized by the Japanese. After 1945, the 38th parallel divided Korea into North Korea (under Russian influence) and South Korea (under U.S. influence). In 1950, the tension that had developed between the North and the South erupted into a war known as the Korean Conflict. The soldiers of many nations became involved in the Conflict with the loss of many lives and great destruction in Korea. The tension between the two Koreas continues today, and this tension seeems unlikely to be reduced in the near future.

As a consequence of the loss of so many men in the Korean Conflict, Korean women often left their traditional homemaker roles to find employment in the cities as clerks, domestic workers, seamstresses, waitresses, etc. This, in turn, increased their social contact with American soliders.

The following are the American military bases and DoDD schools in Korea:

BASE:	SCHOOL:	
Chinhae (Naval Base)	C. Turner Joy El. School	32 students
Osan (Air Base)	Osan El. School	368 students
Pusan (Naval Base)	Pusan American School	242 students
Seoul (Army Base)	Seoul American El. School	1364 students

	Seoul High School	972 students
Taegu (Army Base)	Taegu American School	574 students

Philippines

The Philippines were a Spanish colony from 1561 until 1898 when the treaty that ended the Spanish-American War placed the islands under control of the United States. With the exception of the Japanese occupation during World War II the U.S. control continued until the Republic of the Philippines was designated an independent nation on 4 July 1964.

Philippine society and culture has been profoundly affected by the nation's centuries of colonial experience. The most obvious impact has been on the language (English - United States) and religion (Roman Catholicism - Spain). Although other languages are also spoken and other religions followed, English is the common language for the population of most of the nation while Roman Catholicism is the major religion of the nation.

The American bases and the businesses servicing those bases employ thousands of Filipinos. In fact, the Filipino employees constitute the largest number of host nationals employed by American bases overseas.

These are the U.S. military bases and DoDD schools in the Philippines:

BASE:	SCHOOL:	
Clark (Air Base)	MacArthur El. School	692 students
	V. Grissom El. School	708 students
	Wurtsmith El. School	1119 students

	Lily Hill Middle School	657 students
	Wagner Middle School	662 students
	Wagner High School	727 students
San Miguel (Naval Base)	O.H. Perry School	249 students
Subic Bay (Naval Base)	Binictican El. School	533 students
	Kalayaan El. School	561 students
	George Dewey High School	575 students

Thailand

In 1932 Thailand became a nominal constitutional monarchy; but by 1938, the country had a strong military dictator. With the help of the United States and Britain, the Free Thai movement succeeded in overthrowing the dictator in August 1944 and the new Free Thai government of Pridi came into power. (Vandenbosch and Butwell, 1966:279-288)

For many years Thailand served as an important base of operations for the U.S. Armed Forces. With many American servicemen stationed throughout the nation, Thai women met and married American servicemen. As in most other Asian nations, there is a major stigma attached to such intermarriage and it becomes a very emotional issue in the family that is involved. (Bok-Lin, 1981:34)

Although no DoDD schools are in Thailand, the Thai-American intermarriages have meant that children of these marriages are in the DoDD schools around the world.

Vietnam

The first French involvement in Vietnam started when a group of French soldiers landed to support a specific warring faction in 1789. By 1893, the French had completely con-

quered Indochina and established a protectorate over the kingdom of Laos.

In 1941, The Japanese occupied the area until the end of World War II. It was not easy for the French to renew their control over the area after the war and by June 1954, the French control of Vietnam came to an end with Vietnam divided along the 17th parallel into northern Viet Minh and Southern Vietnam. (Romein, 1962:353-6)

The struggle for control of all Vietnam escalated along with the increasing commitment of American troops into the battle as a civil war became an international war. In the 1970's, some half million U.S. servicemen were involved in fighting.

With the stationing of American servicemen throughout the area, there were many social contacts with Vietanamese women of all classes. Many of these contacts led to marriages and the starts of new intercultural families which often live now on U.S. bases in Asian nations other than the original homeland of the wife.

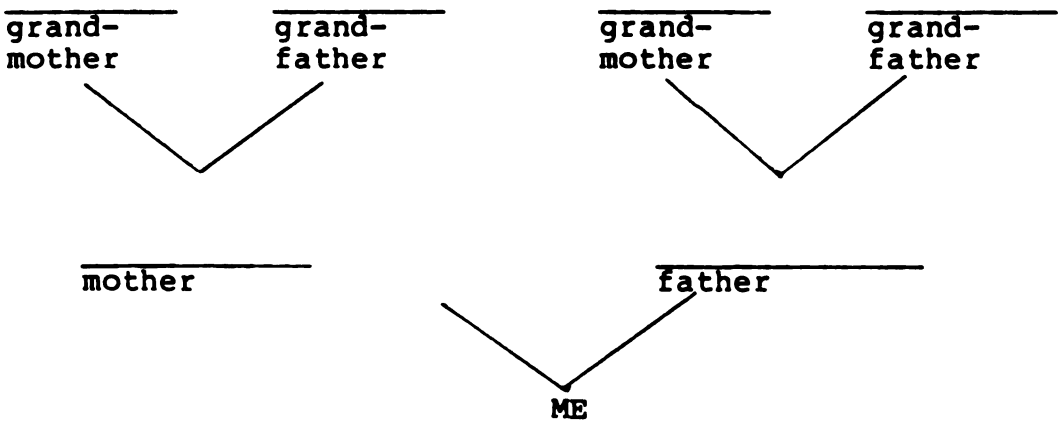
APPENDIX C

FAMILY TREE

Name_____

FAMILY TREE:

WHERE DO I COME FROM?



Where I have lived:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

now: Philippines

Name_____

Write all the people with whom you are now living. What is their origin or inheritance?

Own father_____

Stepfather_____

Adoptive father_____

Own mother_____

Stepmother_____

Adoptive mother_____

Brother(s)_____ Age_____

_____ Age_____

Sister(s) _____ Age_____

_____ Age_____

Halfbrother(s) _____ Age_____

_____ Age_____

Halfsister(s)_____ Age_____

APPENDIX D

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

This is not a test. There are no correct answers. The purpose of this questionnaire is to learn more about the background and experiences of DODDS students. The information gained will be used in a Ph.D. dissertation in education research at Michigan State University.

Your honest answers are very important, and your cooperation will be most appreciated. This questionnaire response will enable the researcher to more accurately understant the overseas school environment.

Your responses will be kept confidential.

Directions:

- -Please circle your answer to the question that asks you to select one response from different responses (A,B,C, or D; A. Yes or B. No)
- -Please write your answer in PRINT when more than circling a response is needed.

1. Your name: _____ Sex: A. Male B. Female
   First Middle Last
2. Your age: A. 13, B. 14, C. 15, D. Other:_____
3. Where do you live? On base in _____
   Off base in _____
4. Do you have other close relatives with whom you sometimes live or whom you often visit? A. Yes B. No
   If your answer is yes, where do they live? _____
5. What language do you speak when you are talking with your:
   Close friends? _____
   Father? _____ Mother? _____
   Brother(s) and sister(s)? _____
6. What does your mother with whom you are living do?
   A. Full-time ..ousewife and mother
   B. Part-time work as a _____
   (Give name of job.)
   C. Full-time work as a _____
   (Give name of job.)
7. If you have lived outside the Philippines, please answer this question: In which foreign countries have you lived before you came to the Philippines? List the countries and tell what you liked/disliked about going to school in each country.

Did you go to a DODD school? Yes or No	In which country did you live?	Why did you like the school? Why do you miss the school?	What did you dislike about the school?

If you have never lived outside the Philippines, answer the following: Would you like to live or go to school in the U.S. or other military base school other than a military base school in the Philippines?

A. Yes Which country? _____

B. No Why? _____

8. How many times have you changed schools?
   A. 1, B. 2, C. 3, D. 4, E. 5, F. 6, G. 7, H. more than 7 times
9. When I change schools, my grades usually
   A. go up. B. stay the same. C. go down.
10. I usually do my best work in
   A. mathematics, B. English, C. science, D. social studies
11. What is/are your extra-curricular school activity/ies?
   _____ _____
12. What is/are the major reason/s for your selection of this/these activity/ies?
   _____
   _____
13. When do you get together with the other students who are in this/these activities?
   - During school (such as eating lunch together):
     A. Often B. Sometimes C. Never
   - After school: A. Often B. Sometimes C. Never
   - During weekends: A. Often B. Sometimes C. Never
14. My best friend is: A. Male B. Female Age: _____
   Origin: _____
15. I can talk with him/her about personal problems bothering me.
   A. Yes B. No
16. How much influence does you family have on your choice of friends?
   A. Very much B. Some C. None
17. How often do your friends come to your home to visit?
   A. Often B. Sometimes C. Never
18. What kind of people or group do you usually avoid?
   _____
19. What is your interest in a future career/job right now?
   _____
20. When I have to decide my future, I think I will get the most important advice from:
   A. my parents B. my friends
   C. my teachers D. other: _____
21. How long is your father usually away from home on duty?
   A. Never B. A few days a month C. A week a month
   D. Two weeks a month E. More than two weeks F. Other:_____
22. When my father is away, my grades usually
   A. go up. B. stay the same. C. go down.
23. I feel that my parents are most interested in my
   A. grades. B. happiness. C. friends. D. behavior in school.
   E. assuming responsibility.

24. How important is the quality of your school work to your family?
A. Very important B. Some what important
C. Not at all important

25. How often do your parents (A. Father, B. Mother) push you to do your homework?
A. Often B. Sometimes C. Seldom D. Never

26. Who is in charge of discipline in your home?
A. Father B. Mother C. Grandfather D. Grandmother
E. Other:_____

27. At what time does your family expect you to go to bed?
A. Before 8 P.M. B. Before 9 P.M. C. Before 10 P.M.
D. Any time I want

28. Are you assigned household chores or work to do in your home?
A. Yes B. No
If you answered Yes, what kind of work are you expected to do? _____
_____

29. How often do you have serious talks with your father/mother in a typical week ?
A. Often B. Sometimes C. Never

30. Do you spend your holidays with your family?
A. Often B. Sometimes C. Never

31. Which holidays do you celebrate?
A. None B. Only American holidays
C. Only my origin country(_____) holidays
D. American holidays and my origin country holidays

32. How often do you watch TV?
A. I don't watch TV B. 1 hour a day
C. 2 hours a day D. 3 hours a day
E. 4 hours a day F. more than 4 hours a day

33. What are your favorite TV programs? (Please list in order.)
1st _____ 2nd _____
3rd _____ 4th _____

34. I eat mostly:
A. American style foods B. Oriental foods
C. Mexican foods D. Other:_____

35. Which is the best reason for me to avoid getting into trouble on base?
A. It may harm my father's career.
B. It would cause my friends to look down upon me .
C. It would cause me to look down upon myself.

APPENDIX E

LETTER FROM DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE

CONCERNING STATUS OF RESEARCH

DEPARTMENT OF DEFENSE
DEPENDENTS SCHOOLS
FUTENMA BOX 796
FPO SEATTLE 98772-5081

PACIFIC

July 10, 1984

EEF/635-4815

MEMORANDUM FOR Mrs. Tazuko Olson

SUBJECT: Research Project

In reviewing the records for projects approved prior to SY 83-84 we notice that you were collecting data for your dissertation entitled "Third Culture Factors in the Experiences of Eighth Grade Students in an Overseas Environment." We also understand that verbal approval was granted you by Dr. Don Ellis, CSA-Philippines.

Therefore, at your convenience, please inform this office of the current status of your project and the anticipated date of completion. Also, if we can be of any assistance, do not hesitate to call.

EARL L. FICKEN
Evaluation Coordinator

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